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Profiling leaders: using a profiling approach to examine the effects of multifactor leadership on follower deviance

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PROFILING LEADERS: USING A PROFILING APPROACH TO EXAMINE THE EFFECTS OF MULTIFACTOR LEADERSHIP ON FOLLOWER DEVIANCE

by

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_____
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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my amazing and incredibly supportive wife, Rebecca Hrvatin Wynne. Without her support and understanding, completing this project would have been much more difficult. I spent countless hours and late nights behind my keyboard and computer screen typing away or conducting analyses, and she has been continually supportive. I always thought she was a better student than I ever was or am. Becky, you are my inspiration.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Leadership scholars have increasingly directed their attention toward charismatic leadership, transformational leadership, and other so-called "new theories" of leadership in the last two decades (e.g., Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Sashkin, 2004). These scholars have attempted to identify the antecedents and, importantly, the outcomes of transformational leadership. Moreover, researchers have attempted to explain the processes by which these effects occur. In order to more fully explain the leadership process and its effect on various organizational outcomes (see more below), Avolio and Bass (1991; also Antonakis & House, 2002) proposed the "full-range leadership theory" (FRLT), which expands upon traditional transformational leadership theory to include transactional and laissez-faire types of leadership.

Some evidence exists for both "subjective" (e.g., Judge & Bono, 2000; Judge & Piccolo, 2004) and "objective" (e.g., Geyer & Steyrer, 1998; Rowold & Laukamp, 2009) indicators of organizational outcomes emanating from transformational leadership, and meta-analyses have summarized some of these effects (e.g., Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). For example, elements of transformational leadership have been linked to work unit effectiveness (Lowe et al., 1996), follower satisfaction with the leader, follower motivation, and leader effectiveness (Judge & Piccolo, 2004), as well as to absenteeism, training and development activity, and branch profit (Rowold & Laukamp, 2009). However, the nature of the relationship between transformational leadership—as well as other types of leadership—and negative outcomes, such as organizational deviance, has not been studied extensively. As an important outcome

relevant to organizations' financial performance—a particularly germane topic in light of the recent world-wide economic downturn—deviant, unethical, or other work behaviors that are counterproductive and harmful to the organization cost employers billions of dollars every year in damages, losses in inventory, lost productivity, and decreased performance (Murphy, 1993). Thus, despite the emergence of workplace deviance (or, alternatively, counterproductive work behavior; CWB) as a major stream of research, a dearth of research exists that more fully and cogently explains the relationships between transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors (i.e., FRLT) and workplace deviance. In fact, Vardi and Weitz (2004) called for more attention on the effect of leadership on deviance when they noted, "overlooked is the fact that leaders may also encourage negative attitudes and behaviors" (p. 41). For example, certain leadership behaviors (e.g., transformational) have the potential to discourage or reduce negative workplace outcomes such as deviance, whereas other behaviors (e.g., laissez-faire) might encourage or exacerbate negative workplace outcomes.

Taken from a different perspective, followers' level of deviance can also be viewed as one definition or measure of successful leadership. A number of outcomes have been used to define successful and unsuccessful leadership, including subordinate perceptions of effectiveness, leader upward movement in a hierarchy (e.g., promotion), organizational level achieved (especially in relation to potential), self-reference ("personal best"), the degree to which the leader is able to engender change, and organizational outcomes such as financial performance or reputation (e.g., McCauley, 2004). Organizational and interpersonal deviance, however, have not been used in research as a measure of leadership effectiveness, despite abundant evidence

that deviance can be detrimental to individual and organizational performance (Vardi & Weitz, 2004). Research has also established that leaders can have an influence on individual-level behaviors and that these effects are often indirect (e.g., Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). Thus, deviance has been virtually ignored as a measure of successful leadership. The purpose of the present study was to examine and establish how different types of leadership potentially impact the level of follower counterproductive or deviant behavior, as well as conditions under which these effects occur. It was posited that the relationship between leadership type and follower deviance depends on the level of follower organizational identification.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

To the author's knowledge, only one study in the organizational research literature has directly focused on the relationship between charismatic/transformational leadership style or behaviors and workplace deviance (Brown & Treviño, 2006). This study found that charismatic leadership was negatively related to workplace deviance and that values congruence partially mediated the effect on deviance.

These findings are an important starting point in establishing and understanding the effect of leadership type on deviance. However, the Brown and Treviño study is limited in important ways. For instance, the authors sought only to understand the relationship between charismatic leadership and deviance, leaving the relationships involving the other types of leadership Bass and his colleagues have identified as pertinent—transactional and laissez-faire leadership—unknown. The present study contributes to the extant literature by examining how the full range of leadership affects deviance.

Moreover, instead of focusing on values congruence as a mediator, it was proposed that *social identification* with the organization, such that the organization becomes a strong and salient part of the employee's ingroup, moderates the effect on deviance. *Organizational identification* (OI) is a specific form of social identification that represents the degree to which an organizational member cognitively identifies with his or her organization (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). In other words, it was proposed that the relationship between leadership type and follower deviance varies as a function of follower organizational identification (see Figure 1).

The present thesis aimed to continue where the Brown and Treviño study left off to further explore the nature of the relationship between leadership and deviance and also extend the criterion-related validity of transformational leadership. That is, the present study offers a fuller explanation of the effect of leadership type on deviance by also examining the effect of other types of leadership (i.e., transactional and laissez-faire) on deviance. Specifically, perhaps those who admire and are motivated by transformational or transactional leaders are less inclined to behave in counterproductive ways—which are damaging to the whole group—especially when followers identify more strongly with their organization (i.e., when an organization's identity becomes a part of employees' self-concepts). Similarly, those who have laissez-faire leaders may be demotivated and thus may be more inclined to behave in counterproductive ways, especially when followers identify less strongly with their organization.

Kreiner and Ashforth (2004) unequivocally called for greater "documentation of subsequent outcomes" of identification (p. 22). Additionally, transformational leadership has been referred to as being in "Stage 2" of the evolution of new theories, in which theories are reviewed and the "focus is on identifying moderating and mediating variables relevant" to theories of transformational leadership (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003, p. 262). The present study attempted to address both of these calls and contribute to the extant knowledge of both multifactor leadership theory and OI. The purpose of this research was to explain and test a theoretical model that describes the conditions under which perceptions of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership may impact workplace deviance.

The next sections more fully introduce the constructs under study and describe the theoretical rationale that leads to the hypotheses. Then, the methodology and analyses are described before concluding with a discussion of the results.

Multifactor Leadership Theory

A large number of transformational (also referred to as *charismatic*) leadership approaches have been proposed (Sashkin, 2004), but of them, perhaps the most prominent are Bass's theories on transformational leadership. Many leadership scholars credit James McGregor Burns (1978) for his influence in initiating theories on transformational leadership, and it was Bass (1985) who was the first to catalyze empirical research on Burns' ideas (Sashkin, 2004). Specifically, Burns distinguished two types of leadership: *transactional,* which is based on economic exchanges or transactions between leaders and followers, and *transformational,* in which a leader "looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower. The result…is a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents" (Burns, 1978, p. 4).

Importantly, Bass (1985) demonstrated empirically that the two types were not opposite ends of a single continuum, but instead were separate behavioral dimensions. Bass asserted that transactional leadership, which represented much of the theory at the time, was limited to basic exchanges in the leader-follower dynamic. He exhorted leadership researchers to consider a different type of leadership—*transformational leadership*—that explained leaders' influence on followers to "transcend self-interest for the greater good of their units and organizations in order to achieve optimal levels of

performance" (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003, p. 264). Based on a number of studies through the 1980s, Bass and his colleagues expanded transformational leadership theory to include *transactional leadership,* and a third type of leadership, *laissez-faire leadership,* collectively known as *multifactor leadership theory* (also referred to as *full-range leadership theory;* FRLT),

To measure the "full range" of leadership types according to the multifactor leadership model, Bass and his colleagues developed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). The MLQ has gone through a large number of revisions, but most recently, support has been found for a nine-factor version of the questionnaire (Antonakis et al., 2003). Decomposed, the nine specific factors consist of five dimensions relating to transformational leadership, three dimensions relating to transactional leadership, and one dimension relating to laissez-faire leadership.

Transformational leadership. Transformational leaders are characterized as being extraordinarily motivating, being visionary, being able to garner commitment from others, helping others to understand how their work fits in with the organization's goals, and exciting people to work especially hard for the good of the organization (Antonakis et al., 2003). The factors of the MLQ relating to transformational leadership include: *idealized influence (attributed,* or *attributes),* which relates to followers' perceptions of the leader's power, confidence, and moral purpose; *idealized influence (enacted,* or *behaviors),* which relates to behaviors rooted in values, beliefs, and purpose; *individualized consideration,* which involves developing and demonstrating a concern for followers; *intellectual stimulation,* which concerns encouraging followers to seek new

solutions to problems; and *inspirational motivation,* which includes articulating a vision and showing optimism and confidence in the vision.

Transactional leadership. Transactional leadership is characterized as "an exchange process based on the fulfillment of contractual obligations and is typically represented as setting objectives and monitoring and controlling outcomes" (Antonakis et al., 2003, p. 265). This type of leadership includes three factors: *contingent reward leadership,* which involves clarifying role and task requirements and providing rewards based on achievement of objectives; *management-by-exception active* (MBEA), which involves vigilant supervision and active involvement; and *management-by-exception passive* (MBEP), in which leaders only intercede in employees' affairs and work if they are making mistakes. Contingent reward leadership is generally considered an effective form of leadership behavior (e.g., Judge & Piccolo, 2004) and is highly correlated with—and often factors with—the transformational dimensions (e.g., Lowe et al., 1996), whereas the other two components of transactional leadership are negatively related to leaders' effectiveness (Avolio & Bass, 1991; Center for Leadership Studies, 2000, as reported in Eagly & Carli, 2004).

Laissez-faire leadership. Laissez-faire leadership refers to a lack of leadership or responsibility, or an absence of leader behavior in which the leader avoids decision-making and use of authority. This type of leadership is the most passive and ineffective type of leadership. For example, laissez-faire leadership leads to less concentration on work, poor quality of work, and low levels of productivity, cohesiveness, and satisfaction (Bass, 1990a). Laissez-faire leadership predicts both self-reported and observed bullying among subordinates (Hoel et al., 2010). Additionally, mentor laissez-faire

behavior has been demonstrated to be negatively related to mentoring functions received, which in turn is negatively related to protégé job-related stress (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). Lastly, a recent study found that, among four types of destructive leadership behavior (laissez-faire, supportive-disloyal, derailed, and tyrannical), laissez-faire leadership behavior was the most prevalent in organizations (Aasland et al., 2010).

Current meta-dimension groupings. As noted above, the instrument designed to measure the full range of leadership, the MLQ, contains separate factors that correspond to the different types of leadership. All leaders are assessed on each of these factors. Although the MLQ consists of nine separate factors describing three different types of leadership, Bass and Avolio (http://www.mindgarden.com/products/mlq.htm#ascales; also Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999) more recently contend that individual dimensions could be collapsed to form three meta-dimension groupings: *transformational leadership* (all transformational dimensions: idealized attributes, idealized behaviors, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration), *transactional leadership* (contingent reward and MBEA dimensions), and *passivity* (MBEP and laissez-faire dimensions). These dimension groupings slightly deviate from the authors' original conceptualization of leadership typology. As evidence, Tejeda, Scandura, and Pillai (2001) found a lack of support for the original factor structure of the MLQ. Their findings supported a second-order factor structure in confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in their examination of the MLQ's psychometric properties.

Consistent with Bass and Avolio's contention, recent research has confirmed that the transformational leadership subscales have demonstrated strong internal

consistency (Tejeda et al., 2001). Likewise, MBEP and laissez-faire components tend to be strongly intercorrelated. These two dimensions are also negatively correlated with all other dimensions. On the other hand, contrary to Bass and Avolio's contention, the contingent reward dimension tends to factor and is strongly associated with the transformational leadership dimensions (also Judge & Piccolo, 2004), while being negatively related to all other dimensions. Conceptually, like transformational behaviors, contingent reward behaviors generally tend to be constructive. For example, these behaviors include clarifying goals, showing satisfaction when expectations are met, and providing assistance to others in exchange for effort.

Thus, empirical findings suggest a slightly different three-factor, higher order solution than the one Bass and his colleagues suggest. Specifically, the contingent reward dimension would perhaps be more appropriately grouped with the transformational dimensions on both theoretical and empirical grounds. Based on the extant empirical research on multifactor leadership theory, the present study proposed a revised typology, examining the following three types of leadership: *transformational*, *vigilant/active*, and *passive/avoidant*. Table 1 depicts the revised typology and lists the dimensions that are included in each category of leadership.

The constructs *workplace deviance* and *organizational identification* are introduced next. Their relation to the various leadership types is discussed. Then, the current study and hypotheses are described and explained.

Workplace Deviance

Counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs) are defined as voluntary or "volitional acts that harm or intend to harm organizations and their stakeholders" (Spector & Fox,

2005, p. 151). CWB is sometimes referred to as *workplace deviance,* which has been similarly defined as intentional actions that both violate the norms of and harm the organization in some way (O'Leary-Kelly, Duffy, & Griffin, 2000). Although conceptualized in varying ways (e.g., aggression, retaliation, hostility, sabotage, theft, withdrawal, etc.), CWB and deviance each have been used as an umbrella term describing workplace behaviors that are generally considered to be ineffective, destructive or antisocial, and purposeful. Bruk-Lee and Spector (2006) summarize these terms by describing CWBs as "detrimental behaviors that affect an organization's productivity and coworkers' performance" (p. 147). To be considered CWB, the behavior must be intentional, but the harm can be either incidental or intentional (Spector & Fox, 2005).

Researchers have classified the construct of deviance according to the intended target. Research on deviance has generally distinguished deviance targeted toward the organization (i.e., organizational deviance, or CWB-O) from deviance targeted toward specific individuals (i.e., interpersonal deviance, or CWB-I). Organizational deviance, or CWB-O, directly involves or affects productivity or property of the organization. These behaviors range from withdrawal to sabotage (e.g., time-wasting, damaging equipment; Bruk-Lee & Spector, 2006).

Conversely, interpersonal deviance, or CWB-I, is behavior aimed at one's coworkers or supervisors. CWB-I affects individual productivity and can harm relationships as well as professional reputations of victims and actors. Like CWB-O, these behaviors range in severity. For example, gossiping is generally less severe than verbal or physical harassment (Bruk-Lee & Spector, 2006).

Robinson and Bennett (1995) highlighted the importance of this distinction between deviance directed at the organization versus deviance directed at organizational members. They argued that those who are deviant toward the organization are likely to be different than those who are deviant toward individuals. Thus, the two forms are typically motivated by different factors, suggesting that antecedents impact each form of deviance in different ways. For this reason, much research has made the distinction between deviance directed toward the organization and deviance toward individuals. For example, Bennett and Robinson (2000) developed subscales that measure organizational deviance and interpersonal deviance separately.

The same authors previously created and tested a typology distinguishing and describing the two types (in addition to distinguishing between minor and more serious deviant workplace behavior). They divided interpersonal deviance into *political deviance*, such as showing favoritism or gossiping about co-workers, and *personal aggression*, such as sexual harassment, verbal abuse, or endangering co-workers (Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

Organizational deviance is further broken down into the categories of *production deviance* and *property deviance* (Bruk-Lee & Spector, 2006). The former includes behaviors that affect productivity, such as withdrawal or work avoidance (e.g., wasting time, arriving late, leaving early, etc.). The latter includes behaviors that damage or affect the organization's property, such as sabotage (e.g., damaging equipment, theft, doing work incorrectly, etc.).

Multifactor Leadership and Deviance

A limited amount of theory has suggested that leadership style may have an influence on deviant behaviors (Vardi & Weitz, 2004). For example, Vardi and Weitz highlighted the psychological contract, or an implicit agreement between individuals connected by a social exchange, as a key interpersonal factor in the manifestation of deviance. Since psychological contracts are rooted in the fulfillment of mutual obligations, there are implications for contingent reward leadership, which is based on providing rewards in exchange for achievements. Additionally, social undermining was identified as another potential individual-level antecedent of deviance. If employees view leader hypervigilance (MBEA) or passivity (MBEP, laissez-faire) as undermining their performance, this may lead to behavioral reactions in the form of deviance.

As previously mentioned, Brown and Treviño (2006) conducted a field study that examined the relationship between socialized charismatic leadership—a prosocial form of charismatic leadership—and deviance in work groups. Their findings were that, for work groups led by socialized charismatic leaders, less interpersonal and organizational deviance was reported, the rationale being that those who are characterized by a socialized charismatic leadership style exemplify ethical leadership. The authors then examined the role of value congruence as a mediator, but only partial support was found. Specifically, value congruence mediated the relationship for interpersonal deviance, but not for organizational deviance.

The effects of other types of leadership behaviors (i.e., contingent reward, MBEA, MBEP, laissez-faire) were not considered in Brown and Treviño's research. Thus, the relationship between leadership type and deviance has some empirical support, but much remains unexplained. Specifically, it is unclear how other types of

leadership relate to deviance. Non-transformational leadership behaviors potentially can have a positive, a negative, or no effect on follower deviance. The present study explored the relationships between the "full range" of leadership behaviors and deviance.

Organizational Identification

Ashforth and Mael (1989) discussed the relevance of social identity to organizational research. Social identity is defined as "that part of the individuals' self-concept which derives from their knowledge of their membership of a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance of that membership" (Tajfel, 1981, p. 255). Social identity theory (SIT) suggests that people categorize themselves and other people into a number of social categories (e.g., organizational membership, gender, etc.).

This classification serves two purposes (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). First, it provides cognitive order of the social environment, which serves as a mechanism or means of defining other people. Second, relevant to OI, it allows people to define *themselves* in the social environment. That is, people may define themselves in terms of the group(s) with which they identify, viewing themselves as a member and sharing the fate of the greater group. Another feature of social identity is that one may identify with sub-unit groups (e.g., departments, workgroups, etc.) in addition to identifying with the organization.

Social identification. Social identification, which is the "perception of belongingness to a group classification" (Mael & Ashforth, 1992, p. 104), is primarily a cognitive concept and is not *necessarily* linked to—but *can* have a powerful impact on—

specific behaviors or affect (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; emphases added). Additionally, when a person identifies, he or she also experiences the group's failures and successes. Identification and in-group favoritism can occur even without strong leadership or member cohesion, as may be the case when followers have passive leaders. Identification is enhanced when the group or organization is distinct or prestigious or when the presence of other similar groups is salient, especially when they are in competition with the in-group. In other words, identification is "relational and comparative" (Tajfel & Turner, 1985, p. 16), in that group members are defined relative to members in other groups.

Organizational identification. As noted above, OI is a specific type of identification applied to organizational contexts, in which a person is partly defined by his or her membership in a specific organization (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). OI has been studied for at least three decades (e.g., Brown, 1969; Hall, Sneider, & Nygren, 1970; Lee, 1971). However, the last decade especially has seen an increased interest in OI and greater clarification of the concept.

OI has been defined in various ways, but many are consistent with Mael and Ashforth's (1992) perspective. They define OI as the "perception of oneness with or belongingness to an organization where the individual defines him or herself at least partly in terms of their organizational membership" (p. 109). It usually involves perceptions of sharing characteristics, values, and faults (Mael & Tetrick, 1992) and perceiving the fate of the organization as one's own (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Psychological group identification is cognitive, or perceptual, rather than affective or behavioral, which are viewed as antecedents or consequences of identification. In fact,

identification as a construct is "not necessarily associated with any specific behaviors or affective states" (Ashforth & Mael, 1989, p. 21). OI is present when employees partly define themselves in terms of what they think the organization represents (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004). Moreover, individuals differ in their propensity to identify with an organization (Mael & Ashforth, 1995).

OI has been distinguished from similar constructs such as organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors—which are viewed as antecedents or consequences of OI—as well as occupational and professional identification and identification with subunits of the organization (e.g., departments, functions, etc.; Ashforth & Mael, 1989). OI is also distinct from person-organization fit, satisfaction, involvement, and its most similar construct, attitudinal organizational commitment (AOC; Riketta, 2005). Unlike AOC, OI is specific to the employee's organization; by definition, OI cannot be transferred to another organization, but internalization of commitment can be (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). In fact, leaving an organization a member has identified with can lead to psychological loss (Levinson, 1970).

OI has been linked to many general, positive outcomes. First, group members offer support to institutions that embody salient aspects of their identity (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Social identification may reinforce competition with outgroups; when employees consider their organization to be their ingroup, they may be less likely to act in ways that put their ingroup to a disadvantage (e.g., organizational deviance). Similarly, identification also impacts cooperation, altruism, and positive group evaluations (Turner, 1982). Lastly, identification may lead to internalization of group

values. Many organizations place an emphasis on ethics and acting in fair and non-deviant ways. Thus, those higher in OI may internalize ethical behavior and avoid harmful behavior to a greater extent.

It perhaps comes as no surprise, then, that OI has consequently been found to be linked to many specific, positive, and organizationally relevant outcomes. OI is related to work motivation, task performance, and contextual performance (van Knippenberg, 2000); job satisfaction, job involvement, in-role performance, and (negatively related to) intent to leave (Riketta, 2005); and making financial contributions to and participating in organizational functions of an alumni organization (Mael & Ashforth, 1992).

However, disidentification or ambivalent identification is related to avoidance, annoyance, and anger (Pratt, 2000). Further, disidentified employees often remain with an organization because of continuance or normative commitment or other reasons (e.g., poor labor market, etc.; Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004). Instead of quitting, ambivalent views or strong negative views may be translated into negative on-the-job behaviors targeted toward the organization.

Organizational Identification and Deviance

As noted above, Ashforth and Mael (1989) clarified the concept of OI by re-conceptualizing it using a SIT perspective. They argued that OI is a specific type of social identification, providing meaning, connectedness, and empowerment for organizational members. These members identify partly to increase self-esteem, as identification allows them to vicariously take part in the greater group's success. The main motive for identification is self-enhancement, and Ashforth, Harrison, and Corley

(2008) noted that employees' "acting on behalf of the organization is tantamount to acting on behalf of themselves" (p. 337). Therefore, acting in prosocial ways is enhancing to the organization, and thus, is likely to be enhancing to the self. Likewise, acting in counterproductive ways is destructive to the organization, and thus, is likely to be destructive to the self.

Members select activities that are congruent with their identities and "support the institutions embodying those identities" (Ashforth & Mael, 1989, p. 25). This suggests that individuals are more likely to act in ways that reaffirm and support organizations and other institutions that are relevant to their identities. Additionally, because it is "reasonable to expect that identification would be associated with loyalty to, and pride in, the group and its activities" (p. 26), it is reasonable to expect that identification would also be associated with being disloyal to the organization (i.e., organizational deviance).

When one identifies with an entity, one perceives oneself as linked to the fate of the group (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Because "identification induces the individual to engage in, and derive satisfaction from, activities congruent with the identity, to view him- or herself as an exemplar of the group, and to reinforce factors conventionally associated with group formation" (p. 35), it is posited that those who identify to a greater extent with the organization are less likely to act in ways that harm the organization, as they may see themselves as a sort of representative or agent of the organization and may view harm done to the organization as harm done to themselves.

Several relationships in the empirical literature suggest that OI may have an influence on organizational deviance. First, OI has been found to be associated with extra-role behavior (i.e., OCB; Riketta, 2005). In turn, OCB is moderately (and

negatively) related to organizational deviance, as suggested by a recent meta-analytic review (Dalal, 2005). Second, OI overlaps considerably with AOC; organizational commitment has been found to be negatively related to deviance and positively related to OCB (Dalal, 2005).

Furthermore, theoretically, individuals "vicariously partake in the successes and the failures" of the organization through identification (Ashforth & Mael, 1989, p. 22), suggesting that those who identify with and are proud of being part of the larger whole that is the organization may seek ways to promote the organization and avoid harming the organization. Conversely, those who identify with the organization to a lesser extent or who are indifferent may care less about harm done to the organization. These propositions implicate the possibility that one's level of OI may have an influence on his or her degree of organizational deviance.

Some individuals may be more prone to identifying strongly with their organization than other individuals (Mael & Ashforth, 1995). As an individual-difference variable, followers within an organization generally vary in the extent to which they identify with that organization. How they react to their superior's leadership orientation may depend on how strongly they identify with their organization. For example, it is possible that OI operates as a buffer in that, regardless of the leader's orientation, the strength of the follower's OI diminishes the effect of the leadership type. On the other hand, OI may strengthen the effect of the leader's orientation on follower deviance. These effects are plausible, but remain unexplained. The present study aimed to fill the gap in the research by examining what effect, if any, OI has on the relationship between

leadership orientation and follower deviance. The next section further elaborates on the

aims of the study and offers corresponding hypotheses.

CHAPTER 3

CURRENT STUDY AND HYPOTHESES

As noted above, Bass (1985) suggested that different leadership types are not represented by opposite ends of a single continuum, but instead are separate behavioral dimensions. However unlikely, it is possible that leaders can be perceived to (a) frequently demonstrate transformational, vigilant, and passive types of leadership behaviors simultaneously, (b) rarely demonstrate any of the categories of leadership behaviors, or (c) demonstrate some other combination. Because of these possible combinations of leadership type, more elaborate explanations follow that describe leaders as fitting certain "profiles" and hypothesize how these profiles affect follower deviance.

Multifactor Leadership Profiles

Because the facets of multifactor leadership are measured on separate dimensions, leaders can be thought of as possessing or displaying a certain leadership profile. That is, leaders can display behaviors that simultaneously exemplify transformational leadership behaviors to a certain extent, vigilant/active leadership behaviors to a certain extent, and passive/avoidant leadership behaviors to a certain extent. As one example, one could be characterized as demonstrating mostly transformational behaviors, some vigilant/active behaviors, and few passive/avoidant behaviors.

The extant research and theory on transformational leadership has largely neglected to discuss leadership in terms of profiles. One possible reason for this is that most of this research has focused interest exclusively on the transformational facet,

while ignoring the other dimensions. Thus, a major contribution that this thesis makes to the literature is that it takes a more sophisticated approach by discussing leadership in terms of a profile made up of several dimensions. This contribution is based on the recognition that leaders can display varying degrees of the multiple facets of leadership.

The present study focuses on four primary leadership profiles (see Table 2). The first profile describes transformational-oriented leaders. That is, leaders with this profile are high on transformational, low on vigilance/activity, and low on passivity. These leaders are viewed as inspirational, motivating, and exchange-based. They are not perceived as demonstrating hypervigilant supervision, active involvement, avoidant behaviors, or passive leadership. Transformational-oriented leaders are likely the most effective because they demonstrate mostly positive and few negative leadership behaviors.

The second profile characterizes vigilant-transformational leaders, or leaders who are high on transformational, high on vigilance/activity, but low on passivity. Consistent with this profile, a quantitative review (Lowe et al., 1995) suggested that a single individual may demonstrate both transactional and transformational leadership simultaneously. These leaders are viewed as inspirational and motivating, as well as lacking avoidant or passive behaviors. However, they may also tend to demonstrate hypervigilant supervision and active involvement and correction. Vigilant-transformational leaders are likely less effective than transformational leaders because those who are high on vigilance (i.e., MBEA) tend to be corrective, rather than constructive. That is, these leaders closely monitor subordinates' work for mistakes and focus on failures to meet standards. However, they are likely more effective than vigilant

(non-transformational) or passive leaders because they still demonstrate many of the positive transformational leadership behaviors.

The third profile characterizes vigilant, highly active leaders, or leaders who are high on vigilance/activity, but low on transformational and passivity. Vigilance-oriented leaders are not viewed as inspirational and motivating, and they lack avoidant or passive behaviors. Instead, they largely demonstrate hypervigilant supervision, active involvement, and corrective behavior. Vigilance-oriented leaders are likely less effective than transformational and vigilant-transformational leaders (but more effective than passive leaders) because vigilant leaders demonstrate mostly negative and few positive leadership behaviors.

The last profile describes passivity-oriented leaders. That is, the leader is low on transformational, low on vigilance/activity, but high on passivity. This type of leader is not perceived as inspirational and motivating, nor demonstrates hypervigilant supervision and active involvement. These leaders largely enact avoidant and passive leadership behaviors. Passive leaders are likely the least effective because they demonstrate the most negative leadership behaviors.

Worth noting is that at least three other profiles are conceivable, but highly unlikely. For example, one possible profile characterizes leaders who are low on all three dimension-groupings (transformational, vigilance/activity, passivity), whereas another profile characterizes leaders who are high on all three dimension-groupings. Although it is possible for one to score low or high on all three using the MLQ instrument, these possibilities are theoretically nonsensical. For instance, since non-leadership or an absence of leadership characterizes laissez-faire leadership, it does

not make sense for one to score low on all other facets without scoring high on passivity.

Similarly, another profile characterizes leaders who are low on transformational, high on vigilance/activity, and high on passivity. Here, they would tend to demonstrate hypervigilant supervision and active involvement, as well as avoidant or passive behaviors. However, one cannot simultaneously be very actively involved and motivating, while also very passively avoidant, for example. Likewise, since being proactive is a major component of transformational leadership, one cannot simultaneously be frequently passive and transformational, by definition. For this reason, profiles describing leaders who are either high or low on all three dimension-groupings (or high on either transformational or vigilance, in addition to high on passivity) were not included in the present study.

Hypotheses: Main Effects

The present study proposes that different leadership orientations (i.e., leadership profile types) result in significantly different levels of follower deviance. When followers perceive their leaders as demonstrating transformational behaviors, followers are satisfied with and motivated by the leader (Judge & Piccolo, 2004), and they tend to be inspired and accept the purpose or mission of the greater group (Bass, 1990b). Pride and commitment are likely to be instilled in the followers. Thus, followers may be influenced to work toward the greater good of the organization and against behaviors that are harmful (i.e., deviance) to the organization.

Similarly, contingent reward leadership is linked to a number of positive outcomes (e.g., ratings of leader effectiveness, follower motivation, leader job

performance; Eagly & Carli, 2004; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Leaders who demonstrate contingent reward behaviors (e.g., effectively clarify role and task requirements and provide rewards based on achievement of objectives) motivate followers to perform in ways that correspond with and elicit rewards. Both transformational- and contingent reward-oriented behaviors are generally aimed at motivating employees toward a common purpose in support of organizational goals. Thus, it was posited that transformational-oriented leadership leads to the least deviance from followers.

Vigilant-transformational leaders also exemplify many of the positive transformational behaviors. However, they also tend to exhibit a number of negative, ineffective leadership behaviors, such as vigilance and corrective action and supervision. These behaviors likely motivate followers to a lesser extent than transformational-oriented leaders. Therefore, this type of leadership may also lead to less deviance, although not to the extent of that of transformational leadership.

Conversely, those who perceive their leaders to be vigilance-oriented are likely be demotivated from the overbearing hypervigilance and corrective action inherent in this type of leadership. Consequently, followers may react with actions that work against the greater good of the organization and by behaving in ways that are harmful to the social group. Negative leadership behaviors, such as vigilant supervision, undermine motivation and are associated with negative workplace outcomes. Followers who have vigilant leaders may therefore be more inclined to behave in counterproductive ways (i.e., deviance). Even though it may be more difficult for followers to engage in organizational deviance when supervised by a manager who is active in his or her

monitoring of work and productivity, employees often find ways to behave in counterproductive ways without being detected (Vardi & Weitz, 2004).

Similarly, employees who have passive leaders (i.e., demonstrate mostly MBEP and laissez-faire behaviors) are likely to become frustrated with prolonged neglect or lack of guidance from their leaders, which in turn may lead them to react with either passivity or active protest (Hirschman, 1970). Thus, these followers may resign from following the leaders' policies, actively retaliate by harming the organization, or both. In some cases, deviance may serve as a form of retaliation in reaction to demotivating leadership. It is therefore posited that both vigilant and passive leadership lead to greater deviance.

Based on prior findings suggesting that (a) transformational and contingent reward leadership behaviors are positively related to positive outcomes (e.g., OCB) and negatively related to negative outcomes (e.g., deviance), and (b) MBEA, MBEP, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors are negatively related to effectiveness, it is hypothesized that:

H1: Different leadership profile types result in significantly different levels of follower deviance.

H2: Transformational leadership results in significantly less frequent deviance than vigilant-transformational leadership (H2a), vigilant-transformational leadership results in significantly less frequent deviance than vigilant leadership (H2b), and vigilant leadership results in significantly less frequent deviance than passive leadership (H2c).

Because the relationship between leadership behavior and subsequent follower behavior is relatively distal, the nature of the relationship is likely to depend on other factors. One factor that may be pivotal is OI. It is proposed that not only should leadership profile type influence follower deviance, but also that OI interacts with leadership profile type to affect follower deviance.

Hypotheses: The Moderating Role of Organizational Identification

Follower deviance in relation to their superiors' leadership orientation may depend on how strongly followers identify with their organization. That is, it is proposed that the relationship between leadership profile type and follower deviance varies as a function of OI. Specifically, OI may operate as a buffer, regardless of leader orientation. It is proposed that OI dampens or mitigates the effect of leadership profile type on follower deviance.

Furthermore, differences in deviance levels between leadership profile types may be more or less pronounced depending on whether followers have lower or higher levels of OI. Specifically, differences between the follower deviance levels of each profile type will be diminished when followers have higher levels of OI. Additionally, levels of deviance should be decreased for each leadership profile type. This is because followers who identify strongly with their organization experience a sense of belongingness toward the organization, even in the absence of leadership (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). In other words, cognitive identification and in-group favoritism can occur—leading to behaviors that support the ingroup—even without strong leadership.

Conversely, when follower OI is low, levels of deviance should be increased for each leadership profile type, and differences between the follower deviance levels of

each profile type should be enhanced or amplified. For those who identify with their organizations less strongly, they are less likely to behave in ways that enhance or favor the ingroup. Therefore, the effects of transformational, vigilant-transformational, vigilant, and passive leadership on follower deviance depends on the follower's level of OI. A graphical representation of the hypothetical interactive effect is shown in Figure 2.

H3: There is a significant interaction between OI and leadership profile type, such that OI buffers the effect of leadership profile type on follower deviance.

H4a: Deviance levels for each and every profile type are higher for followers low in OI than for followers high in OI.

H4b: Differences between deviance levels for each leadership profile type are amplified for followers low in OI. Similarly, differences between deviance levels for each leadership profile type are diminished for followers high in OI, such that there is not a significant difference between the deviance levels for the four leadership profile types.

In sum, it is proposed that not only should different leadership profile types lead to different levels of follower deviance, but also that OI may have a moderating effect on the relationships between various leadership profile types and deviance, such that OI dampens the effects of leadership orientation. The proposed study method and analyses, as well as a brief discussion follow.

CHAPTER 4

METHOD

Participants

The present study was part of a larger, lab-wide data collection effort that was conducted via the Internet. Participants in the dataset were recruited from the StudyResponse project, a reputable U.S.-based survey sampling service. The service, which provides a pool of participants for researchers, has been used in prior research to recruit participants willing to complete surveys online in exchange for monetary incentives.

Individuals in the recruitment pool who indicated that they were working ($M =$ 40.89 hours per week) were sent an emailed invitation to participate in exchange for monetary compensation. Participants, who ranged from lower-skilled workers (e.g., clerk, shipping assistant, meat wrapper) to upper-level managers and professionals (e.g., accountant, mechanical engineer, IT director), were compensated for their participation after completing the web-based surveys.

In total, 414 volunteers participated in the study. A total of 307 participants responded to all parts of the survey. The final sample—after cases were deleted during data screening procedures (discussed below)—consisted of 298 participants. Sex, age, ethnicity, industry, hours worked per week, months working at the current job, and months working at the current organization were measured to examine sample characteristics (see Appendix A for questionnaire). Table 3 provides demographic information for the final sample.

Measures

Several instruments were used to measure the variables of interest—multifactor leadership, OI, and workplace deviance—as well as a host of control variables.

Multifactor leadership. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) originally developed by Bass (1985) was used to measure the leadership types. The MLQ has gone through a large number of revisions, but the latest version (Antonakis et al., 2003) measures nine factors: five dimensions relating to transformational leadership, three dimensions relating to transactional leadership, and one dimension relating to laissez-faire leadership (see Appendix B[1]). With four items comprising each dimension, the questionnaire has a total of 36 items[2].

The scale, which demonstrated excellent reliability (α = .94), is measured on a frequency-based 0-4 Likert-type scale with "0" indicating that the behavioral statement does not fit the leader at all and "4" indicating that the behavioral statement fits the leader frequently, if not always. Items are averaged within each dimension, such that higher scores on this measure indicate higher frequencies of behaviors relating to each respective type of leadership.

Individual, within-leadership type item responses were averaged to obtain three composite, meta-dimension scores. Specifically, in accordance with the revised typology, the three composites were made up of the mean across each of the following: transformational and contingent reward items (transformational leadership), MBEA items (vigilant leadership), and MBEP and laissez-faire items (passive leadership). Levels on each meta-dimension composite were used to determine leadership profiles for each respondent's leader.

Specifically, transformational/contingent reward, MBEA, and MBEP/laissez-faire composites were each sorted into "low," "mid," and "high" categories for each leadership type (i.e., transformational, vigilant, passive) using a "tertile" split (i.e., 33.3333 and 66.6667 percentiles). That is, a dummy variable was created to indicate whether the leader was rated as low (1), moderate (2), or high (3) on each leadership type (Cohen & Cohen, 1983).

In other words, for example, for a leader to fit the "transformational" profile, he/she has to simply be higher on transformational leadership than both vigilant leadership and passive leadership. That is, leaders' dominant leadership type, so to speak, drives their overall leadership profile. The same argument goes for the vigilant-transformational, vigilant, and passive profiles. Thus, someone who is low on transformational, low on vigilant, and mid on passive is considered as fitting the passive profile; similarly, someone who is mid on transformational, mid on vigilant, and high on passive is considered as the passive profile, as well. Lastly, a factor analysis was conducted to confirm the proposed dimension-groupings (i.e., transformational, vigilant, and passive types).

Organizational identification. OI was measured using the most commonly used OI scale (Riketta, 2005)—Mael and Tetrick's (1992) 10-item scale, which demonstrated good reliability (α = .89). The scale has two primary components—*shared experiences*, or "the perception that one shares the experiences, successes, and failures of the focal organization," and *shared characteristics*, or "the perception that one shares the attributes and characteristics of prototypical group members" (p. 816). Example items include, "When I talk about this organization, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they'" (p.

817). The scale is measured on a 1-7 Likert-type scale, and items are averaged such that higher scores on this measure indicate higher levels of organizational identification (see Appendix C).

Organizational deviance. Bennett and Robinson's (2000) measures of workplace deviance targeted toward the organization (the Organizational Deviance Scale) and individuals (the Interpersonal Deviance Scale) were used to measure organizational deviance and interpersonal deviance, respectively. Various studies have suggested that interpersonal deviance and organizational deviance are highly correlated and thus should not be separated (e.g., Dalal, 2005). Therefore, items were combined into an overall workplace deviance scale for hypothesis testing.

The scale is measured on a frequency-based 1-7 Likert-type scale, with "1" indicating that the behavior is never engaged in and "7" indicating that the behavior is engaged in daily (see Appendix D). The full scale includes 19 self-report items, such as, "Taken property from work without permission," and "Come in late to work without permission" (p. 360). Items are averaged such that higher scores on this measure indicate higher frequency of engaging in deviant workplace behavior. This scale demonstrated excellent reliability (α = .98). Other studies have also reported alpha values around .90 (e.g., α = .89; Dalal, 2005). While the Cronbach's alpha value may be considered exceptionally high, the internal consistency values for the other study variables are also relatively high, which may suggest a tendency for the sample to respond very consistently to the survey items.

Control variables. Lastly, a host of variables were measured as covariates, but are not included in the hypotheses (see Appendices E-J): neuroticism, negative

affectivity, job stressors (interpersonal conflict, quantitative workload, organizational constraints), and OCB[3]. Employee deviance may depend on factors other than leadership, such as individual difference variables and job stressors, as suggested by quantitative reviews on predictors of aggression (Hershcovis et al., 2007) and CWB (Wynne, Casper, Sund, Baltes, & O'Brien, 2010).

For example, Spector and Fox (2005) suggest that job stressors lead to frustration, which in turn may lead to work-related deviance. In other words, frustrated individuals may react with aggression in response to a stressor. As another example, people higher in negative affectivity carry a more negative disposition and are more reactive, and thus they are more likely to respond to negative events with aggression (e.g., Hershcovis et al., 2007). Lastly, Dalal (2005) acknowledged that, "one might expect that employees who typically engage in OCB will tend not to engage in CWB…" (p. 1242). That is, one who tends to help, or exceed expectations, is less likely to harm, or fall short of minimum requirements. Thus, these variables are expected to relate to the dependent variable.

Procedure

As noted above, data were collected as part of a larger online data collection effort coordinated by the research lab and funded by a co-investigator. After participants were recruited by the sampling service, a survey link was sent to their self-disclosed email addresses. Once consent was received (see Appendix K), participants were asked to complete the questionnaires online using SurveyMonkey, a web-based surveying tool. Participants were instructed to use their immediate supervisor as the

referent leader when filling out the MLQ. Lastly, a cash incentive was sent for their participation. Appendix L shows the closing statement.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

Sample

Four hundred and sixty participants were initially recruited to participate in the study, surveys of which were administered in three waves. Wave 1 included measures for neuroticism and negative affectivity. Wave 2 included measures for job stressors (interpersonal conflict, quantitative workload, organizational constraints), multifactor leadership, and organizational identification. Wave 3 included measures for organizational citizenship behavior and workplace deviance, as well as the demographic questions. A total of 391 participants responded to at least one part of the survey (391 respondents participated in wave 1; 363 respondents participated in wave 2; and 313 respondents participated in wave 3). A total of 307 participants responded to all parts (i.e., Waves 1, 2, and 3) of the survey.

Several statistical procedures were conducted to analyze the hypothesized relationships described above on the sample of participants who responded to all parts of the survey (n = 307). Prior to hypothesis testing, however, the data were screened for accuracy (e.g., out-of-range values, computational inaccuracy), nonlinearity, nonnormality, outliers, homogeneity of variance, and multicollinearity among variables. Furthermore, data were examined for inappropriate responding.

Data Screening

Several analyses were conducted to inspect the data prior to hypothesis testing. Specifically, data were screened for accuracy, nonlinearity, nonnormality, outliers,

homogeneity of variance, and multicollinearity among variables. Steps for the data screening process are detailed below.

Accuracy of data. First, univariate descriptive statistics were inspected for accuracy of input. For the variables *transformational leadership, vigilant leadership, passive leadership, organizational identification, workplace deviance, neuroticism, negative affectivity, job stressors,* and *organizational citizenship behavior,* there are no out-of-range values.

Specifically, *organizational identification, workplace deviance, neuroticism,* and *organizational citizenship behavior* appropriately range from 1 to 7. *Negative affectivity* and *job stressors* appropriately range from 1 to 5. After recoding the MLQ from a 0 to 4 response scale to a 1 to 5 scale to simplify interpretation, *transformational leadership, vigilant leadership,* and *passive leadership* appropriately range from 1 to 5. There are also no out-of-range values for *racial/ethnic heritage* and *sex; racial/ethnic heritage* appropriately ranges from 1 to 7, and *sex* appropriately ranges from 1 to 2. Moreover, the means and standard deviations are all plausible (refer to Table 3 and Table 4). No values appear to be extreme.

There were two values of "1979" for *age;* it was presumed that these respondents incorrectly inserted the birth year, and these values were replaced with "32" (1979 subtracted from 2011, the year of data collection). Similarly, there was one value of "4," two values of "5," and one value of "6" for *age;* these values were presumed to be incorrect and replaced with the sample mean for *age* (39, rounded from 38.86).

The coefficient of variation was calculated as a check on computational inaccuracy. Information can be lost when variance is very small and means are large. When the coefficient of variation is less than .0001, deflated correlation (from inaccuracy) is implicated. None of the variables had a coefficient of variation less than or near .0001. Thus, any deflated correlations are unlikely to stem from computational inaccuracy.

Outliers. Next, the data were examined to identify any univariate outliers, as recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). Univariate outliers were detected by computing and inspecting standardized scores for each variable. The criterion used for identifying outliers was +/- 3.29. Three of the variables were considered to have outliers. Two were identified for *organizational citizenship behavior;* one was identified for *organizational identification;* five were identified for *workplace deviance.* Since there was only a small number of outliers and since they appeared to be extreme univariate cases (i.e., not part of the population from which they were intended to be sampled), these outliers were deleted, which then reduced the sample size to 299 participants. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) noted that deleting cases that are not part of the population does not affect generalizability of results to the intended population.

After skewed variables were transformed (see below), regression analysis was run to identify multivariate outliers. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) stated that, "a case that is a multivariate outlier…lies outside the swarm, some distance from the other cases" (p. 74). In interpreting the Mahalanobis Distance statistic, any case with a Mahalanobis distance greater than $X^2(9) = 27.877$ (at the $p < .001$ criterion) is a multivariate outlier[4]. There was one case with a Mahalanobis distance statistic greater

than 27.877, indicating the presence of a multivariate outlier in the dataset. This high score represents an unusual combination of scores on the independent variables, providing an indication of the kinds of cases to which the results do not generalize. Again, it was assumed that the multivariate outlier was not a part of the population of interest and thus was deleted. After deleting the one case, the sample size was reduced to 298 participants.

Test of assumptions of the general linear model. Data were examined for violations of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homogeneity of variance prior to hypothesis testing, since significance tests are based on the assumption of multivariate normality.

First, normality was examined. To identify nonnormal variables, skew and kurtosis were checked for each variable. Skew for each variable was divided by the standard error of skew, and kurtosis was divided by the standard error of kurtosis; in order to determine whether or not each variable had significant skew or kurtosis, +/- 3.29 was used as the cut-off value ($p < .01$).

Variables *transformational leadership, organizational identification, workplace deviance, negative affectivity,* and *job stressors* were significantly skewed. *Workplace deviance* was leptokurtic. These findings were verified by visually inspecting the histograms for each variable for excessive skew and kurtosis. The variables were then transformed for subsequent analyses[5].

Transformational leadership had significant, moderate (as defined by Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) negative skew (standardized skew = -4.62). Inspection of the histogram indicated that scores tended to cluster at the mid-to-high range of the scale.

Transformational leadership scores were then transformed using square root transformation after reflection, which was conducted by taking the square root of each participant's score subtracted from a constant of 6 (the highest observed score, plus 1). After transformation, skew was no longer significant (standardized skew = 1.79). To simplify interpretation of subsequent analyses, transformed scores were reflected again (i.e., each score was subtracted from a constant of 3.24, which is the highest transformed score plus 1), such that higher values indicate more frequent *transformational leadership* behavior.

Organizational identification had significant, moderate negative skew (standardized skew = -5.33). Inspection of the histogram indicated that scores tended to cluster at the mid-to-high range of the scale. *Organizational identification* scores were then transformed using square root transformation after reflection, which was conducted by taking the square root of each participant's score subtracted from a constant of 8 (the highest observed score, plus 1). After transformation, skew was no longer significant (standardized skew = 1.91). To simplify interpretation of subsequent analyses, transformed scores were reflected again (i.e., each score was subtracted from a constant of 3.59, which is the highest transformed score plus 1), such that higher values indicate higher *organizational identification.*

Workplace deviance had significant, severe positive skew (standardized skew = 11.26) and was leptokurtic (standardized kurtosis = 5.48). Inspection of the histogram indicated that scores tended to cluster at the low range of the scale. *Workplace deviance* scores were then transformed using inverse transformation, which was conducted by taking the inverse of each participant's score. After transformation, skew

was no longer significant (standardized skew = -2.14). *Workplace deviance* was still leptokurtic after the transformation (standardized kurtosis = -4.33)[6]. To simplify interpretation of subsequent analyses, transformed scores were reflected again (i.e., each score was subtracted from a constant of 2.00, which is the highest transformed score plus 1), such that higher values indicate more frequent *workplace deviance.*

Negative affectivity had significant, severe positive skew (standardized skew = 6.54). Inspection of the histogram indicated that scores tended to cluster at the low range of the scale. *Negative affectivity* scores were then transformed using inverse transformation, which was conducted by taking the inverse of each participant's score. After transformation, skew was no longer significant (standardized skew = 1.01). *Negative affectivity* became platykurtic after the transformation (standardized kurtosis = -4.68). To simplify interpretation of subsequent analyses, transformed scores were reflected again (i.e., each score was subtracted from a constant of 2.00, which is the highest transformed score plus 1), such that higher values indicate a greater degree of *negative affectivity.*

Job stressors had significant, substantial positive skew (standardized skew = 5.84). Inspection of the histogram indicated that scores tended to cluster at the mid-to-low range of the scale. *Job stressors* scores were then transformed using log transformation, which was conducted by taking the log of each participant's score. After transformation, skew was no longer significant (standardized skew = .84).

Additionally, ANOVA procedures assume homogeneity of variance/covariance matrices. That is, it is assumed that the variance/covariance matrix within each cell comes from the same population variance/covariance matrix. The pooled error matrix

can be misleading and the test results can be biased if the within-cell error is heterogeneous. So, the *Box's M* test is used to determine if there is a significant difference among the variance/covariance matrices (at *p* < .001). The test resulted in non-significance, *Box's M*(3, 25532.26) = 11.363, *p* = .011. Thus, the *Box's M* test suggests that there are not significant differences between the groups' variance/covariance matrices.

Furthermore, pairwise (bivariate) scatterplots were visually inspected for nonlinearity and heteroscedasticity. Because of the large number of variables, a randomly chosen set of 27 scatterplots were generated and inspected[7]. Cases with missing values were excluded listwise. Upon visual inspection, violations to the assumption of linearity and homoscedasticity were not evident.

Multicollinearity of variables. Lastly, variables were evaluated for multicollinearity and singularity. First, the correlation matrix was checked for any correlations between different variables approaching or exceeding *r* = .90, which indicates redundancy among variables. No correlation coefficients approached or exceeded *r* = .90.

Moreover, collinearity diagnostics were inspected. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggest that collinearity problems are indicated by having a condition index value greater than 30 and having two or more variables with large variance proportions on the same dimension. Collinearity diagnostics indicate that two dimensions had a condition index value greater than 30. Only one of those dimensions (condition index value of 30.07) also had more than one variable exceeding a variance proportion of .50— the transformed (and subsequently reflected) *transformational leadership* variable (variance proportion of .65) and the transformed (and subsequently reflected) *organizational*

identification variable (variance proportion of .52). Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggest that one option for dealing with detected collinearity is ignoring it, especially if the purpose of the analysis is prediction. Given the weak evidence for collinearity (i.e., the above values just meeting the cutoffs), both of the above variables were retained, rather than deleted.

Lastly, when the SMC is high (approaches 1), multicollinearity is suggested. Tolerance (1 minus SMC) values are all relatively high for all of the variables. Taken together, collinearity is not evident in the data (i.e., lack of multicollinearity and singularity).

Testing the Revised Leadership Typology

Analyses were conducted to test for scale dimensionality and internal consistency reliability. Specifically, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to test the proposed (revised) three-factor structure of the original 36-item MLQ, using LISREL version 8.3 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). A parsimonious three-factor model was specified, and this model was estimated using maximum likelihood and covariance matrices. Variances for the three latent constructs (transformational leadership, vigilant leadership, and passive leadership) were set to 1.0, and factor loadings for the 36 items were freed and estimated with items 1-24 (i.e., all transformational and contingent reward items) loading on the transformational dimension, items 25-28 (i.e., all MBEA items) loading on the vigilant dimension, and items 29-36 (i.e., all MBEP and laissez-faire items) loading on the passive dimension. Error terms for items were freed and estimated, as was the correlation between the three latent constructs.

Goodness of fit of the model was assessed using the following fit indices: normal theory weighted least squares chi-square, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index (CFI), normed fit index (NFI), and the non-normed fit index (NNFI). For the respective fit indices, conventional rules of thumb for adequate model fit are non-significant chi-square values; CFI, NFI, and NNFI values above .90 (Bentler, 1990); and RMSEA values below .08 (Curran, Bollen, Chen, Paxton, & Kirby, 2003). In addition, factor loadings and error terms indicate the extent to which items are loading on their respective factors.

Overall, results of the CFA provided marginal support for the proposed revised three-factor structure. The normal theory weighted least squares chi-square statistic indicates poor fit (χ^2 = 1919.49, p < .01). However, the RMSEA suggests marginally adequate fit (RMSEA = .089). Also, CFI, NFI, and NNFI did approximate acceptable levels (CFI = .96; NFI = .94; NNFI = .95), indicating good fit.

Inspection of the standardized factor loadings indicated that all indicators loaded significantly to their respective factors. That is, using a *t*-test cut-off of +/- 1.96, all observed variables were significantly related to the proposed latent constructs: transformational (transformational and contingent reward items), vigilant (MBEA items), and passive (MBEP and laissez-faire items). All items had high loadings (i.e., loaded more than .50 on their respective factors).

In addition, strong intercorrelations among transformational and contingent reward dimensions offer additional evidence of the similarity of the dimensions. The contingent reward dimension is strongly and positively correlated with all five transformational dimensions (*r* = .77 to .85), weakly correlated with the MBEA

dimension (*r* = .09), and strongly and negatively correlated with the laissez-faire dimension (*r* = -.51).

All five transformational dimensions are strongly correlated with each other (*r* = .73 to .86). MBEP and laissez-faire dimensions are also strongly correlated with each other (*r* = .70). Intercorrelations among multifactor leadership dimensions are shown in Table 5.

Finally, internal consistency reliability for the 36-item scale is good (alpha = .94) according to Nunnally's (1978) guidelines for interpreting the quality of scale reliability. Therefore, subsequent analyses for hypothesis testing were based on the revised typology. Further analyses involving transformational, vigilant, and passive leadership types were based on participants' means across the items for each of these three types.

Hypothesis Testing

After the data had been thoroughly screened—and factor analysis confirmed previous research findings that the contingent reward dimension factors with the transformational dimensions and that the MBEP dimension factors with the laissez-faire dimension—various analyses were used to test the hypotheses described above. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine if the leadership profile subgroups significantly differ on follower deviance. Then, planned comparisons were conducted. After general linear model procedures were conducted to test for interactive effects, analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) procedures were initiated as a follow-up and basis of comparison for ANOVA results.

Main effects of leadership profile type. The present thesis concerned the effects that various leadership profile types have on follower deviance. Specifically, it was

hypothesized that followers with transformational leaders, followers with vigilant-transformational leaders, followers with vigilant leaders, and followers with passive leaders would engage in significantly different levels of deviance.

Before an ANOVA was conducted to determine if subgroups (leadership profile types) significantly differ on follower deviance, each leadership profile type was coded to form subgroups. Specifically, transformational/contingent reward, MBEA, and MBEP/laissez-faire composite values were recoded into "low," "mid," and "high" categories using a tertile split (i.e., 33.3333 and 66.6667 percentiles). That is, a dummy variable was created to indicate whether the leader was rated as low (1), moderate (2), or high (3) on each leadership type (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). If the respondent's rating of the leader on the composite score was between 1 and 1.5692 (standardized transformational), 1 and 2.7500 (vigilant), or 1 and 2.0000 (passive), the leader was categorized as "low" on that type of leadership. If the leader's rating on the composite score was between 1.5693 and 1.8406 (transformational), 2.7501 and 3.5000 (vigilant), or 2.0001 and 3.1250 (passive), the leader was categorized as "mid" on that type of leadership. If the leader's rating on the composite score was between 1.8407 and 2.24 (transformational), 3.5001 and 5 (vigilant), or 3.1251 and 5 (passive), the leader was categorized as "high" on that type of leadership[8]. Each leader's status on each leadership type determined whether he or she was a transformational-oriented, vigilant-transformational, vigilance-oriented, or passivity-oriented leader.

In turn, transformational-oriented, vigilant-transformational, vigilance-oriented, and passivity-oriented leaders were dummy-coded as "1," "2," "3," and "4," respectively (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). Then, descriptive statistics were computed in order to compare

the outcome means and standard deviations for each profile subgroup. Combinations that do not fit into the four proposed profiles, as described above, were examined as well. These means and standard deviations are summarized in Table 6.

Next, ANOVA was performed to determine if the mean deviance levels are significantly different between proposed leadership profile types. That is, to interpret the effects of the different leadership profile types on follower deviance, a one-way ANOVA was conducted. Importantly, prior to hypothesis testing, data were examined for inappropriate responding. Specifically, participants in the full sample (N = 298) were screened based on survey response time prior to hypothesis testing[9]. That is, analyses used to test the hypotheses were conducted on the reduced sample (n = 149).

Hypothesis 1 stated that different leadership profile types result in significantly different frequencies of follower deviance. A one-way ANOVA revealed a significant main effect for leadership profile type, $F(3, 145) = 5.62$, $p < .01$.

Exploring the effect on the specific dimensions of deviance separately, there were also significant differences among proposed leadership types on the interpersonal deviance variable, $F(3, 145) = 7.11$, $p < .01$, as well as on the organizational deviance variable, $F(3, 145) = 6.57$, $p < .01$. Thus, the first hypothesis was supported. The proposed leadership profile types significantly differ on follower deviance. The combined deviance measure was used in subsequent analyses.

Planned comparisons (contrasts). Since a significant omnibus F is observed—which suggests that at least one of the leadership profiles significantly differs from the rest on the dependent variable—follow-up analyses were conducted to reveal which contrasts are significantly different. Because a priori hypotheses regarding subgroup

differences were offered, planned comparisons were conducted. Planned comparisons are theoretically and statistically more powerful than post-hoc tests because of a priori specification.

An examination of the means in Table 6 indicates that the ordering of each profile's level of deviance corresponded with the proposition that transformational, vigilant-transformational, vigilant, and passive leadership result in the lowest, second-lowest, second-highest, and highest mean levels of follower deviance, respectively.

Again, given that the main effect of profile type is statistically significant, orthogonal contrasts (repeated contrasts in the general linear model) were conducted to determine which comparisons (i.e., pairs of subgroup means) resulted in significant differences. In other words, a set of pairwise contrasts was conducted to determine which types of the *leadership profile* variable are significantly different from the others. It was hypothesized that transformational leadership results in significantly less frequent deviance than vigilant-transformational leadership (Hypothesis 2a), vigilant-transformational leadership results in significantly less frequent deviance than vigilant leadership (Hypothesis 2b), and vigilant leadership results in significantly less frequent deviance than passive leadership (Hypothesis 2c).

For the first contrast (Hypothesis 2a), the frequency of follower deviance for vigilant-transformational leaders was not significantly different from the frequency of follower deviance for transformational leaders, $t(88) = -.508$, $p = .61$. In other words, respondents with transformational leaders did not engage in a significantly different frequency of deviance than respondents with vigilant-transformational leaders.

Likewise, the second contrast (Hypotheses 2b) indicates that the frequency of follower deviance for vigilant leaders was not significantly different from the frequency of follower deviance for vigilant-transformational leaders, $t(37) = -.107$, $p = .92$. In other words, respondents with vigilant-transformational leaders did not engage in a significantly different frequency of deviance than respondents with vigilant leaders.

The third contrast (Hypothesis 2c) also reveals that the frequency of follower deviance for passive leaders was not significantly different from the frequency of follower deviance for vigilant leaders, $t(57) = -1.978$, $p = .053$. In other words, respondents with vigilant leaders did not engage in a significantly different frequency of deviance than respondents with passive leaders. Thus, there are differences between profile types, but the differences do not occur between each profile type exactly as hypothesized. Therefore, support was not found for Hypothesis 2.

As an exploratory analysis, Tukey's HSD test was conducted to determine which leadership profile types were significantly different from the rest, as suggested by the significant omnibus $F.$ Tukey HSD tests indicate any and all significant mean differences between each level of the independent variable, on the dependent variable.

Tukey's post-hoc procedure found one contrast to be significant. Specifically, post-hoc Tukey's HSD tests showed that passive leaders had a significantly greater frequency of follower deviance than the transformational group at the .01 level of significance. All other comparisons were not significant. In other words, the passive leadership profile type was significantly different from the transformational leadership profile type in their deviance scores.

Interactive effects. General linear model (GLM) univariate procedures were used to test for interactive effects. Specifically, GLM can be used to examine whether a change in the dependent variable over levels of one independent variable depends on levels of another independent variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Other techniques are also commonly used to test for moderation (e.g., regression analysis, structural equation modeling, etc.). However, contemporary APA guidelines suggest using the most parsimonious or minimally adequate of analytic techniques (American Psychological Association, 2010). Therefore, GLM was used to test whether or not OI moderates the effect of leadership profile type on follower deviance.

Hypothesis 3 stated that there is a significant interaction between OI and leadership profile type, such that OI buffers the effect of leadership profile type on follower deviance. To test for a significant interaction among the independent variables, a model was specified in GLM that multiplied leadership profile type with OI to create an interaction term. Contrary to the hypothesis, the estimated marginal means and profile plots did not reveal a significant interaction between OI and leadership profile type, $F(43, 56) = 1.52$, $p = .07$. This suggests that the effect of leadership profile type does not depend on OI.

Furthermore, it was hypothesized that the frequency of deviance for each and every proposed profile type is greater for followers low in OI than for followers high in OI (Hypothesis 4a). Before further analyses were conducted, a new variable, *OI level,* was created, which dichotomized OI into high and low categories based on a mean split[10]. In other words, dummy-coding procedures were used to recode the *OI* variable into the *OI level* variable (Cohen & Cohen, 1983), with "1" indicating that the degree of OI was

below the mean (low) and "2" indicating that the degree of OI was above the mean (high). Table 7 shows the means and standard deviations of deviance for each profile, broken down by OI level.

As summarized in Table 7 and graphically represented in Figure 3, the deviance values of each profile type are higher for followers low in OI compared to the same profile type of followers high in OI. The exception is with followers of vigilant-transformational leaders—the frequency of deviance of followers low in OI is slightly lower than that of followers high in OI. In other words, overall, when follower OI is low, the frequency of follower deviance of each and every profile type (except for vigilant-transformational) is higher. Conversely, when follower OI is high, the frequency of follower deviance of each and every profile type (except for vigilant-transformational) is lower. As just one example to illustrate, among followers with passive leaders, those who are low in OI engage in deviance more frequently (M = 1.39) than those who are high in OI (M = 1.34). In fact, a one-way ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of OI level on deviance, $F(1, 147)$ = 9.86, $p < .01$. Thus, overall, the frequency of deviance is significantly greater for followers low in OI than for followers high in OI.

It was also hypothesized that differences in the frequency of deviance between each leadership profile type are amplified for followers low in OI, and differences in the frequency of deviance between each leadership profile type are diminished for followers high in OI such that there is not a significant difference in the frequency of deviance between the four leadership profile types (Hypothesis 4b).

In order to address Hypothesis 4b, differences in deviance between profile types were averaged within each level of OI. It was found that the mean difference in

deviance between profile types for low OI is virtually the same as for high OI. Therefore—contrary to the hypothesis—for followers low in OI relative to followers high in OI, differences in the frequency of deviance between each profile type are neither diminished nor enhanced.

In relation to the latter, a one-way ANOVA was conducted on deviance scores after filtering out cases low in OI, which revealed statistically significant differences in deviance between profile types for followers high in OI, $F(3, 86) = 3.20$, $p < .05$. In other words, differences in the frequency of deviance between the four leadership profile types are statistically significant for those high in OI, suggesting further lack of support for hypothesis 4b. In sum, differences in the frequency of deviance between leadership profile types are not more or less pronounced depending on whether followers have lower or higher levels of OI. Overall, results indicate partial support for Hypotheses 4a, but not for 4b.

Controlling for the effects of covariates. As a follow-up to ANOVA, ANCOVA procedures were initiated in order to determine whether or not the four proposed leadership profile types differ on follower deviance, while taking neuroticism, negative affectivity, job stressors, and organizational citizenship behavior (i.e., the covariates) into account. These four covariates are theoretically linked to deviance, as noted above. Additionally, these covariates were each found to be significantly correlated to the dependent variable (r = -.33 to .51) and thus, if not controlled for, may provide an alternative explanation for the findings. Table 8 shows a correlation table that summarizes the bivariate correlations among the main study variables, including covariates.

One of the key features of ANCOVA is that it extends ANOVA by including one or more covariates. ANCOVA determines whether there are statistically reliable mean differences between groups after adjusting the dependent variable for differences on the covariates. The analysis takes out variance among the groups, such that the groups are equal on the covariates. In other words, ANCOVA makes the groups statistically the same on the covariates. In the present analysis, ANCOVA determines what the scores on the dependent variable would be if the levels of the covariates were the same across respondents. This method increases power because it removes the covariate from the error variance (i.e., reduces noise).

However, ANCOVA is contingent upon several assumptions being met (Keppel & Wickens, 2004), and a number of these assumptions were violated. As in ANOVA, it is assumed that observations are independent, the population is normally distributed, and variance across cells is homogeneous. ANCOVA, in addition, assumes a linear relationship between the covariate and the dependent variable, and homogeneity of regression coefficients.

The data were examined for violations to the assumptions. As suggested above, the first assumption of ANCOVA was met. However, significant interactions were found between covariates and the independent variable. Specifically, a significant interaction term was found for both the *negative affectivity* variable, $F(35, 82) = 1.68$, $p < .05$, and the *OCB* variable, $F(37, 58) = 2.06$, $p < .01$, violating the last assumption of ANCOVA (i.e., assumption of non-significance of the interaction term—homogeneity of the regression coefficients). The significant interaction indicates that the slopes of the four

regression lines are not parallel, and thus one cannot assume homogeneity of the coefficient for the covariates across the levels of the factor.

Additionally, ideally, the independent variable does not directly affect the covariate. However, bivariate correlations among the covariates and the independent variable indicated that neuroticism (r = .22), negative affectivity (r = .33), job stressors (r = .35), and organizational citizenship behavior (r = -.31) are all significantly correlated with leadership profile type (p < .01).

Taken together, the violation of the homogeneity of regression assumption indicates that it is not appropriate to interpret ANCOVA. Implications of not interpreting ANCOVA and limitations imposed on the study are discussed in the next section.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION

Overall, the present thesis extends the extant research on leadership, OI, and workplace deviance by examining and clarifying the nature of the relationships between leadership types and important organizational outcomes. Specifically, this study proposed and found support for a revised typology, outlined a number of plausible leadership profile types based on the revised typology, and examined and demonstrated the effect that perceptions of those leadership orientations have on follower workplace deviance. The present thesis also examined how follower OI may interact with leader profile type to affect follower deviance. These findings are discussed next, as well as implications and future directions.

Revised Leadership Typology and Profiles

Revised typology. The present thesis proposed a different typology than the one popularized by Bass and Avolio (1991). Specifically, Bass and Avolio originally clustered all of the transformational dimensions together and labeled this meta-dimension grouping "transformational leadership." Contingent reward, MBEA, and MBEP dimensions were clustered together and labeled as "transactional leadership." Lastly, the laissez-faire dimension stood alone as "laissez-faire leadership." As mentioned above, Bass and colleagues (e.g., Avolio et al., 1999) more recently grouped MBEP with laissez-faire, calling this type "passive/avoidant behavior."

Answering Judge and Piccolo's (2004) call for more research on addressing the relationship between transformational and contingent reward leadership, and in line with extant empirical research and theory, a different typology was proposed that groups the

contingent reward dimension with the transformational dimensions ("transformational"). The MBEA dimension stands alone as the "vigilant/active" leadership type. This type is no longer seen as "transactional" because the transactional nature of the contingent reward behaviors is largely what defined and characterized the former "transactional" type. Lastly, the MBEP and the laissez-faire dimensions are grouped together to form "passive" leadership. This alternative model received empirical support in the present thesis.

Of note, the results provide evidence that contingent reward behaviors are more closely related to transformational behaviors than to MBE behaviors. Indeed, Bass (1985) argued that the most effective leaders are both transformational and transactional. Both of these types of behaviors are generally constructive behaviors and are associated with positive organizational outcomes. Empirically speaking, despite finding evidence of fit for their proposed model, Avolio and colleagues (1999) found low discriminant validity among the transformational and contingent reward dimensions when testing and comparing the factor structures of several alternative models of the MLQ instrument. Additionally, Howell and Hall-Merenda (1999) found that LMX was positively related to the contingent reward aspect of transactional leadership, but negatively related to management-by-exception, and they noted the importance of separating these dimensions of transactional leadership.

In fact, in light of empirical findings, Judge and Piccolo (2004), suggested that it may be inappropriate to separate transformational and contingent reward factors, as "transformational leadership must be built on the foundation of transactional leadership"

(p. 756). Specifically, their meta-analytic test of multifactor leadership found that the two types of leadership behaviors to be highly related.

The revised typology suggests an interesting update in the evolution of transformational leadership theory. In the theory's infancy, Burns (1978) initially conceptualized transformational and transactional leadership behaviors as representing opposite ends of a single leadership continuum. Bass (1985) rebuked this contention, arguing instead that transformational and transactional leadership are separate concepts that occur on separate continua. The present study presents additional evidence that perhaps transformational and transactional (i.e., contingent reward) leadership occur together within the same dimension, and it is suggested that future researchers consider contingent reward and transformational behaviors in tandem when discussing transformational leadership theory.

Profiles. The present thesis proposed and focused on four specific, plausible leadership profiles that are based on the typology described above, stemming from the way in which leadership is measured using the MLQ. First, individuals who were rated as demonstrating transformational/contingent reward leadership behaviors more frequently than both vigilant and passive leadership behaviors are considered transformational leaders. Second, individuals who were rated as demonstrating both transformational and vigilant leadership behaviors more frequently than passive leadership behaviors are considered vigilant-transformational leaders. Third, individuals who were rated as demonstrating vigilant leadership behaviors more frequently than both transformational and passive leadership behaviors are considered vigilant leaders. Fourth, individuals who were rated as demonstrating passive leadership behaviors more

frequently than both transformational and vigilant leadership behaviors are considered passive leaders.

In essence, leaders' dominant leadership type drives their overall leadership profile. Therefore, being rated as "mid," or moderate, on a certain leadership type plays an important role. For example, for a leader to fit the "transformational" profile, he/she has to simply be higher on transformational leadership than both vigilant leadership and passive leadership. The same argument goes for the vigilant-transformational, vigilant, and passive profiles. Thus, someone who is low on transformational, low on vigilant, and mid on passive is considered as fitting the passive profile; similarly, someone who is mid on transformational, mid on vigilant, and high on passive is considered as the passive profile, as well.

The results in the present study suggest that a majority of leaders are perceived to fit one of the four profiles described above. Nearly 60% of the full sample fit into one of the four profiles (refer to Table 6). When researchers and practitioners discuss "transformational leaders," "transactional leaders," and "laissez-faire leaders," the implicit assumption is that transformational behaviors, transactional behaviors, and laissez-faire behaviors, respectively, are predominantly demonstrated by these leaders. Although not explicitly stated, behaviors of other types may co-exist, but play a relatively minor role in the leaders' overall leadership behavior.

In fact, on multiple occasions, Bass (Bass, 1997; Bass, 1999; Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999) has conceded that leaders have a profile that represents the full range of leadership. He has stated that leaders typically display a mixed profile, but some behaviors are expressed more often than others. Bass points out that, "most

leaders have a profile of the full range of leadership that includes both transformational and transactional factors. However, those whom we call transformational do much more of the transformational than the transactional. In their defining moments, they are transformational" (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999, p. 184). The proposed profiles correspond with this concept. Thus, the four proposed profiles are plausible and consistent with the theory and prior research on multifactor research.

However, contrary to expectations, several leaders in the present study were perceived to fit profiles other than the proposed profiles. Most of these profiles are characterized by a lack of a predominant leadership type. In other words, these leaders are perceived as not demonstrating behaviors of any particular leadership type very frequently. For example, one such scenario is demonstrating all three leadership types on a moderately frequent basis, with no clear dominant type. Another example is demonstrating one leadership type very infrequently, while demonstrating the other two types somewhat (moderately) frequently. One may find it plausible that certain individuals may lead in such a way that definition of their leadership style is unclear or ambiguous.

Of greater concern, several leaders were rated as fitting profiles that are theoretically contradictory. Unfortunately, the extant research has been quiet about the possibility of these profiles emerging and thus has little explanation to offer. For example, several leaders in the present study were perceived as low on all three types of leadership. This profile is problematic because multifactor leadership theory has explicitly defined the absence of leadership behavior (i.e., low on transformational and low on vigilant) as laissez-faire leadership; leaders not demonstrating transformational

or vigilant behaviors must, by definition, be laissez-faire by default (i.e., *high* on passive).

One possible reason that this may be occurring is that, unlike prior empirical studies, the present study combines passive (MBEP) and laissez-faire behaviors to form the "passive" type. An explanation could be that these leaders are actually high on laissez-faire, but this high "status" is essentially masked by also being very low on MBEP. Since the revised typology combines MBEP with laissez-faire behaviors, the rating on the combined passive/avoidant leadership type could be deflated. If this is this case, being perceived as low on all three types of leadership is misleading. However, if the nine dimensions of multifactor leadership truly represents the "full range" of leadership as purported, low reported frequencies of transformational, contingent reward, MBEA, and MBEP behaviors should result in very high reported frequencies of laissez-faire behavior, which in turn, should lead to a high (or at least mid) status on the passive/avoidant leadership type.

Thus, an alternative explanation for this pattern could be inappropriate responding (e.g., careless responding, response bias, etc.). A profile depicting infrequency of all three facets may emerge if respondents are systematically choosing response options at the low end of the scale without consideration of the leader's actual behaviors. An attempt was made to reduce the effect of inappropriate responding in the present study by screening participants based on survey response time prior to hypothesis testing. Future research should not only continue to empirically test and theoretically clarify the passive/avoidant leadership type, but perhaps also include attention check items to detect inappropriate responding.

Similarly, several leaders were rated as simultaneously demonstrating all three types of leadership behaviors on a very frequent basis. Being perceived as demonstrating transformational, vigilant, and passive/avoidant leadership behaviors frequently is contradictory because one cannot simultaneously be very actively involved and motivating, while also very passively avoidant. Likewise, since being proactive is a major component of transformational leadership, one cannot simultaneously be frequently passive and transformational, by definition. Again, future research should include attention check items to detect inappropriate responding. Liu and Huang (2012) have begun development of a scale to detect insufficient effort, offering a promising direction that can lend itself to future research on these unexpected leadership profiles.

Another possibility, however unlikely, is that these followers, in actuality, have leaders who are highly inconsistent or ambivalent in their leadership behavior. In this case, followers who report their leaders to be very transformational (or vigilant/active) while also being very passive/avoidant are not responding inappropriately but rather in accordance with their actual perceptions. Behavioral inconsistency is at odds with the implicit, underlying assumption that leadership behavior is relatively stable over time, such that tendencies toward certain leadership behaviors develop and are manifested. For example, Bono and Judge (2004) provided some evidence that leadership is dispositionally determined. Nonetheless, in an early paper on the concept of authentic transformational leadership, Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) discussed "pseudo-transformational" leaders, referring to leaders who demonstrate inconsistent and unreliable behavior. Perhaps these leaders exist and should be considered as a feasible profile in future research, especially in the context of nascent authentic leadership

theory (e.g., Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004; Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008).

A related, but alternative explanation is that these seemingly ambivalent leaders are relatively new to their followers. If this is the case, perceptions of leadership may not be fully developed—that is, followers may not have had enough exposure to their respective leader to identify consistent, stable behavioral tendencies. Future research should include a demographic question that asks how long the follower has been working under his or her leader and determine if this variable has an effect on perceptions of leadership.

Lastly, the relatively low numbers of leaders within each profile, as well as how the profiles were created, could have contributed to the emergence of the unexpected, "ambivalent" leadership profiles. The effects of the sample size and the methods on the resultant profiles are discussed in greater detail in the limitations section below.

Effect of Leadership Profile on Follower Deviance

The present thesis concerned the effects that leaders with various profiles have on follower deviance. As hypothesized, among those who fit the a priori profiles, different leadership profile types result in significantly different levels of follower deviance, overall. Moreover, different leadership profile types result in significantly different levels of both interpersonal and organizational follower deviance.

In particular, followers with transformational leaders and followers with vigilant-transformational leaders engage in the lowest and second-lowest mean levels of deviance, respectively. Followers with vigilant leaders and followers with passive

leaders engage in the second-highest and highest mean levels of deviance, respectively.

However, not all differences were statistically significantly different. Respondents with transformational leaders engaged in significantly less frequent deviance than respondents with passive leaders, but all other comparisons were not significantly different. It may be notable that the difference between vigilant leaders' frequency of follower deviance and passive leaders' frequency of follower deviance was approaching significance (p = .053). This contrast may have been significantly different with a larger sample size, since the reduced sample had less power. Overall, there are differences between profile types, but the differences do not occur between each profile type exactly as hypothesized.

Thus, followers who perceive their immediate supervisors to be transformational-oriented engage in workplace deviance least frequently—much less frequently than those with passive leaders. On the other hand, followers who perceive their immediate supervisors to be passivity-oriented engage in workplace deviance most frequently—much more frequently than those with transformational leaders. These results imply that, when leaders frequently demonstrate transformational behaviors, follower deviance will be reduced. This contention is consistent with prior research.

For example, Lowe et al.'s (1996) meta-analysis found transformational behaviors to significantly predict work unit effectiveness, and some evidence exists that transformational behaviors lead to higher subordinate effort, satisfaction, and commitment (DeGroot, Kiker, & Cross, 2000). Also, contingent reward behavior is negatively related to social loafing (i.e., withholding effort; George, 1995), a form of

production deviance (Lim, 2002; also Lawrence & Robinson, 2007). Moreover, Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, and van Engen (2003) found women—who were as effective or more effective than male leaders—to engage in more transformational and contingent reward behavior (and less MBEP and laissez-faire behavior) than men. Bass and Avolio (1993) contend that the "best" leadership includes both transformational and transactional components.

On the other hand, the "worst" leaders are avoidant and display an absence of leadership; the least effective leadership includes neither transformational nor transactional behaviors (Bass & Avolio, 1993). When leaders deprive followers of support (e.g., individualized consideration) and other effective leadership behaviors (e.g., contingent rewarding, intellectual stimulation, etc.), they likely become demotivated, which in turn may make them more likely to react negatively toward the organization. In fact, Hershcovis et al. (2007) found poor leadership to be correlated with interpersonal and organizational deviance, as well as supervisor- and coworker-targeted aggression.

Moreover, Judge and Piccolo (2004) found laissez-faire leadership behaviors to be negatively related to satisfaction with the leader and MBEP leadership behaviors to be negatively related to follower motivation. Both of these effects may help explain the present evidence showing that the most frequent follower deviance results from passive-oriented leadership. The present study's finding that passive leaders are the least effective in deterring deviance is consistent with and is supported by prior research findings.

The present findings are also consistent with Judge and Piccolo's (2004) research, which hypothesized that MBEA does not significantly relate to leader effectiveness—that these behaviors are neither particularly effective nor ineffective. Although some of their results suggested that MBEA is associated with some positive outcomes (follower satisfaction with the leader, follower motivation, leader job performance, and leader effectiveness), MBEA was not as effective as transformational leadership.

Leaders who are vigilant actively monitor the behavior of followers, anticipate difficulties, and correct problems before they become larger issues. As a potential explanation for the finding that vigilant-transformational leaders evoke little more deviance than transformational leaders do, perhaps followers perceive MBEA behaviors to be facilitative rather than overbearing or debilitative, as evidenced by Judge and Piccolo's finding. Even though vigilant-transformational leadership did not lead to significantly more frequent follower deviance than transformational leadership, the results are consistent with Bass and Avolio's (e.g., 1993) "correlational hierarchy" concept, which contends that transformational, contingent reward, MBEA, MBEP, and laissez-faire dimensions are arranged along a continuum (in that order), from the strongest positive validities to the strongest negative validities.

Furthermore, perhaps the presence of transformational behaviors somehow buffers the negative effects and manifests the positive effects of active/vigilant leadership. More research will be needed to more closely examine and clarify these effects, including investigating interactive and additive effects among leadership types.

Moderating Role of Organizational Identification

The present thesis also hypothesized that OI significantly interacts with profile type to affect deviance. However, the results did not reveal a significant interaction. Thus, follower deviance in relation to their leaders' orientation may not depend on how strongly followers identify with their organization. That is, contrary to the hypothesis, the effect of leadership profile type on follower deviance does not depend on the level of follower OI. Perhaps OI may instead play a mediating role in the effect of leadership on follower deviance (see below).

Results do suggest a main effect of OI on workplace deviance. Across leadership profile types, followers low in OI engage in significantly greater frequencies of deviance than followers high in OI. Specifically, when follower OI is low, individuals with transformational, vigilant, and passive leaders report more frequent deviance. For those who identify with their organizations less strongly, they are less likely to behave in ways that enhance or favor the ingroup. Put another way, followers low in OI may be more likely to harm the ingroup (e.g., own organization) because, relative to followers high in OI, they do not cognitively define or associate themselves with the ingroup and thus are less motivated to see the ingroup succeed.

Conversely, when follower OI is high, individuals with transformational, vigilant, and passive (but not vigilant-transformational) leaders report less frequent deviance. This is because followers who identify strongly with their organization experience a sense of belongingness toward the organization, even in the absence of leadership (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). In other words, cognitive identification and ingroup favoritism can occur—leading to behaviors that support the organization—even without strong leadership. Thus, OI buffers the effect of leadership profile type on follower deviance.

This suggests that higher levels of OI among followers is good for the organization in terms of deterring workplace deviance, regardless of their leaders' orientation.

In sum, as proposed, not only do different leadership profile types lead to different levels of follower deviance, but OI has a buffering effect on the relationships between various leadership profile types and deviance, such that OI dampens the effects of leadership orientation. Although some support was found for the influence of OI, more research is needed to explore other potential moderators, as suggested by DeGroot et al. (2000). Of the moderators tested in their meta-analysis, only level of analysis (i.e., individual vs. group level of analysis) significantly moderated the relationship between charismatic leadership and organizational outcomes (e.g., subordinate commitment). Identifying other moderating variables is important to further our understanding the nature of the relationship between multifactor leadership and organizational outcomes such as workplace deviance.

Limitations and Additional Future Directions

Although the present research makes several important contributions to our current knowledge about how and when leadership can impact workplace deviance, it is not without limitations. However, these limitations offer future directions that one can take from the present research.

One particular limitation of the study relates to causality—that leadership profile type is *causing* follower deviance. Because of the cross-sectional nature of the data, one cannot make a clear interpretation of causality. Future research can examine causality by establishing temporal effects of the model (e.g., longitudinal research). Additionally, the body of research obviously benefits from replication and establishment

of generalizability to other samples, other types of employees and jobs, different industries, different societal cultures, etc.

A limitation that this study shares with the Brown and Treviño (2006) study is that it does not consider multiple outcomes, but rather focuses solely on workplace deviance. It also excludes hypotheses regarding prosocial types of behaviors, such as OCB. A study including both prosocial and antisocial behaviors would offer a fuller and more interesting research opportunity.

A third limitation is that the present study did not discuss or include disidentification, a relatively new concept in the identification literature. Scholars are beginning to recognize a distinction between identification and disidentification. It is plausible that disidentification may act as a moderator or mediator of the leadership-deviance relationship. As noted above, disidentification or ambivalent identification is related to avoidance, annoyance, and anger (Pratt, 2000). Also, disidentified employees often remain with an organization because of continuance or normative commitment or other reasons (e.g., poor labor market, etc.; Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004). Instead of quitting, ambivalent views—or strong, negative views—may be translated into negative on-the-job behaviors targeted toward the organization. Like identification, disidentification may have a buffering effect on the relationship between leadership and deviance.

Identification and disidentification may also explain (mediate) the relationship between leadership and follower deviance. In fact, Shamir, House, and Arthur (1993) suggest that transformational leaders motivate followers by engaging their self-concepts and making collective identity salient. Additionally, Bass (1999) called for more research

that can better explain how transformational leaders affect followers' identification, as a step in the influencing process. More recently, Avolio et al. (2004) proposed that the effect of authentic transformational leadership on hope, trust, and positive emotions (which in turn influence follower attitudes and behavior) is mediated by social identification. Future research should explore these possibilities.

Another limitation is that, because fewer respondents' leaders fit the proposed profiles than expected, the sample size was limited for hypothesis testing. The sample size was reduced even further prior to hypothesis testing after screening participants based on survey response time. Although hypotheses are supported with the reduced sample, the theoretical arguments outlined above are supported to a lesser extent than if the whole sample would have been used—a smaller sample suggests a less stable estimate of the proposed effects. In other words, not only do the results only apply to the leaders who fit the proposed profiles, but the study also could have capitalized on chance. Also, the smaller sample size could explain the emergence of the unexpected profiles. Specifically, if more data were collected, perhaps there would be a greater number of leaders fitting the proposed profiles, reducing the proportion of the unexpected profiles.

A related limitation relates to the method that was used to create the profile groups. Because each leader was categorized as low, moderate, or high on each of the leadership types based on his or her mean score relative to the 33rd and 67th percentiles, the profile assignment was completely dependent on and sensitive to the sample within this study. For instance, if all leaders in the sample, hypothetically, were considered transformational leaders (e.g., according to normative data), only some

leaders would be classified as transformational-oriented—leaders were forced into a distribution across leadership profile types. If different cut-offs were used to create the profile groups, perhaps different profile assignments would have resulted (see Appendix M for a listing of the alternative cut-offs that were attempted).

Furthermore, being rated as "mid," or moderate, on a certain leadership type played an important role in profile assignment. As in the example above, someone who is low on transformational, low on vigilant, and mid on passive is considered as fitting the passive profile; similarly, someone who is mid on transformational, mid on vigilant, and high on passive is considered as the passive profile, as well. It remains unknown whether or not a "mid" passive-oriented leader (the former in the example) differs from a "high" passive-oriented leader (the latter in the example) in their leadership. Additionally, it is debatable whether or not they should be considered as part of the same population, theoretically. Replication is needed to establish generalizability of the results and determine if sample size or profile assignment method affect the results.

Lastly, because assumptions were violated, it was not appropriate to interpret the ANCOVA. Thus, the current study design is limited in that it could not separate the effects of leadership from the effects of the four proposed covariates (neuroticism, negative affectivity, job stressors, and organizational citizenship behavior). Hershcovis and colleagues (2007) found several individual predictors (e.g., negative affectivity) to be correlated with interpersonal and organizational deviance.

In other words, the effects of the independent variable cannot be distinguished from the effects of the covariates. Rather than aid in detecting subgroup differences on the dependent variable, the covariates suggest alternative explanations for subgroup

differences. When the assumptions of homogeneity of regression and of independence of the covariate and independent variable are violated, ANCOVA cannot indicate if there are actual group differences when controlling for the covariate. This limitation suggests a challenging avenue for future research. To tease apart the effects of leadership profile type from that of the covariates, one must experimentally control for the covariates' influence. For example, perhaps in a future study, the covariates can be measured and respondents can be randomly assigned to leaders representing the four profile types, in examining the effects on deviant behavior.

Conclusion

The present study makes several important contributions to the organizational research literature. First, the study offers a more sophisticated examination of the full range of leadership by recognizing, proposing, and including a number of specific leadership profile types. Second, this study breaks new ground by demonstrating the effect that different types of leadership have on workplace deviance outcomes. Deviance has been ignored as a measure of effective leadership, and the study contributes to the extant research by providing an understanding of how different types of leadership potentially impact the level of counterproductive or deviant behavior in which employees engage. Third, this study sheds light on the conditions under which the various types of leadership affect workplace deviance. Lastly, the results establish criterion-related validity evidence for multifactor leadership theory, and transformational leadership in particular.

The present thesis also has clear implications for practice. Given recent freezes in hiring, layoffs, and other workforce reductions, many organizations are understaffed

and therefore are seeking ways to maximize productivity from current employees. By having fewer employees do the same (or greater) amount of work previously done by more employees, each employee's behavior thus has a greater impact. Especially during times of economic recession, an organization cannot afford to have its reduced workforce behaving in ways that are detrimental to the organization (i.e., workplace deviance). The present study demonstrates that a leader's orientation can potentially influence followers' deviance toward the organization and that the interactive effect of OI should be considered.

Furthermore, given recent high-profile corporate scandals in the media, organizations and the public alike are especially sensitive to and intolerant of unethical, scandalous, and deviant behavior. The results show that leaders' behaviors can have a substantial influence on subsequent behaviors of followers, especially destructive, deviant behaviors that can be—and often are—expensive to organizations. Organizations should be motivated to take advantage of leadership in novel and meaningful ways to help reduce financial costs and other harmful effects (e.g., loss of productivity, negative effect on coworkers or team members, negative effect on organizational reputation, etc.) stemming from deviance.

Perhaps organizations can examine the specific behaviors being measured by the transformational, vigilant, and passive facets of the MLQ and provide training/development of these behaviors to leaders at all levels of the organization. The sessions can explicitly outline the most effective behaviors to demonstrate in order to reduce workplace deviance (i.e., acting in accordance with core beliefs and purpose, showing concern for followers, challenging the status quo in a quest for new ideas,

communicating a vision and motivating followers toward it, clarifying goals, showing satisfaction when expectations are met, providing assistance to others in exchange for effort), as well as what behaviors to avoid (avoidance of decision-making and responsibility, procrastination, taking a passive/reactive approach), and also explain when and why they work. Alternatively, this could be established as part of a "high-potential" leadership development program and could fit in especially well with learning- or performance-based cultures. Bass (1999) has discussed a comprehensive training program called the "Full Range of Leadership Development," which has been shown to be effective in increasing leadership effectiveness, mostly through the reduction of MBEA and MBEP behaviors.

Organizations can encourage leaders to demonstrate behaviors (i.e., transformational and contingent reward behaviors) that dissuade deviant follower behavior in other ways. For example, organizations can design or alter reward systems, such that leaders are rewarded for exemplifying transformational or contingent reward leadership behaviors and punished for exemplifying passive and avoidant leadership behaviors. Alternatively, organizations can highlight the important role that leadership plays, organization-wide, in upholding an ethics-based culture.

Organizations may also benefit from attempting to increase OI among its members, as well. Identification can be enhanced by emphasizing the distinctiveness or prestige of one's organization or by making competing outgroups salient (e.g., rival competitors; Tajfel & Turner, 1985). Additionally, through socialization processes, the organization can increase identification by highlighting shared experiences, characteristics, values, and faults among members of the organization and by

emphasizing that the fate of the organization is linked to individuals' own fates (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Mael & Tetrick, 1992). Alternatively, by measuring OI during the selection process, organizations can consider job candidates who show early signs of identification with the organization. Similarly, organizations can target incumbents with higher levels of OI for promotional opportunities.

In closing, the extant research thus far has demonstrated that transformational and other leadership behaviors can have an impact on organizational members in many different ways. Most of this research has examined the impact of a single type of leadership on performance and other positive outcomes. The relative dearth of research on the effects of leadership profile type on negative outcomes—and how other factors interact with leadership profile type—creates an opportunity for new and relevant knowledge. Furthermore, Bass (1999) suggested that, despite abundant applied-oriented research on transformational leadership, basic research and theory has been lacking. Judge and Piccolo (2004) called for more research to go beyond transformational leadership to include laissez-faire leadership, as well as to address the relationship between transformational and contingent reward leadership. The current study contributed to filling these gaps in the research and has offered a number of future directions to further develop our understanding of the "full range" of leadership.

FOOTNOTES

[1] Appendix N shows that permission was granted to display sample items from the MLQ.

[2] In addition to the 36 items representing the 9 dimensions, the full MLQ includes 9 additional items that relate to various outcomes of leadership (three items pertaining to extra effort, four items pertaining to effectiveness, and two items pertaining to satisfaction with leadership). These 9 items were measured, but not included in the study or any analyses of MLQ items.

[3] Covariates demonstrated good reliability. Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the covariates are as follows: Neuroticism (α = .90), negative affectivity (α = .95), job stressors (α = .95), and organizational citizenship behavior (α = .93). Other details for the measures (e.g., number of items, etc.) are available upon request.

[4] Values in the X^2 table in the back of the Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) text were used to interpret the Mahalanobis Distance statistic.

[5] After transformation, reflected scores were reflected again, such that higher values indicate greater frequency or degree of the variable.

[6] Kurtosis was not dealt with, as Tabachnick & Fidell (2007) note that, with large samples, the impact of departure from zero kurtosis is diminished—with negative kurtosis, the impact it has on variance (underestimation) diminishes with samples of 200 or more.

[7] Scatterplots, as well as the histograms that were generated to visually inspect the variables for skew and kurtosis, are available upon request.

[8] The unstandardized means for each type of leadership (i.e., meta-dimension groupings) are as follows (standard deviations in parentheses): Transformational (M = 3.57; SD = .89), Vigilant (M = 2.98; SD = .93), and Passive (M = 2.60; SD = 1.00). The values used to create the high/mid/low categories (corresponding with the tertile splits—33.3333[rd] and 66.6667[th] percentiles), as well as frequencies of each, are as follows (standardized values were used for transformational leadership): Transformational (low = 1 to 1.5692, n = 99; mid = 1.5693 to 1.8406, n = 101; high = 1.8407 to 2.24, n = 96), Vigilant (low = 1 to 2.7500, n = 113; mid = 2.7501 to 3.5000, n = 107; high = 3.5001 to 5.000, n = 76), and Passive (low = 1.0000 to 2.0000, n = 105; mid = 2.0001 to 3.1250, n = 102; high = 3.1251 to 5.0000, n = 89).

[9] Analyses used to test the hypotheses were based on respondents in the final sample who reported leaders fitting one of the four proposed profiles (n = 173). Furthermore, prior to hypothesis testing, cases were identified and screened out if they completed the first wave of the survey excessively fast, in an effort to reduce the effect of inappropriate responding on the results. Only respondents meeting a minimum threshold for wave 1 survey completion time (5.8 minutes total, or 2 seconds per survey item) were retained for hypothesis testing (n = 149). Demographic information on this reduced sample (n = 149) is available upon request.

[10] The mean split was based on the mean of the original transformed OI variable (M = 1.87). The transformed scale ranges from 1.00 to 2.59.

FIGURES

Figure 1.
Simplified proposed model illustrating the moderating effect of organizational identification on the influence of multifactor leadership on workplace deviance.
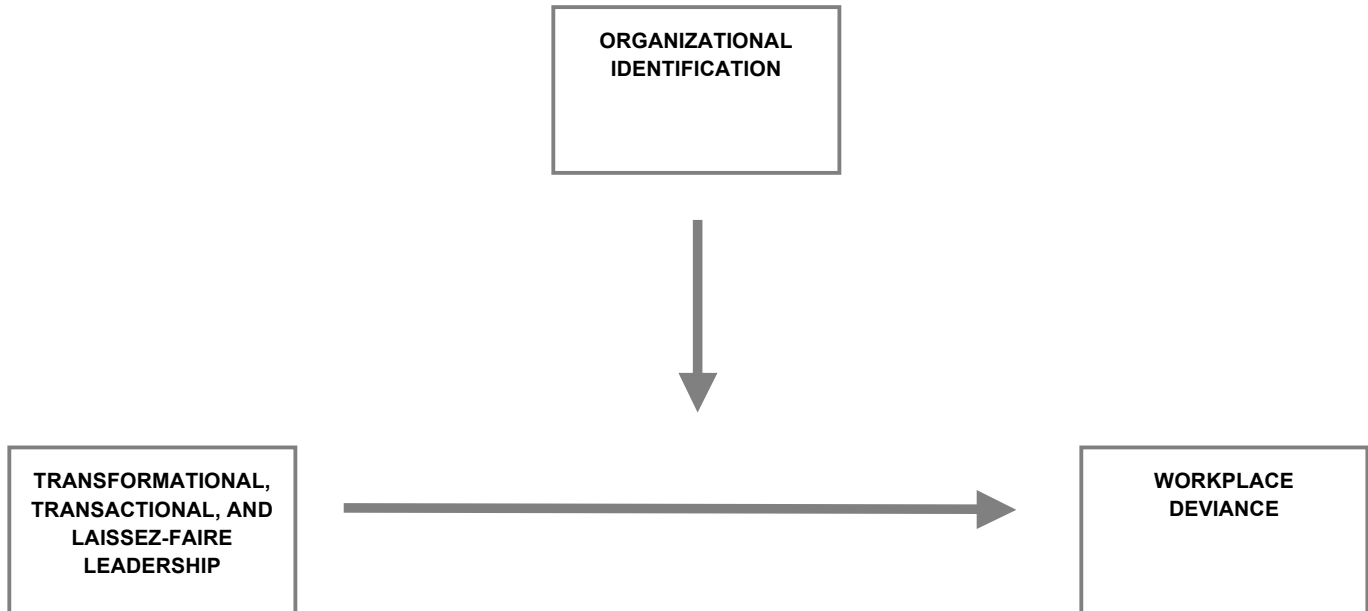
Figure 2.
Conceptual, graphical representation of the hypothetical buffering effect of organizational identification on the influence of profile type on follower deviance.
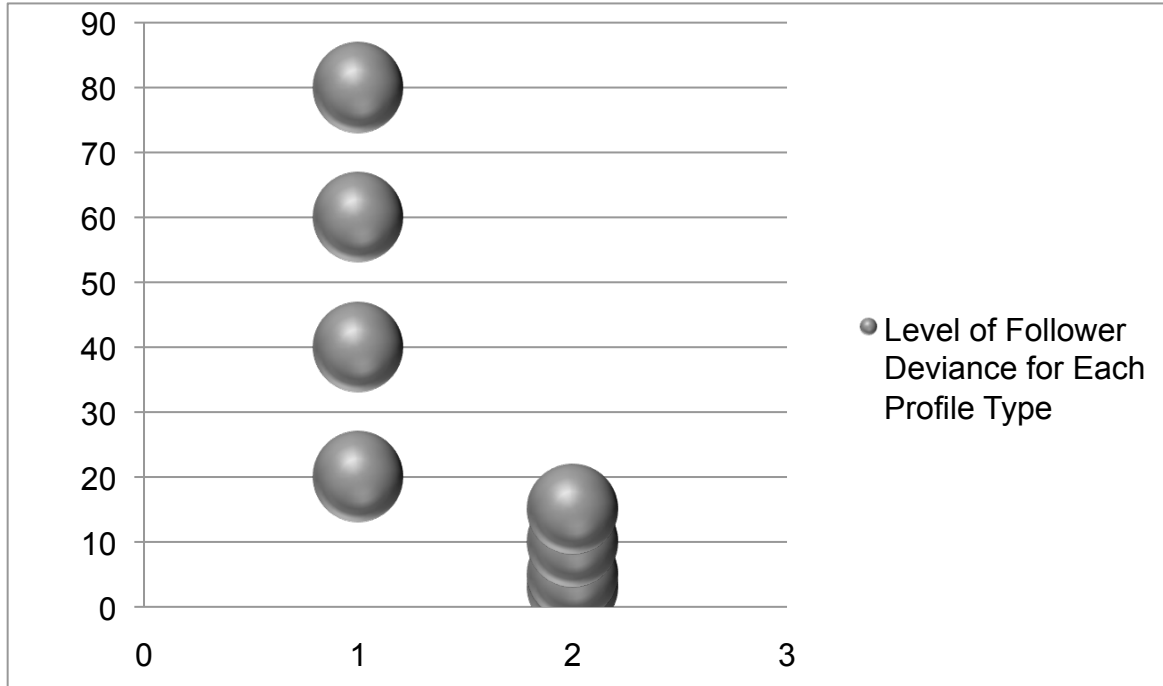
Figure 3.
Graphical representation of means of workplace deviance for each profile type, organized by level of organizational identification, after screening out participants based on survey response time.
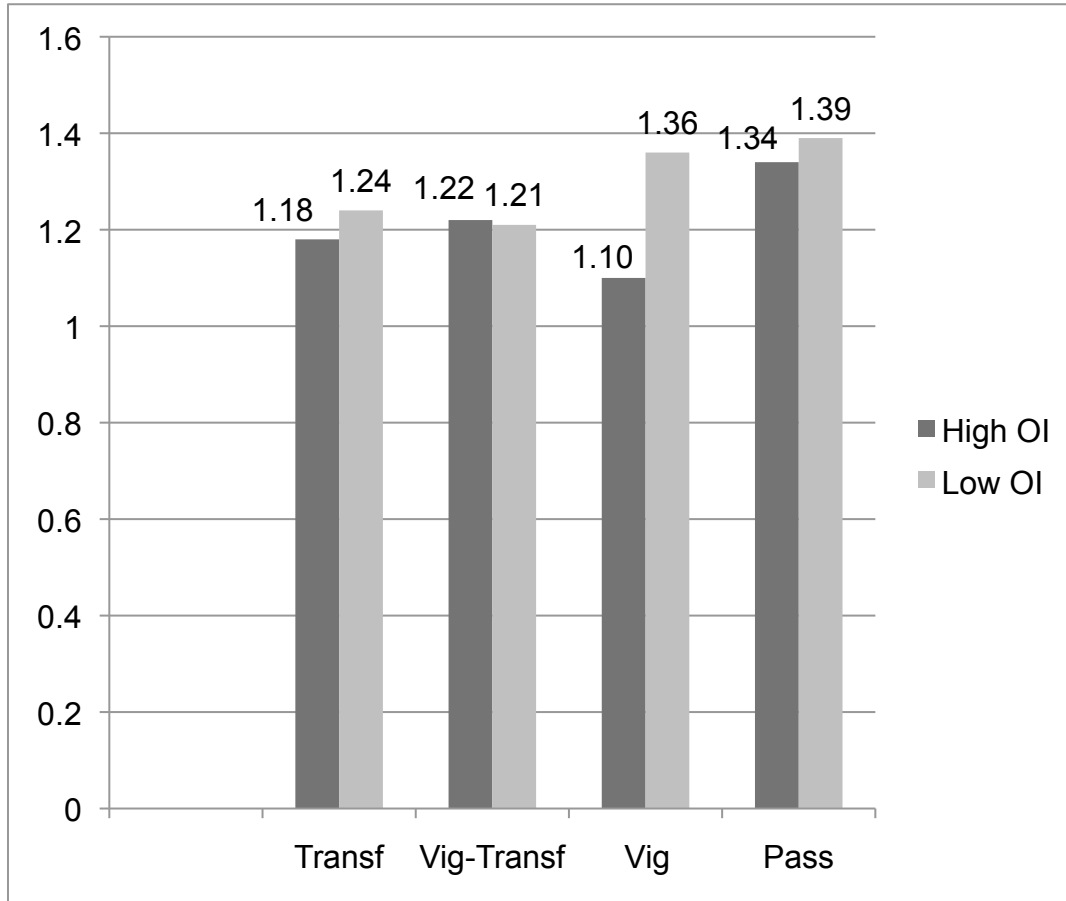
TABLES

Table 1.
Depiction of the revised typology, which indicates the dimensions included in each of the categories of leadership.

	DIMENSIONS
Transformational Leadership	Idealized Influence (Attributes)
	Idealized Influence (Behavior)
	Inspirational Motivation
	Intellectual Stimulation
	Individualized Consideration
	Contingent Reward
Vigilant/Active Leadership	MBEA
Passive/Avoidant Leadership	MBEP
	Laissez-Faire

Table 2.
Description of the four leadership profiles based on the revised typology.

	Transformational (Transformational/Contingent Reward Dimensions)	Vigilant/Active (MBEA Dimension)	Passive/Avoidant (MBEP/Laissez-Faire Dimensions)
Transformational Leadership Profile	High	Low	Low
Vigilant-Transformational Leadership Profile	High	High	Low
Vigilant Leadership Profile	Low	High	Low
Passive/Avoidant Leadership Profile	Low	Low	High

Table 3.
Demographic information for the full (N = 298) study sample.

Demographic Variable [a]	
Sex [b]	
Male	159 (53.4)
Female	139 (46.6)
Ethnicity [c]	
White/Anglo or European American	233 (78.2)
Black/African American	19 (6.4)
Asian, Asian American, Pacific Islander	22 (7.4)
Hispanic/Latino(a)	15 (5.0)
Native American	4 (1.3)
Bi-racial or multi-racial	2 (0.7)
Other	2 (0.7)
Mean Age [d]	38.86 (9.77) [h]
Mean Hours Working Per Week [e]	40.89 (7.79)
Mean Months Working at Current Job Title [f]	70.79 (81.64)
Mean Months Working at Current Organization [g]	90.29 (99.92)

Notes:
a. Information regarding *sex* was available for all 298 participants in the full sample; *ethnicity, age,* and *hours working per week* were all available for 297 participants. Both *months at current job title* and *months at current organization* were available for 290 participants.
b. Sample size is shown outside of parentheses; percentage of total sample is shown inside parentheses.
c. Sample size is shown outside of parentheses; percentage of total sample is shown inside parentheses.

d. Mean is shown outside of parentheses; standard deviation is shown in parentheses.
e. Mean is shown outside of parentheses; standard deviation is shown in parentheses.
f. Mean is shown outside of parentheses; standard deviation is shown in parentheses.
g. Mean is shown outside of parentheses; standard deviation is shown in parentheses.
h. The age of participants ranged from 23 to 75, demonstrating a strong positive skew (skew = .87, SE = .14); the median age was 37.00 years.

Table 4.

Means and standard deviations for study variables before and after variable transformation.

Variable (*N* = 298)	Before	After
Transformational Leadership [a]	3.57 (.89)	1.71 (.28)
Vigilant Leadership [b]	2.98 (.93)	-
Passive Leadership [c]	2.60 (1.00)	-
Organizational Identification [d]	4.93 (1.10)	1.87 (.31)
Workplace Deviance [e]	1.96 (1.26)	1.33 (.28)
Neuroticism [f]	3.45 (1.12)	-
Negative Affectivity [g]	1.93 (.88)	1.38 (.25)
Job Stressors [h]	2.13 (.81)	.30 (.16)
Organizational Citizenship Behavior [i]	5.19 (1.03)	-

Notes:

a. The transformational leadership scale score was transformed using square root transformation after reflection, with a second reflection, so that higher numbers indicate more frequent transformational leadership behavior.

b. The vigilant leadership scale score was not transformed.

c. The passive leadership scale score was not transformed.

d. The organizational identification scale score was transformed using square root transformation after reflection, with a second reflection, so that higher numbers indicate stronger organizational identification.

e. The workplace deviance scale score was transformed using inverse transformation, with a second reflection, so that higher numbers indicate more frequent workplace deviance behavior.

f. The neuroticism scale score was not transformed.

g. The negative affectivity scale score was transformed using inverse transformation, with a second reflection, so that higher numbers indicate a greater degree of negative affectivity.

h. The job stressors scale score was transformed using log transformation; higher numbers indicate a greater degree of job stressors.

i. The organizational citizenship behavior scale score was not transformed.

Table 5.
Intercorrelations among multifactor leadership dimensions, OI, and workplace deviance.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. IIA	1.00										
2. IIB	.79**	1.00									
3. IM	.86**	.82**	1.00								
4. IS	.81**	.76**	.80**	1.00							
5. IC	.84**	.73**	.77**	.77**	1.00						
6. CR	.85**	.77**	.84**	.82**	.83**	1.00					
7. MBEA	.04	.09	.06	.20*	.15	.09	1.00				
8. MBEP	-.38**	-.38**	-.48**	-.40**	-.32**	-.42**	.23**	1.00			
9. LF	-.51**	-.37**	-.55**	-.42**	-.40**	-.51**	.19*	.70**	1.00		
10. OI	.49**	.50**	.45**	.47**	.48**	.46**	-.01	-.07	-.13	1.00	
11. WD	-.28**	-.21**	-.27**	-.24**	-.19*	-.27**	.06	.23**	.36**	-.24**	1.00

Notes:
These results reflect the screened sample, as described in footnote 10. IIA = idealized influence (attributes); IIB = idealized influence (behavior); IM = inspirational motivation; IS = intellectual stimulation; IC = individualized consideration; CR = contingent reward; MBEA = management-by-exception active; MBEP = management-by-exception passive; LF = laissez-faire; OI = organizational identification (transformed and reflected); WD = workplace deviance (transformed and reflected).
** = correlation is significant at the .01 level.
* = correlation is significant at the .05 level.

Table 6.
Means and standard deviations of workplace deviance and sample size for each profile type, before and after screening out participants based on survey response time.

Profile Type	Before n	Workplace Deviance [a]	After n	Workplace Deviance [b]
Transformational Leadership Profile	69	1.19 (.20)	69	1.19 (.20)
Vigilant-Transformational Leadership Profile	25	1.21 (.18)	21	1.22 (.19)
Vigilant Leadership Profile	18	1.23 (.24)	18	1.23 (.24)
Passive Leadership Profile	61	1.42 (.29)	41	1.37 (.26) [c]
High Transformational, Low Vigilance, High Passivity	1	1.00 (-)	N/A	N/A
Low, Low, Low	24	1.27 (.25)	N/A	N/A
Low, High, High	4	1.36 (.37)	N/A	N/A
High, High, High	23	1.43 (.28)	N/A	N/A
Mid, Low, Mid	5	1.28 (.30)	N/A	N/A
Low, Mid, Mid	29	1.48 (.29)	N/A	N/A
Mid, Mid, Mid	16	1.47 (.26)	N/A	N/A
High, Mid, High	2	1.00 (.00)	N/A	N/A
Mid, High, High	19	1.49 (.29)	N/A	N/A

Notes:
a. Values for workplace deviance are based on inverse transformation, with a reflection, so that higher numbers indicate more frequent deviant behavior. Means are listed, with

standard deviations in parentheses. The transformed deviance variable ranges from 1.00 to 1.83, with an overall mean of $M = 1.33$.

b. The transformed deviance variable ranges from 1.00 to 1.82, with an overall mean of $M = 1.25$.

c. A one-way ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of profile type on deviance, $F(3, 145) = 5.62$, $p < .01$. Thus, the proposed leadership profile types significantly differ on follower deviance.

Table 7.
Means and standard deviations of workplace deviance for each profile type, organized by level of organizational identification, after screening out participants based on survey response time.

Level of Organizational Identification [a]	Deviance [b]
Low OI [c]	
Transformational Profile (*n* = 19)	1.24 (.18)
Vigilant-Transformational Profile (*n* = 5)	1.21 (.22)
Vigilant Profile (*n* = 9)	1.36 (.25)
Passive Profile (*n* = 26)	1.39 (.27)
Total (*n* = 59) [d]	1.32 (.24)
High OI [e]	
Transformational Profile (*n* = 50)	1.18 (.21)
Vigilant-Transformational Profile (*n* = 16)	1.22 (.18)
Vigilant Profile (*n* = 9)	1.10 (.13)
Passive Profile (*n* = 15)	1.34 (.26)
Total (*n* = 90)	1.20 (.21) [f]

Notes:
a. Sample sizes for each profile, under each organizational identification level, are shown in parentheses.
b. Values for workplace deviance are based on inverse transformation, with a reflection, so that higher numbers indicate more frequent deviant behavior. Means are listed, with standard deviations in parentheses.
c. OI = organizational identification.
d. Total consists of only the four primary profiles (means and standard deviations of all other possible profiles available upon request).
e. The organizational identification level variable was derived by dichotomizing organizational identification using a mean (*M* = 1.87) split.

f. A one-way ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of OI level on deviance, $F(1, 147) = 9.86$, $p < .01$. Thus, followers low in OI engaged in significantly more frequent deviance than followers high in OI overall.

Table 8.
Intercorrelations among main study variables.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Transf	1.00									
2. Vig	.11	1.00								
3. Pass	-.50**	.23**	1.00							
4. Profile	-.74**	.25**	.75**	1.00						
5. OI	.53**	-.01	-.11	-.34**	1.00					
6. WD	-.27**	.06	.32**	.30**	-.24**	1.00				
7. Neur	-.30**	.02	.25**	.22**	-.26**	.31**	1.00			
8. NA	-.34**	.10	.30**	.33**	-.26**	.51**	.68**	1.00		
9. Stress	-.30**	-.07	.33**	.35**	-.14	.47**	.34**	.52**	1.00	
10. OCB	-.30**	-.19*	-.14	-.31**	.45**	-.33**	-.19*	-.18*	.00	1.00

Notes:
These results reflect the screened sample, as described in footnote 10. Transf = transformational leadership (transformed and reflected); Vig = vigilant leadership; Pass = passive leadership; Profile = leadership profile type; OI = organizational identification (transformed and reflected); WD = workplace deviance (transformed and reflected); Neur = neuroticism; NA = negative affectivity (transformed and reflected); Stress = job stressors (transformed); OCB = organizational citizenship behaviors.
** = correlation is significant at the .01 level.
* = correlation is significant at the .05 level.

APPENDIX A

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

Thank you for completing this survey. The researchers would like to collect some information about your demographic background. This information is NOT used for data analysis. Researchers only collect this information to ensure that federal guidelines regarding research participants are met. Specifically, this information is used to demonstrate the researchers made efforts to include people from all demographic groups. You may skip any questions that make you would prefer not to answer.

What is your biological sex?

_____Male

_____Female

What is your racial/ethnic heritage?

_____White/Anglo or European American

_____Black/African American

_____Asian, Asian American, Pacific Islander

_____Hispanic/Latino(a)

_____Native American

_____Bi-racial or multi-racial

_____Other

What is your age in years?

_____(please indicate): _____

What is your job title?

_____(please indicate): _____

In what industry is your job? (e.g., retail, legal)

_____(please indicate): _____

How many HOURS per week do you typically work each week?

_____(please indicate): _____

How many MONTHS have you been working at this job title?

_____(please indicate): _____

How many MONTHS have you been working at this organization?

_____(please indicate): _____

Do you have any final thoughts or comments for the researchers??

_____(please indicate): _____

APPENDIX B

SAMPLE OF ITEMS FROM THE MLQ

This questionnaire asks you to describe the leadership style of your IMMEDIATE

SUPERVISOR as you perceive it. Please answer all items on this answer sheet. If an

item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, mark "N/A." This

questionnaire is anonymous and will not be shared with your supervisor or workplace.

Please respond how frequently each statement fits the IMMEDIATE SUPERVISOR you

are describing.

0	1	2	3	4	
Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	N/A

MY SUPERVISOR…

1. Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts.

2. Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.

3. Fails to interfere until problems become serious.

4. Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from

standards.

5. Avoids getting involved when important issues arise.

APPENDIX C

ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION SCALE

Directions: Using the 1 to 7 scale below as a guide, indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by choosing the corresponding number. Please note that the term "organization" refers to the place at which you work.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

Shared Experience Items

1. When someone criticizes my organization, it feels like a personal insult.

2. I'm very interested in what others think about my organization.

3. When I talk about my organization, I usually say "we" rather than "they."

4. My organization's successes are my successes.

5. When someone praises my organization, it feels like a personal compliment.

6. I act like a typical person from my organization to a great extent.

Shared Characteristics Items

1. If a story in the media criticized my organization, I would feel embarrassed.

2. I don't act like a typical person from my organization. (R)

3. I have a number of qualities typical of people from my organization.

4. The limitations associated with people from my organization apply to me also.

APPENDIX D

INTERPERSONAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL DEVIANCE SCALE

Directions: People often act out certain behaviors while at work. Please indicate the extent to which you have engaged in each of the following behaviors in the last year, using the 1 to 7 scale that is provided. Please keep in mind that we are only interested in patterns of behavior across all participants and that your answers will be kept confidential, so please answer honestly.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Once a Year	Twice a Year	Several Times a Year	Monthly	Weekly	Daily

Interpersonal Deviance Items

1. Made fun of someone at work.

2. Said something hurtful to someone at work.

3. Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work.

4. Cursed at someone at work.

5. Played a mean prank on someone at work.

6. Acted rudely toward someone at work.

7. Publicly embarrassed someone at work.

Organizational Deviance Items

1. Taken property from work without permission.

2. Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working.

3. Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on business expenses.

4. Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace.

5. Come in late to work without permission.

6. Littered your work environment.

7. Neglected to follow your boss' instructions.

8. Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked.

9. Discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person.

10. Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job.

11. Put little effort into your work.

12. Dragged out work in order to get overtime.

APPENDIX E

IPIP – NEUROTICISM SUBSCALE

Directions: Hello! This questionnaire is used to determine how people view the world.

Your personal results will NOT be published and I have no way to link your information

to your name. In other words, this is completely anonymous.

Please use the following scale to respond to the items listed below.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

1. I have frequent mood swings.

2. I get stressed out easily.

3. I worry about things.

4. I panic easily.

5. I am filled with doubts about things.

6. I seldom feel blue. (R)

7. I am relaxed most of the time. (R)

8. I am not easily bothered by things. (R)

9. I feel comfortable with myself. (R)

10. I don't worry about things that have already happened. (R)

APPENDIX F

PANAS – NEGATIVE AFFECTIVITY SUBSCALE

Directions: Hello! This questionnaire is used to determine how people view the world.

Your personal results will NOT be published and I have no way to link your information

to your name. In other words, this is completely anonymous.

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions.

Read each item and then choose the most appropriate answer from the choices above

that word. Indicate to what extent you have felt this way during the past SIX MONTHS.

1	2	3	4	5
Very slightly or not at all	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Extremely

1. Distressed

2. Upset

3. Guilty

4. Scared

5. Hostile

6. Irritable

7. Ashamed

8. Nervous

9. Jittery

10. Afraid

APPENDIX G

INTERPERSONAL CONFLICT AT WORK SCALE

Directions: Please indicate how often you experience the situation described in each of

the statements below using the following scale.

1	2	3	4	5
Less than once per month or never	Once or twice per month	Once or twice per week	Once or twice per day	Several times per day

1. How often do you get into arguments with others at work?

2. How often do other people yell at you at work?

3. How often are people rude to you at work?

4. How often do other people do nasty things to you at work?

APPENDIX H

QUANTITATIVE WORKLOAD INVENTORY

Directions: Please indicate how often you experience the situation described in each of

the statements below using the following scale.

1	2	3	4	5
Less than once per month or never	Once or twice per month	Once or twice per week	Once or twice per day	Several times per day

1. How often does your job require you to work very fast?

2. How often does your job require you to work very hard?

3. How often does your job leave you with little time to get things done?

4. How often is there a great deal to be done?

5. How often do you have to do more work than you can do well?

APPENDIX I

ORGANIZATIONAL CONSTRAINTS SCALE

Directions: How often do you find it difficult or impossible to do your job because of…?

1	2	3	4	5
Less than once per month or never	Once or twice per month	Once or twice per week	Once or twice per day	Several times per day

1. Poor equipment or supplies.

2. Organizational rules and procedures.

3. Other employees.

4. Your supervisor.

5. Lack of equipment or supplies.

6. Inadequate training.

7. Interruptions by other people.

8. Lack of necessary information about what to do or how to do it.

9. Conflicting job demands.

10. Inadequate help form others.

11. Incorrect instructions.

APPENDIX J

ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR SCALE

Directions: People often engage in certain behaviors while at work. Please indicate the extent to which you have engaged in each of the following behaviors in the six months, using the 1 to 7 scale that is provided. Please keep in mind that we are only interested in patterns of behavior across all participants and that your answers will be kept confidential, so please answer honestly.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Usually	Always

1. I help others who have been absent.

2. I help others who have heavy workloads.

3. I assist my supervisor with his/her work, even when not asked.

4. I take time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries.

5. I go out of my way to help new employees.

6. I take a personal interest in other employees.

7. I pass along information to co-workers.

8. My attendance at work is above the norm.

9. I give advance notice when unable to come to work.

10. I do not take undeserved work breaks.

11. I do not spend a great deal of time with personal phone conversations.

12. I do not complain about insignificant things at work.

13. I conserve and protect organizational property.

14. I adhere to informal rules devised to maintain order at work.

APPENDIX K

INFORMATION SHEET

Research Information Sheet

Title of Study: Organizational Survey

Principal Investigator (PI): Kimberly O'Brien

Psychology

313.577.0962

Funding Source: Wayne State University

Purpose:

You are being asked to be in a research study of organizational behavior because you are employed over 30 hours per week. This study is being conducted at Wayne State University.

Study Procedures:

If you take part in the study, you will be asked to fill out surveys about your personality and your workplace. Your supervisor will also complete a small survey about you and your workplace. Your answers are completely confidential and your supervisor will not have access to your data. The questions will ask for information on your personal characteristics as well as your workplace environment. You have the option to skip questions if you are uncomfortable with answering them. Each of the three surveys

takes 15-30 minutes to complete.

Benefits:

As a participant in this research study, there will be no direct benefit for you; however, information from this study may benefit other people now or in the future.

Risks:

There are no known risks at this time to participation in this study.

Costs

There will be no costs to you for participation in this research study.

Compensation

For taking part in this research study, you will be paid for your time and inconvenience at the rate of $5 for this survey, $5 for the next survey, and $20 for the final survey ($30 in total). Your supervisor will also be compensated $10 for his/her participation.

Confidentiality:

You will be identified in the research records by a code name or number, as assigned by Study Response Project.

Voluntary Participation /Withdrawal:

Taking part in this study is voluntary. You may choose not to take part in this study, or if

you decide to take part, you can change your mind later and withdraw from the study. You are free to not answer any questions or withdraw at any time. Your decision will not change any present or future relationships with Wayne State University or its affiliates.

Questions:

If you have any questions about this study now or in the future, you may contact Dr. Kimberly O'Brien or one of her research team members at the following phone number [313.577.0962]. If you have questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant, the Chair of the Human Investigation Committee can be contacted at (313) 577-1628. If you are unable to contact the research staff, or if you want to talk to someone other than the research staff, you may also call (313) 577-1628 to ask questions or voice concerns or complaints.

Participation:

By completing the questionnaire you are agreeing to participate in this study

APPENDIX L

CLOSING SHEET

Closing

You are done with the third part of this study! You will receive $20 for completion.

Please keep in mind that you will be asked to send a final survey to your supervisor.

Please email any questions about the study to the researcher, Kimberly E. O'Brien, at

keobrien@wayne.edu

APPENDIX M

LIST OF ALTERNATIVE METHODS WITH WHICH TO DETERMINE CUT-OFFS FOR

CREATING PROFILE GROUPS

1. Mean Split (i.e., transformational leadership = 3.57, vigilant leadership = 2.98, passive leadership = 2.60): Lower than the mean is "low," and higher than the mean is "high" for each type of leadership.

2. Midpoint on 1-5 MLQ Scale (i.e., 3.00): Lower than the midpoint is "low," and higher than the midpoint is "high" for each type of leadership.

3. 2.5 & 3.5: Lower than (or equal to) 2.5 is "low," and higher than (or equal to) 3.5 is "high" for each type of leadership.

4. MLQ Norms (transformational leadership = 3.55; vigilant leadership = 2.7; passive leadership = 2.01): Lower than the norm is "low," and higher than the norm is "high" for each type of leadership.

5. Median Split (transformational leadership = 3.6364; vigilant leadership = 3.000; passive leadership = 2.6250): Lower than the median is "low," and higher than the median is "high" for each type of leadership.

6. Tertile High-Low Split (33.333 and 66.667 percentiles): Lower than 3.2083 (transformational leadership), 2.75 (vigilant leadership), or 2.00 (passive leadership) is "low," and higher than 4.00 (transformational leadership), 3.50 (vigilant leadership), or 3.1250 (passive leadership) is "high."

7. Tertile High-Mid-Low Split (33.333 and 66.667 percentiles): Lower than 3.2083 (transformational leadership), 2.75 (vigilant leadership), or 2.00 (passive leadership) is "low"; higher than 4.00 (transformational leadership), 3.50 (vigilant

leadership), or 3.1250 (passive leadership) is "high"; between 2.083 and 4.00 (transformational leadership), 2.75 and 3.50 (vigilant leadership), or 2.00 and 3.1250 (passive leadership) is "mid."

APPENDIX N

PERMISSION LETTER TO USE THE MLQ

mind garden

www.mindgarden.com

To whom it may concern,

This letter is to grant permission for the above named person to use the following copyright material;

Instrument: *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*

Authors: *Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

Copyright: *1995 by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

for his/her thesis research.

Five sample items from this instrument may be reproduced for inclusion in a proposal, thesis, or dissertation.

The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any other published material.

Sincerely,

Robert Most
Mind Garden, Inc.
www.mindgarden.com

APPENDIX O

NOTICE OF IRB APPROVAL

WAYNE STATE UNIVERSITY

HUMAN INVESTIGATION COMMITTEE
87 East Canfield, Second Floor
Detroit, Michigan 48201
Phone: (313) 577-1628
FAX: (313) 993-7122
http://hic.wayne.edu

NOTICE OF EXPEDITED APPROVAL

To: Kimberly O'Brien
Psychology
5057 Woodward

From: Ellen Barton, Ph.D. _S. Millis for /_
Chairperson, Behavioral Institutional Review Board (B3)

Date: August 05, 2010

RE: HIC #: 042510B3E

Protocol Title: Organizational Survey

Funding Source:

Protocol #: 1003008200

Expiration Date: August 04, 2011

Risk Level / Category: Research not involving greater than minimal risk

The above-referenced protocol and items listed below (if applicable) were **APPROVED** following *Expedited Review* (Category 7*) by the Chairperson/designee *for* the Wayne State University Behavioral Institutional Review Board (B3) for the period of 08/05/2010 through 08/04/2011. This approval does not replace any departmental or other approvals that may be required.

- Invitation Email
- Participant Internet Information Sheet
- Supervisor Internet Information Sheet

° Federal regulations require that all research be reviewed at least annually. You *may* receive a *"Continuation Renewal Reminder"* approximately two months prior to the expiration date; however, it is the Principal Investigator's responsibility to obtain review and continued approval *before* the expiration date. Data collected during a period of lapsed approval is unapproved research and can *never* be reported or published as research data.

° All changes or amendments to the above-referenced protocol require review and approval by the HIC **BEFORE** implementation.

° Adverse Reactions/Unexpected Events (AR/UE) must be submitted on the appropriate form within the timeframe specified in the HIC Policy (http://www.hic.wayne.edu/hicpol.html).

NOTE:

1. Upon notification of an impending regulatory site visit, hold notification, and/or external audit the HIC office must be contacted immediately.
2. Forms should be downloaded from the HIC website at *each* use.

*Based on the Expedited Review List, revised November 1998

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ABSTRACT

PROFILING LEADERS: USING A PROFILING APPROACH TO EXAMINE THE EFFECTS OF MULTIFACTOR LEADERSHIP ON FOLLOWER DEVIANCE

KEVIN T. WYNNE

August 2012

Advisor: Boris B. Baltes, PhD

Major: Psychology (Industrial/Organizational)

Degree: Master of Arts

Researchers are only beginning to understand how leadership types affect important organizational outcomes at the individual level. Specifically, as a leading theoretical model, multifactor leadership theory has been used as a framework to study various organizational phenomena. However, researchers have largely examined leadership types in isolation, failing to explicitly acknowledge that leaders can and often do enact varying levels of multiple leadership types. The current thesis suggests that leaders demonstrate a profile made up of different types of leadership and proposes four specific leader profiles. This thesis also aimed to determine the conditions under which leadership profile types affect follower deviance. It was found that passivity-oriented leadership led to significantly more frequent follower deviance than transformational-oriented leadership. Moreover, confirmatory factor analysis confirmed a revised typology. Lastly, organizational identification was not found to be a moderating variable, although its main effects explained variance in follower deviance.

AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL STATEMENT

Kevin Thomas Wynne was born in San Francisco, California, but spent most of his childhood growing up in northeastern Ohio. After high school, Kevin met his soon-to-be wife, Becky Hrvatin at Ohio University in beautiful Athens, Ohio. Then, they both transferred to The Ohio State University, with Kevin earning a bachelor's degree in psychology. Kevin subsequently earned a master's degree in management from Mays Business School at Texas A&M University in College Station, Texas, and he is currently a PhD student in Industrial/Organizational Psychology at Wayne State University in Detroit, Michigan.

Professionally, Kevin Wynne has consulted for a number of local, regional, and national organizations in the Detroit, Michigan area and has experience in the areas of assessment, selection, metrics, performance/talent management, and leadership development. Kevin recently served as Program Specialist in Talent Development at Sodexo North America in Gaithersburg, Maryland. Prior to working at Sodexo, Kevin worked in Organization and Leadership Development at Lockheed Martin Aeronautics in Fort Worth, Texas.

As a graduate student at Wayne State University, Kevin lives in Belleville, Michigan, and enjoys spending time with his wife (Becky), cat (Maestro), and adopted painted turtle (Muddy, AKA Buddy). In the rare event that spare time emerges, he enjoys doing outdoor activities—hiking, camping, trail-running, snowboarding, and bicycling.