The Relationship Between Leadership Styles, Leader Communication Style, and
Impact on Leader–Member Exchange Relationship Within the Banking Sector in
the United States and the Philippines

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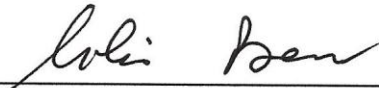
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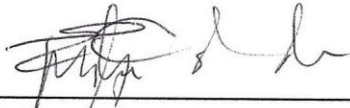
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Abstract

Proceeding from the assumption that leadership is a socially constructed relationship, this study examined the causal link of leadership styles w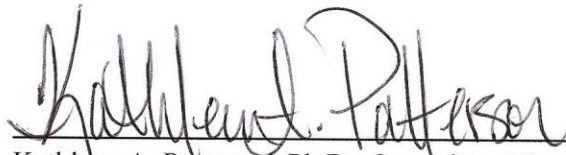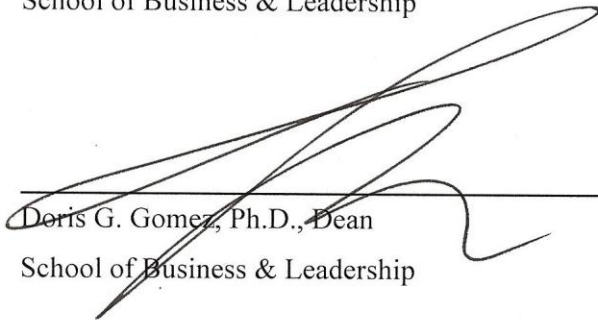ith leader communications styles and the extent to which the mediating role of leader communication styles influenced the quality of leader–member exchange (LMX) relationship and whether cultural dimensions determine differences in preferences for these test variables. Using hierarchical multiple regression analysis, three regression models were estimated on data drawn from 441 domestic bank employees in the United States ($N = 213$) and the Philippines ($N = 228$). The results showed that leader communication styles mediated the relationship between leadership styles and quality of LMX. Transformational leadership style was negatively related to the communication style of verbal aggressiveness and positively related to preciseness for both the U.S. and Philippine sample groups. Verbal aggressiveness and preciseness partially mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and LMX. Also, transactional leadership was significantly related to leader expressiveness, questioningness, and preciseness, which explained the relationship of transactional leadership with quality of LMX among U.S. respondents. Similar findings were found among Philippine respondents for preciseness and questioningness but differed on leader emotionality. A *t* test found significant differences in preference for transformational leadership and leader communication styles of verbal aggressiveness, questioningness, emotionality, and impression manipulativeness. The implication of the findings draws attention to the importance of leader communiction styles in building productive and enduring dyadic relationships with followers in the workplace. Moreover, the findings underscore the role that leader communication plays in influencing the work environment in manners of conveyance that impact proximal and power relationships. The current study advances leadership research deeper into the realm of communication by probing deeper into the importance of rhetoric in the construction of dyadic relationships.

Dedication

Throughout my life, there have been moments that I wished I could feel God's presence. Although He has and will always be present in my heart, I have felt his loving embrace, support, encouragement, and cheer through my wife, Phoebe, and daughter, Anya-Faye. These are the two people whose unfailing and unconditional love provided the living stream of persistence, patience, endurance, inspiration, and motivation for me to press on. To my wife, Phoebe, and daughter, Anya-Faye, belong every moment and thoughts of my love and immeasurable dediction for this achievement.

Above all, I thank and dedicate this work to my God in Heaven for blessing me with my wife and daughter; for His unfailing and flowing grace, mercies, compassion, and forgiveness every moment of my life; and for His mindfulness of my life in spite of my enduring weakness, repeated failures, and unstable faith. This is a small offering of thankfulness, but for the purpose that it serves my God, I know and believe that the path ahead, with all its challenges, is a road I am willing and ready to take.

To my God, wife Phoebe, and daughter Anya-Faye, I am yours, this is yours and everything that flows and follows from it. I love you.

Acknowledgements

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Chapter 1 – Introduction

Research in leadership has largely linked the phenomenon of leadership to the traits and behaviors of the leader and how it influences organizational and follower outcomes. From extant studies to current research, scholars continue to examine the process of leadership from the perspective of the individual. In a typical communicative discourse on leadership within organizations, the dialogues rarely focus on leadership in terms of how relationships evolve. Only recently have some scholars called for a more integrative and comprehensive definition of leadership that encompasses the main locus of leadership theories (leader, follower, dyad, and context) as well as the mechanisms such as traits, cognitions, behaviors, and affects (Hernandez, Everly, Avolio, & Johnson, 2011) that influence the leadership process. Although Hernandez et al. (2011) pushed for a more integrative and comprehensive understanding of where leadership comes from and how it is transmitted, one could lament the fact that the literature on leadership has largely relegated the role of communication as the primary and central enactive mechanism of building relationships along the margins of leadership research. Neufeld, Wan, and Fang (2010) stated, "Without effective communication, leadership is essentially irrelevant" (p. 241). To put it differently, leadership is a communicative process.

Littlejohn and Foss (2011) stated the relationships are "patterns, connections, and institutions that 'get made' in conversations" (p. 229). Relationships are patterns of interaction that are constituted through communication. Millar and Rogers (1987) suggested that communication is organizing processes that determine "interactional consequences as are personal attributes and socio-structural prescriptions" (p. 117). Moreover, most theories assume and scholars have generally recognized that leadership is a relational process (Fairhurst & Uhl-Bien, 2012; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Hosking, 1988; Hosking & Fineman, 1990; Uhl-Bien, 2006); but, within existing leadership theories, the relationship is simply assumed as a relationship between antecedent factors and criterion outcomes without clearly explaining the relationship-building process. It is left to the scholar and researcher to examine intervening factors in the

relational process, but even within a multilinkage model (Yukl, 2010), communication is not considered as an intervening variable in explaining the relational process. Thus, more compelling questions emerge when communication is considered as the underlying mechanism by which relationships develop between a leader and follower: (a) how does leader communication behavior determine the quality of leader–member exchange (LMX) relationship, (b) what leader communication styles emerge from different leadership styles, (c) what communication styles predict high or low LMX relationship, (d) what sort of leadership theory might emerge from communication, and (e) will the relationship between leadership style and communication style vary across culture? Although communication has been found to be an essential interpersonal skill in management leading to many outcomes such as follower commitment (Bambacas & Patrickson, 2008) or follower satisfaction (Madlock, 2008), scholars have yet to recognize its value and importance in defining leadership as a communicative process and how it constructs and influences the quality of dyadic relationships.

The current study begins by defining leadership as a relationship (Fairhurst & Uhl-Bien, 2012). Uhl-Bien (2006) defined relational leadership as "a social influence process through which emergent coordination . . . and change are constructed and produced" (p. 655). Among scholars and researchers, the conceptualization of leadership largely depends on how the scholar and researcher use and apply the term. Thus, leadership may be defined in different ways. People, however, typically define leadership in terms of traits by relying upon their implicit ideas in making a distinction between an ideal or prototypical leader traits and prototypical nonleader traits (Lord, Foti, & DeVader, 1984; Offerman, Kennedy, & Wirtz, 1994). In research, scholars and researchers have operationally defined leadership based on expected traits and behaviors normatively described in different leadership theories (e.g., transformational, transactional, participative, etc.). For example, transformational leadership theory describes leadership in four trait dimensions: (a) idealized inspiration, (b) inspirational motivation, (c) intellectual stimulation, and (d) individualized consideration (Bass & Avolio, 1990, 1994). Other ways of defining leadership may look into the situation that influences

the interaction between a leader and a follower (Yukl, 2010). At this level of definition, contextual factors are considered in explaining the process of leadership (e.g., Hersey & Blanchard, 1977).

Hernandez et al. (2011) suggested that the process of leadership goes beyond implicit categorization, behavioral prescriptions, and situational considerations by arguing for an integrative theory of leadership that attempts to explain how leadership is transmitted. Leadership occurs within a social exchange context where the quality of the relationship depends on reciprocal behavior (Blau, 1986; Brandes, Dharwadkhar, & Wheatley, 2004). Leadership is a relation-building process (Hosking, 1988; Hosking & Fineman, 1990). Whether the leadership behavior is task-oriented, relations-oriented, or change-oriented, emphasis is given to the quality of the relationship such that the act of leading emerges out of a mutually constructed interaction, which in turn influences the behavior of followers to induce and motivate them to accomplish the task and perform at higher levels of performance (e.g., Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975). This would involve mutual learning and growing of the relationship within a dyadic interaction. Thus, leadership is more than role specialization given to somebody with the requisite traits, demonstrated behavior, and favorable circumstances, but it could also naturally occur as a socially constructed relationship within organizations or a social system (Yukl, 2010).

Considering that leadership is a profoundly difficult phenomenon to understand within the limited context of role specialization and socially constructed relationship, it becomes even more complex when cultural determinants are taken into account (Chitakornkijsil, 2010; Offerman & Hellman, 1997). Cross-cultural studies on leadership have been a growing trend in the last decade, inspired by the pioneering work of Hofstede (2001) on culture's effect on how people think and act across nations. Leadership styles vary across cultures (Den Hartog, House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla, & Dorfman, 1999; House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002; Jogulu, 2010), and communication is a culturally determined variable (Den Hartog, House, et al., 1999; Hofstede, 2001; Kashima & Kashima, 1998; Kashima, Kashima, Kim, & Gelfand, 2006; Smith, 2011), which means that communication

as manifested in language is the most salient part of culture (Hofstede, 2001). Offerman and Hellman (1997) tested Hofstede's cultural dimensions and found that cultural value such as leader communication style was negatively related to power distance. Johnson, Kulesa, Cho, and Shavitt (2005) also found that cultural values tend to determine response styles such that power distance and masculinity are significantly related to extreme responses in a given response scale among respondents from 19 nations, while all four cultural dimensions of Hofstede were significantly related to acquiescence response among respondents from 10 nations. Smith (2011) also found those cultures that incline toward collectivism are more acquiescent in responding to surveys compared to individualistic cultures. Pekerti and Thomas (2003) found that Asians tend to be more sociocentric in communication style compared to the more idiocentric communicating style of respondents from New Zealand. Given these cultural studies on communication, leadership studies have been slow to examine language and communication as cultural determinants and building mechanisms of the leadership process.

Cultural studies on communication (e.g., Crossman & Noma, 2013; Kashima & Kashima, 1998; Offerman & Hellman, 1997; Pekerti & Thomas, 2003) have suggested the importance of communication for organizations in a global economic environment. Stage (1999) suggested that when the parent country of a multinational organization exports its organizational culture to the subsidiary country, the intersection of diverse cultural practices such as communication might lead to cultural conflicts. Thus, the parent–subsidiary relationship enters into a "negotiation" (Stage, 1999, p. 252) by allowing the subsidiary employees to participate "communicatively" (p. 252) in the creation of organizational reality. Baylis and Smith (1997) suggested that the term "globalization" (p. 14) describes a process of interconnectedness that permeates national and societal boundaries such that national economies are merged as a global system of economic activity into a single global market place of economic interconnectedness. The interconnectedness of a global market is built on a network of financial integration (Das, 2010). In a global marketplace, trading or the exchange of goods and services are consummated in financial transactions. Thus, the financial sector is the network

through which the process of globalization occurs, and the financial entity serving as a medium of interconnectedness is the banking system.

H. Y. Cheung and Chan (2010) found that cultural dimensions influence the way countries provide quality education as a way to become competitive in a global economy such that countries that incline toward individualism and score low in uncertainty avoidance tend to score high on placing significant importance on financial education. Recent studies have reflected the importance of bank institutions to globalization. The studies have shown the relationship between culture and shaping of banking operations (Avery, Baradwaj, & Singer, 2008), organizational communication and employee engagement (Sarangi & Srivastava, 2012), organizational identification (Smidts, Pruyn, & Van Riel, 2001), and leadership styles and organizational learning (Bushra, Usman, & Naveed, 2011; Y. Lee, 2011; Nafei, Khanfar, & Kaifi, 2012). Although some of these studies are cross-cultural comparisons of bank respondents (Y. Lee, 2011; Stage, 1999), the effect of culture on leader communication as a determinant of dyadic quality relationships has not been studied. The current study fills this critical gap in leadership, communications, and globalization research.

In explaining the construction of relationships, the current study draws from three major disciplines: social psychology, communication, and cultural theories. In discussing these theories, the current study assumes that the ontological and epistemological basis of relational leadership is psychological and communicative rather than philosophical where leadership is constructed in a performative and discursive manner (Crevani, Lindgren, & Packendorff, 2010), with culture as a major influencing factor; thus, there is a need to identify the relevant theories that support the proposition that leadership is a construction of relationships. In doing so, the current study attempts to position the role of communication rooted in these theories as the central mechanism of relationship development.

Sociopsychological Basis of Relationships

Attachment Theory

Originally developed by Bowlby (1969, 1973, 1980) to explain childhood attachment (or proximity seeking) behavior to significant others, attachment theory explains that a person develops social relationships through "attachment figures" (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2007, p. 651) who provide a safe and secure environment. Attachment is an inborn behavior for regulating affect (Mikulincer, Shaver, & Pereg, 2003). According to Bowlby, the person's sense of safety, social acceptance, and well-being depends on the quality of the social relationship such that if a child has no reliable, trustworthy, and secure relationship with an attachment figure or caregiver, his or her affective development is distorted, which leads to emotional (e.g., anxiety) and personality (e.g., antisocial personality; Shaver & Mikulincer, 2007) disorders. The quality of the relationship would depend on positive interactions with an attachment figure, and these interactions are stored as mental representations or internal working models that help the person adjust his or her attachment-seeking behavior in later years (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2002, 2007).

Ainsworth, Blehar, Walters, and Wall (1978) advanced Bowlby's attachment theory by identifying three attachment styles: secure, ambivalent, and avoidant. Attachment theory suggests that adults with secure attachment history recognize that maintaining proximity to attachment figures gives them a sense of protection, support, and relief, which in turn leads to the development of a trusting attitude toward attachment figures. Adults with avoidant attachment style may show an inability to develop relationships. Shaver and Mikulincer (2002) suggested that persons who are avoidant are "uncomfortable with closeness, self-disclosure, feelings and expressions of vulnerability" (p. 136). Ambivalent attachment style is characterized by uncertainty that the attachment figure could provide the proximal goals of safety and security to the person (Shalit, Popper, & Zakay, 2010). Thus, the need for attachment or proximity is a developmental mechanism of building relationships, and the patterns of interaction facilitated through communication that a person experiences determine his or her attachment style or propensity to engage in proximal relations.

Attachment theory has been investigated in relation to organization and leadership (e.g., Berson, Dan, & Yammarino, 2006; Boatwright, Lopez, Sauer, VanDerWege, & Huber, 2010; Braun, 2011; Manning, 2003; Shalit et al., 2010). Boatwright et al. (2010) found that adult attachment styles and preference for relationship-oriented leadership behaviors are significantly related. Persons with preoccupied and secure attachment styles have higher preferences for relational leadership while those with dismissive and fearful attachment styles are not inclined toward this leadership style (Boatwright et al., 2010). Attachment to people is linked to a person's sense of identity, belonging, and security in organizations, particularly in team structures (Braun, 2011). Braun (2011) suggested that attachment to people may determine the degree of loyalty that one develops with another person within the organization, because people typically choose their colleagues on the basis of attachment.

Attachment theory also provides a conceptual framework to classify followers' tendencies to form emotional relationships with leaders (Shalit et al., 2010). Shalit et al. (2010) found that followers with secure attachment styles prefer socialized charismatic leaders over personalized charismatic leaders. The former are team-oriented leaders who align their visions with followers and engage in two-way communication, while the latter are self-serving (Popper, 2002) and may follow a communication style more adaptive to a transactional type of behavior. Berson et al. (2006) suggested that a leadership relationship is activated through the internal working models of attachment. These authors suggested that persons with secure attachments form adaptive behaviors, which in turn influence their expectations of idealized leadership. Keller (1999) suggested that persons' attachment to parents, which forms their mental models of parental leadership, shapes their implicit leadership theories. Keller found that certain parental traits significantly correlate with expectations of ideal leadership behaviors. A person's implicit leadership theory (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004, 2005; Gioia & Sims, 1985; Keller, 1999; Lord et al., 1984; MacDonald, Sulsky, & Brown, 2008; Martin & Epitropaki, 2001; Schyns, 2006; Offerman, Kennedy, et al., 1994) may be formed through interactions with attachment figures at the workplace, and how a person

forms his or her expectations of idealized leader behavior would depend on his or her attachment style.

Social Identity Theory

Pittman, Keiley, Kerpelman, and Vaughn (2011) suggested that attachment styles provides context to identity formation. Braun (2011) suggested that a person's sense of identity, belongingness, and security in organizations comes from attachment experiences. Attachment experiences lead to the formation of internal working models as interaction experiences are stored in associative memory networks (Bowlby, 1973), which help in the cognitive process of categorization. Categorization is the simplification of perception and thinking (Hogg & Abrams, 1990). It is a basic adaptive functioning that helps an individual process and manage information by classifying information into categories (Rosch, 1978). Social identity theory explains that people tend to classify themselves and others into categories on the basis of membership in organizations, affiliation in groups, and demographic cohorts (e.g., gender, age; Tajfel & Turner, 1985). The strength of an individual's social identification with a group depends on the distinctiveness of the group values and practices in comparison to other groups, prestige of the group that creates a sense of self-esteem, and the salience of the out-group or awareness of the out-group that reinforces boundaries and strengthens in-group homogeneity (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). The consequences of social identification leads a person to engage in activities congruent with their identities, positive outcomes in groups such as cohesion, cooperation and altruism, internalization and adherence to group values and norms, and enabling an individual to conceive and develop a sense of loyalty toward the organization (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). It is a cognitive mechanism that makes possible group functioning (Turner, 1982) and for group members to develop proximal or attachment relationships with other group members, possibly through group homogeneity.

Popper (2004) suggested that when an individual feels secure (e.g., secure attachment style) and not preoccupied with survival but with social identity, it is increasingly probable that symbolic relations would arise and lead to developmental relations between the leader and follower. Symbolic relations arise

from symbolic interactionism (Adamson, 2012). The interdependent roles that exist
between a leader and follower within a social system bounded by self-identity
within a group or membership emphasize the relational nature of the leadership
process (Uhl-Bien, 2006). Hogg (2001) referred to this as the "relational property"
(p. 185) of leadership within groups. Leadership behavior that builds a strong
identification with the leader or group in the formation of commitment and other
work-related outcomes depends on the individual's sense of identity (Meyer,
Becker, & Van Dick, 2006). Reicher, Haslam, and Hopkins (2005) considered the
social identity approach to leadership as the interdependent way that leaders and
followers actively rely upon each other to create or construct the conditions of
mutual influence, thus suggesting relational constructionism.

Relational Constructionism

As the name suggests, relationships are constructed; therefore, there is an
assumption of a process behind what is built. Hosking (1988) referred to this
leadership process as "a certain kind of organizing activity" (p. 147) and described
it as

> processes in which influential "acts of organizing" contribute to the
> structuring of interactions and relationships, activities and sentiments;
> processes in which definitions of social order are negotiated, found
> acceptable, implemented and renegotiated; processes in which
> interdependencies are organized in ways which, to a greater or lesser
> degree, promote the values and interests of the social order. (p. 147)

The critical elements of the leadership process are the skills of organizing involving
the processes of complex, social, and political decision making as the fundamental
mechanisms in the creation and maintenance of social order within and between
groups (Hosking, 1988). Hosking and Fineman (1990) suggested that the idea of
cognitive connectedness is central to the idea of relationships as the basis of social
actions, social interactions, and, thus, social relationships. According to Hosking
and Fineman, in organizing, members of the organization construct their own
context or sense of social order by engaging in common valuations of their social
interactions, which allow them to relate with other members having values similar

to their own. The relational schemas that members develop become the source of evaluations of LMX (X. Huang, Wright, Chiu, & Wang, 2008). This is where the process of negotiation and renegotiating occurs and how interdependencies arise, thus promoting the values and interest of the social order, which makes organizing intrinsically political. Complexity is inherent in organizing because apart from cognitive connectedness the social valuations involve an affective or emotional dimension, which could be positive or negative (Hosking & Fineman 1990). In other words, competing values and interests is at the center of organizing, which suggests a chaotic environment; but through negotiations and renegotiations, and valuations of interactions, social order emerges. Relationships are then constructed within this complex social process out of which leadership emerges (Emery, Calvard, & Pierce, 2013; Mehra, Smith, Dixon, & Robertson, 2006), and when taken into organizational dynamics operates within the concept of complex adaptive systems where there is mutual learning and development of interdependencies (Stacey, 1996, 2001, 2003).

Relational leadership theory is an emerging concept in leadership (Uhl-Bien, 2006; Yukl, 2010). In contrast to relations-oriented leadership behavior identified by the Michigan Leadership Studies (Katz, Macoby, & Morse, 1950, as cited in Yukl, 2010), relational leadership theory reorients the concept of leadership from a behaviorally focused phenomenon toward a process-oriented phenomenon. It is based on the premise that leadership emerges within a social system (Dachler, 1992; Hosking, 1988; Hosking & Fineman, 1990). According to Uhl-Bien (2006), relationships within a leadership context can be understood from an *entity* perspective and from a *relational* perspective. From an entity perspective, the leader and follower as individuals determine and shape the relationship. From a relational perspective, relationships are determined by social context or socially constructed (Hosking, 1988; Hosking & Fineman, 1990). Relational leadership theory does not explain leadership effectiveness but focuses on the relational process producing and enabling the leadership process; thus, it includes the study of both interpersonal relationships at the individual level as outcomes of leader–

follower interactions and relational dynamics as outcomes of social interactions and constructions (Uhl-Bien, 2006).

This suggests that relational constructionism in the leadership context occurs within patterns of interactions that reside in the communicative nature of relationship building (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). Although Hosking (1988) and Hosking and Fineman (1990) described the organizing skills involved in the leadership process, they seemed to ignore the most important skill and mechanism in building relationship—that is the role that communication plays in the construction of relationships and the emergence of social order. The reference to common valuations of interactions is not a novel idea but has been theorized as the social exchange theory (Blau, 1986. One could possibly argue that relational constructionism is a role-making process between a leader and follower, where the leader and follower mutually define behavioral expectations. Within a leadership context, LMX theory (Dansereau, Graen, et al., 1975) explains how a leader and follower construct a relationship.

Social Exchange Theory

The basic principle of social exchange theory states,

An individual who supplies rewarding services to another obligates him. To discharge this obligation, the second must furnish benefits to the first in turn. Concern here is with extrinsic benefits, not primarily with the rewards intrinsic to the association itself, although the significance of the social "commodities" exchanged is never perfectly independent of the interpersonal relation between the exchange partners. (Blau, 1986, p. 89)

In understanding the concept of social exchange, four points have to be made. First, the concept of exchange excludes those who are forced or compelled under coercion by law, rule, or regulation and those who are driven by social pressure to comply to "internalized norms" (Blau, 1986, p. 91). According to Blau, the actions in both instances are not voluntary, but the social exchange referred to in the theory is a voluntary reciprocal action. Second, a social exchange is different from an economic exchange (Roloff, 1981). An economic exchange involves specific obligations between two people as defined in a contractual relationship

thus involuntary, but in social exchange, the form of the exchange is unspecified (Roloff, 1981), which makes the element of trust a central condition for reciprocal action (Blau, 1986). Roloff (1981) explained that in all Blau's model, the development of the relationship moves slowly from minor exchange to more important ones as the trust develops. When individuals exchange resources, an obligation for reciprocal behavior is created, and when the parties to the exchange voluntarily honor the obligation to reciprocate, trust builds and the relationship develops an emotional attachment (Lawler & Thye, 1999), because people come to like those who engage in fair exchanges (Roloff, 1981) or those who could be trusted. This is what Gouldner (1960) referred to as the "norm of reciprocity" (p. 171), which states that people should help those who help them and not injure those who help them (Roloff, 1981).

The norm of reciprocity is a reinforcing mechanism that creates a cycle for reciprocal behavior, thus assumes that people have natural tendencies for exchange behaviors (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Roloff, 1981). As trust builds, so does the number and range of the social exchange (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Boon and Holmes (1991) defined trust as a positive expectation involving risk with coworkers. The risk in an exchange relationship is the nonreciprocation or failure to honor the obligation of the norm of reciprocity (Love & Forret, 2008). Third, the action of reciprocity is the "starting mechanism" (Gouldner, 1960, p. 176) of social interaction and group structure. The theory of social exchange suggests that in a social setting people in the social group would evaluate the advantages to be gained before entering into a social exchange relationship, which becomes the basis of the social interaction. In organizations, the social interaction leads to the emergence of norms and role expectations on how members of the organization engage in reciprocal behavior (Brandes et al., 2004; Leroy, Palanski, & Simons, 2012). Thus, in a leadership context, there are reciprocal expectations of behavior between a leader and follower (e.g., Danserau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Golden & Viega, 2008; Harris, Harris, & Brouer, 2009; Henderson, Liden, Glibkowski, & Chaudhry, 2009; Landry & Vandenberghe, 2010; Liao, Liu, & Loi, 2010).

Lastly, social exchange involves symbolic interaction (Adamson, 2012). Interpersonal communication is generally defined as "a symbolic interaction between people rather than between a person and an inanimate environmental cue" (Roloff, 1981, p. 15). Symbolic interaction or representation occurs through language as "vast repositories of significant symbols" (Watson, 2010, p. 304) involving a level of self-consciousness that sets human social formations apart from other forms of organisms and makes the vocal expression of symbols in language "reflexive" (p. 305). The reflexivity of language brings about a reciprocal interaction involving the conveyance and sharing of meanings (Watson, 2010). Ashcraft, Kuhn, and Cooren's (2009) constitutive model of organizational communication suggests that the cocreation of reality arising out of conversations or symbolic interaction determines the outcome of the relationship. In other words, communication is the mechanism by which meanings are constructed and conveyed by individuals in a relationship based on the realities of their individual experiences (Wood, 1982). In the constitutive model, where the social exchange activates organizing, acts of communication produce and alter proposed reality (2009), thus redefining and recreating the relationship.

In all social exchange theories, particularly Blau's theory, the relationship between two people form gradually over time, and the nature of the relationship changes through interpersonal communication (Roloff, 1981). Certain communicative behavior stimulates the changes that lead to different patterns of relationships (Berger & Calabrese, 1975). According to Roloff (1981), people have a natural tendency to escalate or deescalate relationships. Relationship escalation means that a person in a relationship engages or persuades the other person to make the relationship more personal, intimate, and meaningful (Cody, Canary, & Smith, 1994; Kunkel, Wilson, Olufowote, & Robson, 2003; S. R. Wilson, Kunkel, Robson, Olufowote, & Soliz, 2009). Relationship deescalation moves in the opposite direction—an effort to create distance in a relationship by decreasing or terminating the relationship (Kunkel et al., 2003; S. R. Wilson et al., 2009). When people escalate relationship, they are responding to fill a need for closer relationships, and they believe that there is "relational profit" (Roloff, 1981, p. 62)

in escalating. As relationships draw closer under escalation, the individuals gain more information about each other, thus allowing each party in the relationship-building process to make predictions about the other person. Roloff suggested that in deescalation, the relationship no longer develops and each party to the exchanged has formed stereotypical expectations of behavior; as a result, exchanging information or self-disclosure becomes less and less, which leads to infrequent interactions. As consequence, the parties would no longer define or redefine their relationship. In building relationships through communication, verbal communication (self-disclosing messages) and nonverbal affiliative behavior (e.g., tone, facial expressions, etc.) becomes the basis of judging the emotional attachment of the relationship and is used as the means to stimulate learning of each other through the exchange of information (Roloff, 1981). During an interaction, when one individual self-discloses to another person, that person would likely reciprocate by self-disclosing. Derlega, Winstead, Wong, and Greenspan (1987) defined self-disclosure as "the process by which one person lets himself or herself be known by another person" (p. 173) and play a major role in the development of personal relationships. In a reciprocal self-disclosure, both parties learn to understand each other.

In Blau's social exchange model, self-disclosure is a form of "relational advertising" (Roloff, 1981, p. 71). Relational advertising is based on the assumption of social attraction or the natural tendency for people to associate with each other for the rewards that they gain by creating an exchange relationship (Roloff, 1981). In order to be socially attractive, self-disclosure (verbal communication) becomes the means to advertise the unique and distinct characteristics that may be valuable to the target individual (e.g., leader or follower). As a result, reciprocal verbal communication is the mechanism by which relationship develops.

Relational Communications Theories

Relational Patterns of Interaction

According to this cybernetic theory of interpersonal communication, people communicate in patterns. A cybernetic theory explains a process or phenomenon as a system of interacting elements influencing each other (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011; Watzlawick, Beavin & Jackson, 1967). Cybernetics is the study of system control processes using information exchange as a controlling mechanism, thus having a regulative function to maintain order, balance, and change (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). The focus of cybernetics within relational systems is on how the system is maintained, modified, and changed by the cycles of influence that emerge from communicative interaction (Littlejohn & Foss, 2009). In communication, two persons interacting is "understood as a system of parts, or variables, that influence one another, shape and control the character of the overall system, and, like any organism achieve both balance and change" (Watzlawick et al., 1967, p. 49). Watzlawick et al. (1967) explained that in a system, objects are people specified by their attributes, and the "attributes by which they are identified are their communicative behaviors" (p. 120). In an interactional system, the focus is not on the objects (people) but on the attribute or "persons-communicating-with-other-persons," thus clarifying the term "relationship" (p. 120) with some precision to mean communicative behaviors tying the system together. Communication goes beyond simple conveyance of information, but it also imposes behavior (Watzlawick et al., 1967). Relational patterns of interaction give rise to the theory of relational control (Littljohn & Foss, 2009).

Relational control theory explains the mutual influencing process of message exchange (L. E. Rogers, 2009). There are two levels of meaning that simultaneously emerge out of the exchange process: content and relational meaning (Littlejohn & Foss, 2009). Content meaning provides referential information of what the message is about, and relational is how the message is taken (Littlejohn & Foss, 2009). In the exchange, content and relational meaning expressed by Person A to Person B is not simply the transmission of information, but the information also guides and directs the behavior of Person B to Person A and other individuals.

Beyond content meaning or the conveyance of information, the ensuing behavior creates a relationship. Watzlawick et al. (1967) referred to this dual dynamic as the "report" (p. 51) aspect of communication, which transmits the content meaning or the referential information of what the message is about, and "command" (p. 51) aspect of communication, which refers to relational meaning or how the message is taken or acted upon in the relationship between the communicants. It is at the relational level that individuals in the exchange self-disclose or offer definitions of self in relation to others, and the ensuing communicative interaction simultaneously coproduce or codefine the patterns that characterize the relationship (Littlejohn & Foss, 2009).

The relational level of meaning creates relational patterns of control that define different types of relationships (Littljohn & Foss, 2009). One pattern is called *symmetrical*—or the pursuit of equality and minimization of differences between communicants or groups—and the other is *complementary*—or the maximization of differences (Watzlawick et al., 1967). For example, an argument is characterized by symmetrical relationship; when one party asserts control the other party responds by asserting control back (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). Littlejohn and Foss suggested that power struggles arise out of symmetrical relationships because the pursuit of equality through communication tends to create a competitive situation (Watzlawick et al., 1967). In complementary relationships, the interaction is characterized by difference, not equality. There are three ways a complementary exchange could occur: *one-up* position, which means that a superior person rejects an assertion and makes a counterassertion; *one-down* position, which means that an inferior person accepts the assertion of the superior person (Watzlawick et al., 1967); and *one-across,* which means that a person does not respond to the assertion with a counterassertion or submission but instead uses avoidance by changing the topic or terminating the interaction (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). LMXs are typically complementary exchanges, while intergroup exchanges tend to follow a competitive symmetry such that the groups are responding similarly, which may lead to a fight for the one-up position. In some instances, a relationship could be one of submissive symmetry (Trenholm, 2011). According to Trenholm (2011), in

a somewhat paradoxical manner, both parties attempt to control by avoiding making decisions but forcing the other to make the decision.

Social Penetration Theory

Another important theory of communication critical to maintaining and developing interpersonal relationships is social penetration theory (Taylor & Altman, 1987). Social penetration theory explains the process of increasing self-disclosure and intimacy in a relationship (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). Increasing self-disclosure is a way of escalating relationships (Roloff, 1981). According to the theory, a person gets to know another by "penetrating" (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011, p. 236) deeper into the more private aspects of another person's identity. It is also known as the "onion theory" (Baack, Fogliaso, & Harris, 2000, p. 40) of personality, which describes the penetration of "layers" (p. 40) of personality in the development of trust as the individuals in a relationship open the layers over time, thus revealing more of oneself. It is a gradual development process that moves from a superficial level to more intimate levels of exchange (Baack et al., 2000; Taylor & Altman, 1987). The progression is based on the assumption in social exchange theory that the motivation in human interaction seeks to maximize reward and minimize cost (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). In social penetration theory, individuals self-disclose when the rewards exceed the costs, thus information gathered in an exchange is used to predict reward and cost outcomes in the future (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). For as long as rewards exceed the cost, the relational interaction progress toward a deeper relationship.

According to Taylor and Altman (1987), there are four stages to the development process: (a) orientation, (b) exploratory affective exchange, (c) affective exchange, and (d) stable exchange. At the orientation stage, self-disclosure is limited to public information about the person. The interaction is superficial, which means that it is shallow, trivial, and peripheral. When the interactive experience at the orientation stage is rewarding to the parties, they expand the communicative interaction at a level that permits previously guarded private information to be revealed in more detail. This stage is the exploratory affective exchange. The relationship at this stage moves from a guarded, cautious,

and tentative interaction to a more relaxed, friendly, and confident relationship. In the affective exchange, the parties to the exchange move toward intimacy. Lastly, at the stable exchange level, the level of intimacy develops to a point that the individuals in the relationship are able to predict how each would act and respond. The extent to which a person self-discloses to another at the different stages has "breadth" (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011, p. 236) and "depth" (p. 236). Breadth refers to different kinds of things about a person, and depth is the level of detail about a particular aspect of the person (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). At the orientation level, breadth and depth are superficial; at later stages, knowledge about a person becomes broader and deeper.

As a theory based on the economic proposition of social exchange theory, social penetration theory suggests that the scope or extent of whether self-disclosure between two inidividuals is broad and narrow and the depth or extent to which self-disclosure is deep or superficial may depend on the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960); that is, the motivation to reciprocate self-disclosure depends on the social reward the person gains in mutual disclosure (Altman, 1973). Taylor and Altman (1987) explained that the norm of reciprocity is the basis for establishing trust and is inversely related to the development stages of social penetration, thus trust determines the breadth and depth of a relationship. At early stages, the social reward resulting from reciprocation leads to the development of trust. Once trust is established, the obligation to reciprocate becomes less and less at later stages of social penetration because the individuals would no longer be motivated by social reward but by breadth and depth of the relationship (Taylor & Altman, 1987). In this model, trust does not develop in a linear exchange but develops in a complex exchange involving periods of stability and change in a dyadic relationship (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011).

Although social penetration theory describes the model of how relationships evolve through the communication process, the interaction suggests a much more complex interaction wherein the exchanges flows in a continuing process of cyclical and dialectical exchanges until trust matures to a level that the quality of the relationship becomes stable and open. In other words, the gradual development

of the relationship in social penetration, therefore, is not linear or unidirectional—that is, moving from privacy to openness—but it develops in a rhythmic cycle of stability and change (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). Littlejohn and Foss (2011) suggested that central to the self-disclosure interaction is the concept of dialectical exchanges. Dialectical exchanges describe the complex nature of the dialogue and how relationships are built as an ongoing process of construction through the exchange of utterances. This is referred to in Bakhtin's theory of dialogics as *dialogism*, which means the relation of one utterance to another utterance (Ewald, 1998).

Bakhtin's Theory of Dialogic

The theory of dialogic explains how communication in the form of dialogue brings order to social life characterized by disorder (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). The centerpiece of this theory is rhetorical in nature. In the rhetorical tradition of communication, *dialectic* contends that there are two sides to a proposition (Richmond & McCroskey, 2009), which suggest a state of tension between two opposing forces. Just as meaning of language creates tensions, it is also language instead of the speakers that becomes the primary mechanism to resolve the tension. The defining element of language is tensionality, which means that dialogue is marked by complementary and contradictory qualities, thus rendering it fluid and dynamic (Stewart, Zediker, & Black, 2004). In Bakhtin's theory of dialogics, language is the primary means to create social order, because it is the means by which people conceive their world through their experience, and expression organizes experience (Schuster, 1998). Language exhibits *centripetal* and *centrifugal* forces that pull human behavior in opposing directions, which creates disorder (centrifugal) but also reestablishes order (centripetal; Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). In human society, centripetal force seeks to "consolidate and homogenize a hierarchy of values and power into authoritative genres, language, institutions, and people" (Middendorf, 1992, p. 206). This conception of centripetal force suggests a movement toward a unified belief system or culture. Centrifugal force on the other hand, is a counterforce that resists the movement of the centripetal force by seeking to destabilize and disperse the tendencies toward consolidation of authoritative and

hierarchical values (Middendorf, 1992). In Bakhtin's theory, the complex interplay of these opposing forces plays out in human discourse through language.

Middendorf (1992) suggested that language connects humans to one another through utterance, transforms their realities and shapes their experiences; as one puts intentions behind utterance, language becomes the driver of behavior. Utterance is at the heart of Bakhtin's theory of dialogics because it is the unit of exchange between humans through the spoken language in context (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). It is in utterance that people expect responsive reciprocity, which Bakhtin referred to as *addressivity* or the anticipation of another viewpoint that causes exchange of utterance (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011).

Although Bakhtin's work is relevant in the study of rhetorical structure between speaker, hero, and listener (Schuster, 1998) and focuses on intertextuality (Ewald, 1998) rather than relational dynamics in communication, Littlejohn and Foss (2011) considered this theory relevant to relationship building. Schuster (1998) explained that all three (speaker, hero, listener) are "fused together in language" (p. 2) in a complex interaction, with semantics shaping the experiences of each element. Middendorf (1992) explained, for Bakhtin, "Without the word, there is not world" (Schuster, 1998, p. 5), and language is fundamental to the creation not only of the self but of the world. The tensionality in Bakhtin's theory is not limited to dyadic voices but is multivocal, or what he referred to as *heteroglossia*, which translates to *many voices* (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011), thus multiple meaning (Baxter, 2004), and individual diversity in a collaborative interaction (Ewald, 1998). Bakhtin's theory suggests that heteroglossia leads to another key concept called *unfinalizability* of the world, because many voices construct the events and context that makes the world complex, open and free, thus constantly changing and in flux (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011), never complete. The theory of dialogics applies dialogue as constitutive, which is a way for heteroglossia or many voices to construct the social world, the person, and personal relationships (Baxter, 2004). In this constitutive nature, dialogue does not deal with abstraction but rather with specificity (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). When people engage in dialogue, they have something specific to talk about, which is in response

to a specific environmental cue or situation, and it involves specific participants (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011).

For example, in an ethnographic study based on interview data among Federal Security Directors on how they perceive their leadership roles in complex situations, Cunliffe and Eriksen (2011) linked Bakhtin's heteroglossia to how these leaders act out their leadership roles. Dialogue is the primary mechanism by which the Federal Security Directors establish relations in organizing and problem solving by creating open dialogue among many people (voices) involved in transportation security (Cunliffe & Eriksen, 2011).

Current studies have shown the utility of using dialogue to explain leadership and organizational phenomena such as constructions of relational leadership (Carroll & Levy, 2010; Cunliffe & Eriksen, 2011; Fairhurst & Grant, 2010; Ford & Lawler, 2007), organizational change (e.g., Barge & Fairhurst, 2008; Bokeno & Gantt, 2000; Heath et al., 2006; Raelin, 2012), and organizational learning (Mazutis & Slawinski, 2008; D. Oliver & Jacobs, 2007; Yeo, 2006). In examining the importance of social construction in leadership development, Carroll and Levy (2010) found that Bakhtin's "polyphonic dialogue" (Cunliffe, 2009, p. 89), which means a struggle of opinions and ideologies of various epochs and unfinalized, incomplete, or unresolved, is a practice capable of "constructing the kind of leadership required for an increasingly complex and uncertain world" (Carroll & Levy, 2010, p. 228). Fairhurst and Grant (2010) suggested that all "roads" (p. 185) to the social construction of leadership lead to "dialogue" (p. 185). Every building block of leadership is connected and built on the communicative practice of dialogue. Upholding the fundamental precept that leadership is relational, one cannot deny communication as a primary rather than a peripheral aspect of the leadership process. The primacy of communication, particularly language and dialogue in relationships, makes leadership a dialectical discourse involving not only the development of the person but relationships between the leader and many within an organization or social group at the dyadic level.

Relational Dialectics Theory

In contrast to the cybernetic tradition that explains relationships as constituted within a system of communication, Baxter (2004) built upon Bakhtin's theory of dialogics by proposing a social constructionist perspective of relational development with dialogue as the center beam or keel that holds everything together. Heavily influenced by Bakhtin, Baxter argued that relationships do not emerge out of a "balanced system of forces" (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011, p. 246), but it is people who "make and manage the many forces that define and shape a relationship" (p. 246) over time. Baxter shifted the focus from systems to people as social entities as the primary source in constructions of social relationships. Thus, people in dialogue create and manage the tensions and contradictions that emerge within a social system in relationship development. Relational dialectics theory argues that relationships develop from different conditions of contradictions, which assumes various forces or "cluster of forces" (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011, p. 247) acting within a dialogue. In this model, dialogue becomes the only means to manage the inherently contradictory and chaotic nature of relationships in heteroglossia (Baxter, 2004).

Baxter (2004) introduced relational dialectics theory as a multidimensional model around five conceptualizations of dialogue. In the first conceptualization, dialogue is viewed as epistemology or constitutive (Baxter & Montgomery, 1996), which means that dialogue is the mechanism by which relationships develop. Dialogue as an epistemological approach views communication as constructively defining self, relationships, and the social world (Baxter, 2004). Similarities and differences are discovered and made over time through talking and conversations between people in a relationship and other people outside of the relationship (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). In dialectical interaction, relationships require similarities between the communicants to sustain coordinated interaction (Baxter, 2004). Baxter referred to this as *chronotopic similarity*, which means the "stockpile of shared time-space experiences that a pair constructs through their joint interaction events over time" (p. 110). According to Baxter, relationships are transformed through chronotopic similarities emerging from mundane

communications individuals in dialogue conduct in everyday relating and other major events.

The second conceptualization views dialogue as a way for people to manage the centripetal and centrifugal forces acting on the relationship. Baxter (2004) referred to this as the dialectical nature of the relationships, which means managing the tension between opposing forces within a system (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). Baxter explained that in managing the tension, those in dialogue must fuse their perspectives to some extent in order to form a unity in conversation through differentiated voices. In relational dialectics, people deal with clusters of tensions. According to Baxter, people experience integration and separation issues, which deal with the feelings of closeness and distance, sense of similarity and difference, or rights versus obligations when in dialogue with others. They also deal with tensions of certainty and uncertainty, which deals with the interplay of past relationships versus present conditions that lead to contradictions of stability and change or the tension between predictability and consistency versus being spontaneous and different. Inherent in dialogue is the tension of expression and nonexpression issues, which are the tension between disclosure and nondisclosure, loyalty versus disloyalty, or idealization versus reality. These clusters of bipolar tensions create a complex dynamic of contradictions that define and redefine relationships (Baxter, 2004). In addition to these clusters of tension, individuals in dialogue deal with other forces that influence the relationship such as the strength of emotions and behaviors (amplitude); focus with past, present, or future (salience); patterns and routine of behaviors (scale); order of the events in relationships (sequence); and pace or rhythm of the relationship (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011).

The third conceptualization views dialogue as a "messy" (Baxter, 2004, p. 118) process involving multidimensional forces contradicting each other rather than a simple centripetal–centrifugal model, and Baxter (2004) referred to this as the "aesthetic" (p. 118) nature of dialogue, which Bakhtin defined as a "momentary sense of unity through a profound respect for the disparate voices of dialogue" (p. 118). It is a momentary feeling of completion, or wholeness, "an aesthetic through

dialogue" (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011, p. 248). The fourth conceptualization is that dialogue is discursive or a discourse, which is conversation that produces practical and aesthetic outcomes (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). Here, Bakhtin used the term utterance or language use, and "utterances are not products of individual cognitive work in which speakers assemble messages responsive to performed goals, needs, and motivation. Instead utterances are jointly constructed by interacting parties" (Baxter, 2004, p. 121). Discourse is the give-and-take interaction in dialogue. The fifth conceptualization uses dialogue as a way to critique dominant voices. Baxter explained that wholeness is never final, absolute, and consistently indeterminate, such that momentary wholeness is made through a "single-voiced discourse" (p. 123) that "obligates response-worthy participation and the articulation of an opposing response" (p. 123). Dialogue as critique of dominant voices challenges closed attitudes about the world in order to bring about a rethinking of traditional approaches to communication and relationships (Baxter & Montgomery, 1996). In other words, instead of the dominant single voice defining the relationship, a dialogic approach recognizes powerful social influences taking place in a reciprocal exchange, thus change emerges out of the communicative moment (Baxter, 2004). Dialogue as critique is bidirectional between multiple voices. It is not a one-way interaction of change, but change is mutually constructed (Baxter, 2004). Dialogue discourse, in this sense, is a never-ending conversation that makes relationships unfinalizable, constantly changing.

The relational theory of dialectics suggests that relationships in leadership and management are connected and built on paradoxes or dialectics of dialogue (e.g., Clegg, Vieira da Cunha, & Pinha e Cunha, 2002; Collinson, 2005; Ford & Lawler, 2007; Zoller & Fairhurst, 2007). This upholds the fundamental precept that leadership is relational, which places the primary of communication as the underlying mechanism of the leadership process. As the mechanism, language and dialogue serves as the structure of building relationships, thus making leadership not only a dialectical discourse but a natural human drive that leads to the development of self-identity or *personhood and relationship* (Cupach & Imahori, 1993) between the leader and follower. In dialogue, people construct relational

identities that define the identity (who) of the group and what the relationship is all about (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). A defining factor in relational identity is the role of cultural differences in shaping the relationship. Strine (2004) stated, "Cultural diversity is an irrefutable condition of contemporary social life, that cultural identity and difference are preconditions rather than consequences of communicative interaction, and that communication properly undertaken leads to a level of understanding that bridges cultural differences" (p. 225). One important assumption in dialectics is that people begin the dialogue from dissimilar perspectives and viewpoints (Holquist, 1990) and through chronotopic similarity achieve momentary wholeness or unity (Baxter, 2004). Thus, relational dialectics is rooted on a communication-centered understanding of language, society, and culture (Strine, 2004).

Statement of the Problem

How leadership naturally occurs is a phenomenon that could not be explained adequately by existing leadership theories, because leadership theories never fully explain how communication, as the central mechanism of relational patterns of interaction (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011), works. To put it differently, leadership theories explain leadership behavior but they do not explain how the leader expresses and conveys the behavior, yet the basis of such expression and conveyance is communicative by nature (Bambacas & Patrickson, 2008, 2009; De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, 2010; Gaines, 2007; Hamrefors, 2010). Thus, Hernandez et al. (2011) argued the need for an integrative theory that looks into the relational mechanism of the leadership process. The mechanism of the leadership process assumes that leadership is relational, and that the focus of the leadership process must shift toward the mechanism by which the leadership relationship develops (Fairhurst & Uhl-Bien, 2012). Hernandez et al. defined mechanism in the leadership context as "the means by which leadership is enacted" (p. 1167). The current study argues that the leadership mechanism is enacted through the leader's communication style. De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, and Oostenveld (2010) defined communication style as a "distinctive set of interpersonal communicative behaviors

geared toward the optimization of hierarchical relationships in order to reach certain group or individual goals" (p. 368). The current study seeks to address this problem by investigating how leadership style is enacted through the leader's communication style, which determines the quality of the leader–member relationship.

De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, and Oostenveld (2010) examined the link between leader communication style and leadership style using a Dutch sample. Although culture may determine leadership style (Den Hartog, House, et al., 1999; House et al., 2002), culture may compound the effect of the leadership process on the quality of relationships when leader communication style is examined using cross-national cultures. As culturally determined variables, the causal relationship between leader communication style and leadership style has yet to be examined using cross-national samples. As the most salient part of culture (Hofstede, 2001), communication stands as the most important cross-cultural leadership skill in establishing good and productive relationships in global organizations (Bueno & Tubs, 2012; Marquardt & Horvath, 2001). Yet, the saliency of communication as a cultural variable in relational development within a leadership process is presumed without the benefit of investigation. This fundamental aspect of leadership, regardless of how leadership is defined by scholars, has been largely treated as peripheral. The current study seeks to address this problem by investigating how the relationship between leadership styles and communication styles differs across two cultures, one individualistic (U.S. subsample) and one collectivist (Philippine subsample).

Purpose of the Study

In the study by De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, and Oostenveld (2010) among employees of the Dutch Ministry of Education on their perceptions of their leaders' communication style, leadership style, and leader outcomes (leader performance, satisfaction with the leader, their level of commitment, and knowledge sharing between leader and follower), charismatic leadership, human oriented-leadership, and task-oriented leadership were found to be significantly related to different

leader communication styles. Relational theories of communication suggest that communication style is also an enacting mechanism in building relationships within a leadership dyad because "any behavior is potentially communicative" (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011, p. 231).

As a human-oriented form of leadership style, transformational leadership theory (Bass & Avolio, 1990, 1994; Burns, 1978) assumes different communication styles compared to transactional leadership, which is a task-oriented leadership style. O'Donnel, Yukl, and Taber (2012) found that transformational leadership predicted LMX. Bhal, Uday Bhaskar, and Venkata Ratman (2009) found that leader communication fully mediated the relationship between dimensions of LMX and employee affective, cognitive, and behavioral reactions, suggesting a linkage between leader communication style and LMX outcomes. Thus, social exchange theory (Blau, 1986) assumes that communication style is central to reciprocal behavior within a LMX relationship. The current study links the following theories: (a) transformational and transactional leadership, (b) relational theory of communication, and (c) LMX theory.

The purpose of this quantitative study is to examine the relationship between leadership style (transformational/transactional), leader communication styles, and effect of leader communication style on the quality of LMX relationship controlling for age, education, gender, position, length of employment, and nationality among employees in the financial industry drawn in the United States (U.S.) and the Philippines (RP). Specifically, the study examines the mediating effect of leader communication style as perceived by the follower on leadership style and whether the leader communication style, more than leader style, would predict the quality of the LMX relationship. In addition, the current study examines the effect of culture on leadership style and leader communication style by comparing differences between the U.S. subsample and RP subsample. Figure 1 shows the general model of the linear relationships of the theoretical linkages. In this model, the leadership process is examined as a communicative process in which communication style serves as the relationship-building mechanism.
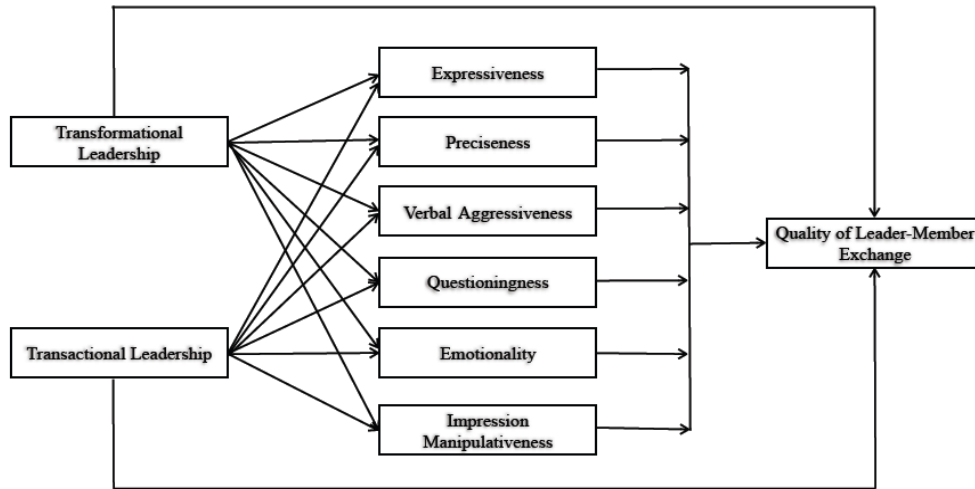
Figure 1: Leadership process enacted through communication style. In this model, leadership is a communicative process showing leadership style enacted through the leader's communication style, which determines the quality of the LMX relationship.

Objectives of the Study

The current study has three objectives. First is to examine the role of leader communication style as the primary and central mechanism in building quality relationships between the leader and follower, second is to examine the effect of culture on the hypothesized model, and third is the instrument validation of the Leader Communication Style Inventory. To achieve the first objective, the current study builds on the study of De Vries, Bakkerj-Pieper, and Oostenveld (2010) on the relationship between leadership styles and leader communication styles and effect of these factors on organizational outcomes by examining (a) the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership styles and leader communications styles and (b) how leader communication styles determine the quality of the LMX relationship between a transformational or transactional leader and a follower. To achieve the second objective, the current study compares

differences between a sample drawn in the United States and a sample drawn in the Philippines among employees of financial organizations. De Vries and colleagues (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, 2010; De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Konings, & Schouten, 2011; De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Siberg, van Gameren, & Vlug, 2009, 2013) developed and examined the dimensionality of the Communication Style Inventory (CSI) in relation to personality to measure leader communication styles based on follower perceptions. A third objective of the current study is to validate the CSI as a reliable and valid measure of leader communication style.

Significance of the Study

The current study is significant because it will fill a critical gap in leadership research by elevating the importance and prominence of leader communication styles as the primary and central enacting mechanism of building relationships in the leadership process. The study will also establish leader communication styles as a primary predictor of the quality of dyadic relationship between the leader and follower and contribute to the understanding of the leadership processes as a relational phenomenon. Equally important is that the findings of this study will advance the concept of leadership as a communicative process and the role that communication styles play in leader and follower development. The findings of this study will establish an empirical basis to further study leadership as a communicative process, particularly a dialogic discourse, within a quantitative–qualitative mixed-method model by using the results of this empirical investigation to go deeper into the qualitative aspect of communication styles. In so doing, the results may lead to a communicative theory of leadership based on the assumption that all relationships are built on communication.

In terms of practice, the current study provides an empirical basis to place leader communication style and the importance of dialogic discourse as a primary contextual factor in any organizational development efforts, particularly in leader and follower development. It is also a significant addition to organizational communication audits as it focuses the diagnosis to a critical leader skill that promotes quality relationships, which in turn promotes other follower outcomes

(e.g., organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors, motivation, productivity, satisfaction). As stated previously, communication is the most important leadership skill in cross-cultural leadership.

Scope and Limitations of the Study

As in all quantitative research, the research design limits the scope of the current study to the variables being investigated. Unlike qualitative approaches, where the researcher is permitted to observe and draw subjective interpretations of the observed phenomenon (Creswell, 2009; Patton, 2002) and permit the data to lead the researcher, quantitative designs proceed from theory, and data analyses and interpretation are constrained by theory. Thus, the current study is limited to investigating (a) leadership style, (b) leader communication styles, and (c) quality of LMX relationship. Although methods in data analyses have evolved into more complex techniques (e.g., structural equation modeling) for rigorous data interpretation, multiple regression method investigates linear relationships, which limits and narrows the applicability of the results. As a consequence, casual inferences are limited to the variables under investigation, and the results may apply only to the specific content area of the investigation. Sampling frame also limits the generalizability of the current study to respondents within the financial industry (e.g., banks, insurance companies). Another limitation is that the current study is cross-sectional. Given that relationships are dynamic and vary over time, a cross-sectional method of data collection and analyses will not account for variations in the variables under investigation, thus limiting any statistically valid inferences (Bowen & Wiersema, 1999).

A secondary objective of the current study is to examine differences that may be influenced by culture. A significant limitation of quantitative studies using survey-based instruments in a cross-cultural setting is that it only measures individual perceptions of the specific variables under investigation, which is not the same as measuring values (Watkins, 2010). The current study only assumes that there are differences in cultural values between the subsamples and that the assumed differences are reflected in their perceptions of the variables under

investigation. Watkins (2010) suggested that cultural values are best measured by qualitative approaches because cultural values are influenced by many factors (e.g., geography, climate, politics, religion, and history), which makes it abstract, subjective, and personal and difficult to measure. Thus, any cultural inference drawn from the results of the current study is limited to perceptual responses at the individual level.

Definition of Terms

A critical aspect in research is the definition of key terms relevant to the study. Terms may be easily understood as part of common language, but the difficulty in using common terms is that many are not easily defined. In quantitative research, defining key terms at the beginning of the study aids in the understanding of the causal model.

Relationship. Relationship is a unique connection between two people within a social order resulting from interactional patterns involving the back-and-forth of responsive behaviors, which is dynamic in nature (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). A relationship is constantly changing as a result of changes in the people engaged in the interaction, and when conditions change that lead to adaptive responses (Yukl, 2010).

Communication. The many dimensions of communication make this term hard to define (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). In the current study, the definition proceeds from the relational theory of communication, which defines communication as relational patterns of interaction (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). Thus, it is the mechanism by which relationships are built and leadership process enacted.

Mechanism. Within the leadership process, mechanism refers to the actual process by which leadership exerts influence, thus mechanism is the means by which leadership is enacted or transmitted (Hernandez et al., 2011). This definition suggests the presence of a process that functions to produce a certain output or outcome. In the current study, this mechanism is referred to as communication styles.

Communication styles. De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Siberg, et al. (2009) defined communication style as the

> characteristic way a person sends verbal, paraverbal, and nonverbal signals in social interactions denoting (a) who he or she is or wants to (appear to) be, (b) how he or she tends to relate to people with whom he or she interacts, and (c) in what way his or her messages should usually be interpreted. (p. 179)

The interaction facilitates the interpretation of the literal meaning of what was conveyed (Norton, 1983). Based on a lexical study, De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Siberg, et al. identified six communication styles as follows:

Expressiveness. This is a communicative behavior referring to a person who is talkative, dominates conversations, humorous, and informal.

Preciseness. This is a communicative behavior referring to a person whose communication behavior is structured, thoughtful, substantive, and concise.

Verbal aggressiveness. This is a communicative behavior that describes being angry, authoritarian, being derogatory, and nonsupportive.

Questioningness. This is a person who is questioning is unconventional, philosophical, inquisitive, and argumentative in communicating.

Emotionality. This communicative behavior refers to a person who is sentimental, worrisome, tense, and defensive.

Impression manipulativeness. This communicative behavior describes a person who uses ingratiation, charm, concealment, and inscrutableness in his or her communication.

Organization of the Study

The current study is a quantitative investigation. In the introduction, the importance of communication as the relationship building or enacting mechanism of the leadership process and how it may be related to the quality of the dyadic relationship was discussed. Leadership was briefly defined as a relationship. Based on the proposition that leadership is enacted through leader communication, the sociopsychological, communication, and cultural theories relevant to the

ontological and epistemological rationale of the study were reviewed. In Chapter 2, the literature review is presented on transformational and transactional leadership styles in relation to communication, communication in relation to LMX relationships, and transformational and transactional leadership styles in relation to LMX relationship. On the basis of the literature review, hypotheses are developed and presented at the end of Chapter 2. Chapter 3 discusses the methodological approach in testing the hypotheses. Chapter 4 presents the statistical results, and chapter 5 discusses the results in the context of the theoretical foundations of the study.

Summary

Based on the proposition that the leadership process is relational, the current study argues that leader communication style is the primary and central enacting mechanism of the leadership process. Thus, the quality of the relationships may depend on leader communication style. However, the problem is that current leadership theories do not adequately explain the leadership process because communication as the expression of leader behavior is treated as a peripheral aspect of the leadership process, even though the leadership process is communicative in nature. The current study addresses this problem by investigating how leadership style is enacted through the leader's communication style, which in turn determines the quality of the leader–member relationship. The purpose of this quantitative study is to examine these relationships within a mediated model controlling for age, education, gender, position, length of employment, and nationality among employees drawn from domestic bank organizations in the United States and the Philippines. In addition, the current study examines the effect of culture by comparing differences between the U.S. subsample and RP subsample. The current study fills a critical gap by focusing on communication as the enactive mechanism of the leadership process, advances communication as a primary predictor of quality relationships, and lays the foundation for a communicative theory of leadership.

Chapter 2 – Literature Review

Following a deductive approach to the current investigation, it is necessary to establish the theoretical basis for the research hypotheses presented at the end of the chapter by reviewing the literature. Creswell (2009) stated that reviewing the literature serves the following purposes: (a) it shares the results of other studies that relate to the current study, (b) it provides a framework for establishing the importance of the current study, and (c) it provides a benchmark for comparing the results of the current study with other findings. This chapter reviews the literature on transformational leadership as it relates to charismatic rhetoric and impression management tactics, transactional leadership as it relates to communication styles, leadership communication styles as it relates to leadership style and personality and rhetorical strategies, leader–member (LMX) exchange relationships in relation to communication, impression management, and language. Cultural theories are also reviewed relevant to communication. Each section ends with research hypotheses.

Transformational Leadership

Burns (1978) developed categories of leaders as transformational or transactional from a political perspective. Transformational leaders are the intellectuals, reformers, revolutionaries, heroes, and ideologues (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 2010). Transactional leaders are bureaucrats and politicians whose motives are purely self-serving, such as jobs for votes or jobs based on political affiliations. Burns recognized the relevance of follower transformation as a distinct outcome of transformational leadership. According to Burns, transformational leaders mutually stimulate and elevate in a way "that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents" (Bass, 1990, p. 23). Transformational leaders motivate followers by making them aware of the importance of their work and inducing them to transcend self-interest for organizational interest through the activation of their higher-order needs of self-esteem and self-actualization (Yukl, 2010). Transformational leaders accomplish these follower outcomes through articulation and role modeling (Bass, 1990).

Bass (1985) and Bass and Avolio (1990, 1997, 1998) expanded on the original conceptualization of these leadership styles by formally introducing a theory that identified four measureable behavioral dimensions of transformational leadership: (a) idealized influence, (b) individualized consideration, (c) intellectual stimulation, and (d) inspirational motivation. Idealized influence refers to role modeling trustworthiness, dependability, self-sacrifice, courage in risk taking, sharing risks, and dedication that followers' desire to emulate. In role modeling these behaviors, the leader arouses strong follower emotions and identification and admiration and respect for the leader. Demonstrating concern for the needs of followers shows leader dependability to do the right thing by acting ethically and showing consistency in moral conduct. Individualized consideration refers to the special attention given by the leader to individual follower needs in fulfilling self-esteem and self-actualization needs through achievement and growth. Listening is an essential skill of an individually considerate leader. A leader who is individually considerate is a good coach and mentor to individual followers. Thus, two-way communication exchange is the mechanism to motivate individual follower learning, individual growth, and achievement, because it is through dialogue that the leader learns of the needs and concerns of the follower. Dialogue interactions with followers are "personalized" (Bass & Avolio, 1998, p. 137) leading to the deeper development of trust and relationship. Intellectual stimulation is the pursuit of novel and creative ways of addressing old problems. Transformational leaders encourage creativity openly, avoid public criticism of mistakes, do not criticize ideas, and accept all ideas regardless of differences with the ideas of the leader (Bass & Avolio, 1998). Bass and Avolio (1998) suggested that transformational leaders actively seek innovative solutions by questioning assumptions, reframing problems, and approaching old situations in novel ways. Leader communication plays a central role in stimulating creativity and motivating followers to confidently share novel, creative, and innovative ideas with the leader. Inspirational motivation seeks to inspire follower enthusiasm, team spirit, and optimism in their work by clearly articulating expectations that appeal to the follower's drive to achieve. Inspiring the higher-order needs of followers depends on a communication of

attractive future states or creating a shared vision of a future state desirable to followers.

The four behavioral dimensions of transformational leadership suggest that it is a relations-oriented leadership approach. The focus is on the mutual development of the leader and follower toward higher levels of morality and motivation (Burns, 1978). According to Burns (1978), the relationship between leader and follower ultimately raises the level of human conduct and ethical aspirations, which has a transformative effect on both. Kovjanic, Schuh, Jonas, Van Quaquebeke, and Van Dick (2012) alluded to the relational nature of transformational leadership by testing the relationship between satisfaction of the need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness as predicted by transformational leadership on follower job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and affective commitment. The findings of the study confirm significant relationships between transformational leadership and higher-level need satisfaction, and the satisfaction of these needs suggested higher levels of employee motivation as indicated by significant effects on employee outcomes. More importantly, the implications of this study suggest that fulfilling the needs of individuals for personal growth depends on the development of a relationship between the leader and follower. The behavioral dimensions of transformational leadership place the emphasis of leadership on interpersonal development, but the process itself involves transactional interaction at the initial stages of the relationship but eventually fuses toward mutual support (Burns, 1978).

Transformational leadership has been widely studied in relation to many organization and leadership outcomes such as knowledge creation (e.g., Carmelli, Atwater, & Levi, 2011; Tse & Mitchell, 2010), creativity and innovation (e.g., M. F. Cheung & Wong, 2011; Garcia-Morales, Matias-Reche, & Hurtado-Torres, 2008; J. Lee, 2008), organizational commitment (e.g., Dimaculangan & Aguiling, 2012; Ismail, Mohamed, Sulaiman, Mohamad, & Yusuf, 2011), organizational citizenship behaviors (e.g., Jiao, Richards, & Zhang, 2011; U. H. Lee, Kim, & Kim, 2013), and teams and virtual teams (e.g., Mannheim & Halamish, 2008; Mitchell & Boyle, 2009). Although the preponderance of studies in transformational

leadership focuses on outcomes and effect, the role and importance of communication is an undeniable factor in the transformational leadership process. Kotter (1995) drew attention and highlighted the criticality of communication in transformation by suggesting that the failure of leader transformative efforts are largely failures in communication such as the failure to communicate a sense of urgency, powerful vision, inspirational goals and achievements that would motivate others to act on the vision, failures in conveying recognitions and rewards, communicating the need for radical change, and articulating the connections between the new behaviors and corporate success. Studies linking transformational leadership and communication have examined the role of rhetoric as a salient communicative behavior of charisma (e.g., Conger, 1991; Den Hartog & Verbug, 1997; Shamir, Arthur, & House, 1994). Charisma is a defining attribute of transformational leaders (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1997), and rhetoric plays an important role in impression management strategies (Gardner & Cleavenger, 1998).

Charismatic Rhetoric and Transformational Leadership

Scholars have used transformational and charismatic terms interchangeably on the basis of similarities as inspirational behaviors, yet there are distinct differences (Yukl, 2010) on behavioral dimensions (Conger, Kanungo, Menon, & Mathur, 1997). The attribution of charisma on transformational leadership results from followers' personal identification with the leader, which emerges from the leader's idealized influence behavior (Yukl, 2010) and visionary leadership expressed in inspirational motivation (Bass, 1985, 1990, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 1990, 1994). Bass (1990) stated that charisma is the "most general and important component of the larger concept of transformational leadership" (p. 199), thus a "necessary ingredient of transformational leadership but by itself it is not sufficient to account for the transformational process" (Bass, 1985, p. 31). As a major component of transformational leadership, charismatic rhetoric involving symbols, slogans, imagery, and metaphors are typical communicative behaviors a transformational leader uses to inspire and elevate the level of commitment of followers (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Yukl, 2010). Rhetoric is the ability of a person to persuade others to "accept new ideas and undertake some specific

activities" (Bonet & Sauquet, 2010, p. 121). In an experimental design using manipulated speech content analysis, Sidani (2007) found that leader speeches using good rhetorical devises, such as metaphors (Conger, 1991), lead to higher levels of attributed transformational abilities, such as charisma.

Amernic, Craig, and Tourish (2007) examined language use as interpretative frame to construct the persona and ideology of exemplary transformational leadership. Five metaphors describe an exemplary transformational leader: (a) a pedagogue, (b) a physician, (c) social architect, (d) a commander, and (e) a saint. As a pedagogue, a transformational leader is a teacher who uses stories about his or her organization and from the stories relate certain values and meanings that make the organization truly exceptional and worth every effort of exceptional performance. As a physician, a transformational leader knows how to diagnose the health of the organization and prescribe aggressive and the latest remedies not only to cure poor performance but also to revitalize with innovative solutions. As a social architect, a transformational leader challenges the members of the organization to keep improving by encouraging *upheavals* and *renewal* such that there is a constant *revolution* involving *demolition* and *reconstruction* of ideas on the plans of the master architect (Amernic et al., 2007). As a commander, a transformational leader is competitive, a risk taker, bold, disciplined, and has a clear strategy to strengthen, develop, and revitalize the organization. Lastly, as a saint, a transformational leader exudes compassion, empowers others toward creativity and ambition, avoids temptations of power and money, and, more importantly, has an unfailing commitment to integrity and ethical behavior. In all five metaphors, the use of rhetoric is an attempt to exercise control over the process of identity formation of the wider organization, which is essential to the consolidation of a leader's persona of charisma and transformational terms (Amernic et al., 2007).

Transformational leaders who use symbols, narratives, and metaphor as rhetorical approaches tend to reflect an epideictic form of rhetoric, which is a celebrative or ceremonial form of verbal action that draws attention to the speaker's public discursive abilities by way of praise or blame (Amernic et al., 2007; Bonet

& Sauquet, 2010). In the case study of Amernic et al. (2007), the epideictic form of praising or blaming used by the subject transformational leader was to draw attention on the achievements (praise) of the organization rather than on him or her, which creates a persuasive image of corporate success that represents an inspiring reality. Sheard (1996) suggested that epideictic rhetoric promotes social identification and conformity because it functions as a confirmation and adherence to commonly held values of a community with the goal of sustaining that community. Epideictic rhetoric is a way to address fundamental values and beliefs that make collective action possible because the public nature of the discourse creates exclusively deliberative arenas that serve as the "crucible in which people constitute and validate their tradition" (Hauser, 1999, p. 18). Emphasizing the important role that epideictic rhetoric plays in fostering values and beliefs, Summers (2001) stated,

> Epideictic rhetoric, most frequently defined as the persuasive use of praise or blame, plays a central role in negotiating values and belief. Praise and blame are frequently used to define acceptable and unacceptable ways of acting, speaking, or thinking with a culture. Epideictic discourse can intensify the audience's adherence to selected values, fostering the adoption of an attitude . . . and increasing the audience's disposition to act in accordance with those values. Thus, examples of epideictic rhetoric are a primary discursive site for negotiating the values that inform decision-making and orient actions within a culture; they are also involved in constructing both individual subjectivity and social attitudes and beliefs. At the same time, epideictic rhetoric attempts to reduce opportunities for opposition or debate by masking itself as simple praise or blame and by assuming that the rhetor and the audience are already in agreement. (p. 263)

In organizations, Amernic et al. suggested that a transformational leader is the person who creates this public sphere through epideictic rhetoric in order to define the values and beliefs of innovation and creativity as a way to validate organizational traditions of success. Epideictic rhetoric is intended to influence the beliefs and values of the intended target of the discourse (Sheard, 1996), such as

members of the organization. The inspiring reality created by a transformational leader through epideictic rhetoric may lead to the attribution of charisma. Bryman (1992) suggested that although charisma and arousing rhetorical skills are mutually exclusive, where one could be charismatic without being oratorically exceptional, the ability to capture an audience is important in the social formation of charisma.

In exploring the rhetoric of charismatic leaders, Den Hartog and Verbug (1997) suggested that charismatic speeches take the epideictic form. According to these authors, the content themes in speeches relate to the nature and content of the vision containing positive references (praises) to followers' worth and efficacy as individuals and as a collective, references to values and moral justifications, references to hope and faith, and collective history and identity. Thus, the communication style of a charismatic leader may tend to be nonverbally emotionally expressive (Den Hartog & Vergug, 1997). Emotional expressivity is an expression of charisma defined as basic nonverbal expression of emotions through facial expressions, tone of voice and other paralinguistic cues, and posture/body movements (Riggio, 1992).

Groves (2006) found that emotional expressivity was significantly predictive of visionary leadership. Emotional expressivity enhances a leader's ability to influence the mindsets of organizational members toward change by powerfully articulating a deficient status quo and inspiring vision, combined with communicating to followers a sense of ownership of the vision, and demonstrating confidence in the abilities of followers to realize the vision (Groves, 2006). Groves concluded that the powerful effects of visionary leadership, which is also a characteristic of transformational (Bass, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 1994) and charismatic (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993) leadership, appear to depend heavily on nonverbal communication skills such as emotional expressivity.

Holladay and Coombs (1994) suggested that the communicative style reflecting the dimensions of charisma are friendliness, attentiveness, dominance, and reflectiveness. De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, and Oostenveld (2010) differentiated the communication style of charismatic–transformational leaders as assuring,

supportive, argumentative, precise, and verbally nonaggressive in a regression model, but expressiveness failed to explain any incremental variance in charismatic leadership. Although expressiveness and charisma are significantly correlated in a bivariate model, the lack of predictive effect in the regression model confirms that a transformational leader may be attributed charisma without being oratorically exceptional (Bryman, 1992) or expressive. While expressivity may be predictive of visionary leadership, it may not necessarily be predictive of charisma and transformational leadership although the articulation or expression of vision is a dimension of both leadership approaches. Thus, lexical expressivity (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, 2010) and charismatic expressivity (Bryman, 1992) are distinct forms of communicative behavior and may explain why the study of De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, and Oostenveld did not find a significant relationship between expressivity and charismatic leadership style. In the lexical context of De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, and Oostenveld, expressivity is verbal expression (e.g., talkativeness, humor, dominance, informality), while charismatic expressivity is nonverbal expression of emotions (Riggio, 1992). While charismatic expressivity may be positively linked to transformational leadership, lexical expressivity may not (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, 2010). Intuitively, verbal aggressiveness and questioningness, which involves being argumentative (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, 2010), would be negatively related to transformational leadership. Thus, the current study seeks to test the following hypotheses:

H_1^a: Transformational leadership style is negatively related to the lexical leader communication style of expressiveness.

H_1^b: Transformational leadership style is negatively related to the lexical leader communication style of verbal aggressiveness.

H_1^c: Transformational leadership style is negatively related to the leader communication style of questioningness.

Impression Management and Transformational Leadership

A leader's rhetoric may not always lead to the attribution of charisma or transformational qualities, but it is a means to influence follower perceptions about

the leader. Thus, leader rhetoric is a form of impression management intended to influence follower attribution of leadership qualities such as charisma and transformational leadership (Gardner & Cleavenger, 1998). DuBrin (2011) stated, "Charisma is based on perceptions, and perceptions of others are based on the impression they create" (p. 170). Yukl (2010) defined impression management as "the process of influencing how others perceive you" (p. 136). It is a form of "social bias" (Merkl-Davies, Brennan, & McLeay, 2011, p. 316) involving the control and manipulation of attributions or impression (DuBrin, 2011; Tedeschi & Riess, 1981). DuBrin stated that controlling impression means managing, shaping, and adjusting behavior in order to create a positive impression to attain individual goals in the workplace. Metts and Grohskopf (2003) stated that impression management "elicits favorable attributions that in turn promote satisfying interactions, social affiliations, and tangible rewards in the form of job success and promotion" (p. 357).

Gardner and Cleavenger (1998) and DuBrin (2011) explained the five dimensions of impression management identified by Jones and Pittman's (1982) taxonomy on self-presentational strategies: (a) ingratiation, (b) self-promotion, (c) exemplification, (d) supplication, and (e) intimidation. The communicative style of ingratiation is the use of flattery in order to be viewed as likeable. Flattery may come in the form of frequently complementing an influential colleague. The communicative style of self-promotion is boastfulness in order to be viewed as highly competent. Taking credit for a noteworthy accomplishment is a direct but subtle way of boasting. Exemplification is a nonverbal demonstration of dedication to make an impression upon superiors or making self-sacrifices to make an impression upon followers (Yukl, 2010). The typical rhetoric associated with exemplification is speaking to other members of the organization about ethical values. Thus, the leader is attempting to present himself or herself as morally worthy of emulation. In supplication, an individual would project weakness by openly admitting or broadcasting weaknesses to gain sympathy and favor in order to be viewed as in need of help or assistance. The sense of helplessness in supplication is playing ignorance in order to get help in performing a difficult task

assignment. Lastly, the self-presentation strategy of intimidation is the use of threats in order to arouse fear and convey coercive power. Public humiliation of poor performance is also a form of intimidation to impress power to inflict pain or hardship on others.

Gardner and Cleavenger (1998) examined the relationship between transformational leadership and impression management tactics. These authors found that exemplification and ingratiation are predictive of all dimensions of transformational leadership except inspirational motivation, which is the dimension involving the expression of vision. These findings suggest that leaders who engage in exemplification tactics are perceived as and attributed with charisma, idealism, intellectually stimulating, and considerate (Gardner & Cleavenger, 1998) but may not be perceived as visionary or rhetorically exceptional. Drawing upon the findings of De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, and Oostenveld (2010), the communication style of transformational and charismatic leaders may fit an impression manipulation approach through exemplification and ingratiation.

Gardner (2003) conducted an experiment to explore the extent to which a hypothetical leader who uses exemplification but also deception, defined as a leader who is "morally flexible" (a pragmatist; p. 504), would be perceived as charismatic. The results of the experiment failed to support a significant relationship between exemplary contents (e.g., descriptions of being honest and fair, practical and pragmatic, and flexible and adaptable) and honest reputation treatments (e.g., distorting facts, manipulating data, and stretching the truth) to the attribution of charisma and between reputation for honesty and higher levels of perceived leader charisma. However, Gardner found that strong delivery of exemplification (e.g., emotional expressivity, expressed enthusiasm, clear articulation of words, speaks directly to audience in a dynamic fashion, etc.) resulted in high levels of perceived charisma compared to pragmatism.

Sosik and Jung (2003) suggested that the attribution of charisma or transformational leadership is largely a communication effort: "Impression management is integral to the dramatic verbal and nonverbal forms of communication charismatic leaders use" (p. 234) to build an image of being

extraordinary and inspirational. Bass (1999) suggested that transformational leaders who are charismatic use impression management to communicate self-confidence, favorable perceptions, ideology, goals and standards, and follower roles in "ideological" (p. 543) terms. The reference to ideology suggests that impression management through charismatic image targets an ideological change or change in the beliefs of followers in order to be perceived as transformative. Sosik and Jung found that charismatic leaders use prosocial forms of impression management more frequently, such as exemplification, as the most typical and often used tactic followed by ingratiation and lower levels of intimidation, self-promotion, and supplication. Consistent with the rhetorical form charismatic and transformational leaders use, one could expect emotional expressivity and impression manipulation communication style (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, 2010) as a typical exemplification behavior employed in exemplary image creation or self-presentation. Neufeld et al. (2010) suggested that verbal and nonverbal communication of transformational leaders, such as exemplification and ingratiation (Gardner & Cleavenger, 1998), is even more important than strong leadership conviction by stating that transformational leaders "must also act on those convictions through effective communication" (p. 241) because apart from communicative expression or conveyance of convictions, leadership is essentially irrelevant or meaningless.

Proceeding from the assumption that leader communication styles of transformational leaders is integral to impression management through exemplification (Sosik & Jung, 2003), which involves the clear articulation of words (Gardner & Cleavenger, 1998), the current study argues that transformational leadership would be positively related to the lexical communication style of preciseness (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, 2010). Impression management involves the attribution of extraordinary and inspirational characteristics such as charisma (Sosik & Jung, 2003), thus transformational leadership may have a positive link to the lexical communication style of emotionality. Extending the findings of De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, and Oostenveld (2010) that the lexical leader communication style of impression

manipulativeness predicted charismatic leadership, the current study argues that impression manipulativeness will have a positive relationship with transformational leadership. Thus, the current study seeks to test the following hypotheses:

H_1^d: Transformational leadership style is positively related to the lexical leader communication style of preciseness.

H_1^e: Transformational leadership style is positively related to the lexical leader communication style of emotionality.

H_1^f: Transformational leadership style is positively related to the lexical leader communication style of impression manipulativeness.

Transactional Leadership

The distinction between transformational and transactional leadership is where the leader focuses his or her leader behavior. While transformational leadership is a relations-oriented approach focusing on the person, transactional leadership is a task-oriented approach focusing on temporal relationships on the basis of task performance. Transactional leadership assumes a contractual exchange, where the success of the relationship depends on an economic or psychological exchange of what is valuable to both the leader and follower (Burns, 1978). In contrast to an enduring relationship between a transformational leader and his or her follower, the exchange relationship between a transactional leader and his or her follower does not extend beyond the fulfillment of the exchange. Once the purpose of exchange is consummated, the relationship ends (Burns, 1978); thus, gaining a reward or avoiding punishments are the primary motivators in a transactional exchange. In transactional leadership, when the follower performs adequately, he or she may be rewarded; but when performance is inadequate, he or she may be punished (Bass & Avolio, 1997).

Bass and Avolio (1990, 1997, 1998) advanced this leadership concept by identifying three behavior dimensions to measure transactional leadership: (a) contingent reward, (b) active management by exception, and (c) passive management by exception. Contingent rewards induce behavior by offering rewards. The leader clarifies work requirements to followers with incentives of

rewards and grant rewards for the satisfactory performance of the work requirements (Yukl, 2010). Management by exception is either active or passive. In active management, the leader actively monitors deviances from standards and work requirements by applying preventive measures before mistakes and errors occur (Bass & Avolio, 1997). One way to actively prevent deviances is to enforce and monitor compliance with rules and regulations (Yukl, 2010). In active management, transactional leadership would apply corrective measures such as training, thus preventive. In contrast, passive management is a reactive approach to transactional management by addressing deviances after the mistakes and errors occur. Punishment is a corrective measure to prevent future occurrences of the mistakes or errors and unsatisfactory or deviant performance.

Wei, Yuan, and Di (2010) conducted a study that examined how transactional leadership constrains individual and team creative performance. These authors suggested that the controlling nature of transactional leadership, which is necessary in order to avoid risks, optimize time and efficiency, and control performance and content of the work requirements, are destructive to subordinates' creative performance. Liu, Liu, and Zeng (2011) also found that transactional leadership style depresses team innovativeness when emotional labor, which means that the management of emotions is a job requirement, is high. In other words, when the requirement for emotional labor is high, individual members of the work group have to control their emotions because it is important enough that pay and benefits depend on it. As a consequence, individual creativity as a function of autonomy and freedom (Amabile, 1996) are suppressed, thus depressing team innovativeness. These studies show that the focus of transactional leadership is not relations-oriented but more on controlling task as the primary means to achieve performance outcomes.

Transactional leadership takes on a different form of dialogic discourse because the emphasis is not on relational building but on behavioral compliance, thus communication may be more direct, unambiguous, and less contextual on task performance. J. Lee (2008) found that transactional leadership has no significant association with any dimensions of LMX other than a negative and inverse

relationship with loyalty and innovativeness. Yrle, Hartman, and Gale (2002) found a significant relationship between high LMX and high communication quality as reported by subordinates. This study suggests that low LMX would relate to low communication quality. Given that transactional leadership would not lead to high LMX, as suggested by J. Lee, the quality of communication in transactional leadership would be different compared to transformational leadership.

Gardner and Cleavenger (1998) found that exemplification predicted transactional contingent reward leadership, which suggests that transactional leaders may demonstrate some self-sacrifice to show that dedication and hard work leads to rewards. As a dimension of transactional leadership, contingent reward focuses on rewarding good performance, thus transactional leaders tend to encourage followers to perform well because their performance is contingent on expectations of rewards (Bass, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1990). Transactional leaders are more task-oriented than relational because the basis of rewards and punishments are on the successful completion of tasks (Whittington, Coker, Goodwin, Ickes, & Murray, 2009). Whittington et al. (2009) stated that in transactional leadership, the

> exchanges are based on the leader identifying performance requirements and clarifying the conditions under which rewards are available for meeting these requirements, and the goal is to enter into a mutually beneficial exchange, but not necessarily to develop enduring relationships. (p. 1861)

Neufeld et al. (2010) found that communication effectiveness applies to transactional contingent reward leadership. De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, and Oostenveld (2010) suggested that the communication style of task-oriented leadership approaches tend to be more assuring, precise, and with some level of verbal aggressiveness.

The emphasis on task or performance requirements and goals achievement suggests that the communication style of transactional leaders differ from transformational leadership. Ewen et al. (2013) examined the relationship between leader political skill and transactional leadership. Ewen et al. found that political skill predicted the contingent reward dimension of transactional leadership and

showed a significant mediating effect on leader effectiveness. Political skills tend to rely heavily on rhetorical strategies to shape and influence followers (Dewan & Myatt, 2012). Dewan and Myatt (2012) suggested that political actors consider choices between speaking "clearly as her natural abilities allow, or alternatively, she may obfuscate" (p. 432) as well as the length of time for which the leader speaks. These authors argued that through the endogenous manipulation of rhetorical strategy, a leader frames how followers react and increases the leader's political influence and, indirectly, that of other leaders. As a mediator between leader political skill and follower perception of leader effectiveness, Ewen et al. (2013) suggested that transactional leaders would choose to be assuring and precise (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, 2010) and clearly communicate rather than obfuscate in rhetorical strategy in order to influence follower perception and reaction to the leader (Dewan & Myatt, 2012).

Du, Swaen, Lindgreen, and Sen (2013) examined the moderating role of transactional leadership style on the relationship corporate social responsibility (CSR) and organizational outcomes. Organizational outcomes are improving relationships with the environment (e.g., people in the community), improving relations with stakeholders, improving corporate image and reputation, and gaining national and international visibility (Du et al., 2013). These authors found that transactional leadership amplifies the impact of a leader's CSR behavior on organizational outcomes more than transformational leadership. A surprising finding in the study is that transformational leadership diminishes the positive impact of CRS on organizational outcomes. Du et al. suggested that the articulation of clear CSR-related task goals and explicit agreements regarding rewards to organizational members in pursuing CSR-related task goals enhance societal welfare, which enhances the credibility of the firm with its stakeholders and society (Godfrey, Merrill, & Hansen, 2009). In other words, rhetorical strategies of impression manipulation (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, 2010), which is more pronounced in transformational leadership, would be less effective in building relationships through CSR because stakeholders and the community expect the articulation of clear, assured, and precise CSR-related goals, which is the

communication style associated with transactional leadership (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, 2010).

Proceeding from the studies of Ewan et al. (2013) and De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, and Oostenveld (2010) that transactional leaders may prefer certain communication styles such as preciseness, precision, clarity, and assuring forms of communication rather than the rhetorical strategy of obfuscation in order to influence follower perception and reaction to the leader (Dewan & Myatt, 2012), the current study argues that transactional leadership will be positively related to the lexical leader communication style of preciseness. Given that dominance is a facet of the lexical communication style of expressivity (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, 2010), the current study argues that transactional leaders may be positively related to expressivity and verbal aggressiveness. With argumentativeness a facet of a questioning communication style (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, 2010), it may be positively related to transactional leadership. Based on the positive link between political skill and transactional leadership (Dewan & Myatt, 2012), and political skill intuitively involves impression manipulativeness, transactional leadership will be positively related to the lexical leader communication style of impression manipulativeness, thus will also be less emotional in communication style. Based on these propositions, the current study seeks to test the following hypotheses:

H_2^a: Transactional leadership style is positively related to the lexical leader communication style of expressiveness.

H_2^b: Transactional leadership style is positively related to the lexical leader communication style of verbal aggressiveness.

H_2^c: Transactional leadership style is positively related to the lexical leader communication style of questioningness.

H_2^d: Transactional leadership style is positively related to the lexical leader communication style of preciseness.

H_2^e: Transactional leadership style is negatively related to the lexical leader communication style of emotionality.

H$_2$^{f}: Transactional leadership style is positively related to the lexical leader communication style of impression manipulativeness.

Communication Styles

Kellerman (1987) stated, "Social interaction depends on communication. The form, the purpose, the outcome, and the participants in social interaction may vary; communication remains the vehicle" (p. 188). Communication is a natural and necessary human behavior and may be likened to breathing as an autonomic nervous system function. As an autonomic function, breathing is independent of the conscious mind, thus people do not consciously think of it, even for a moment, because it naturally happens. Communication is also autonomic. Generally, people are not conscious of communicating, thus they do not realize that they are perpetually engaged in communication. As Motley (1990) explained, communication may by purposeful, wherein a person makes a cognitive decision to act upon a goal, but the goal may be conscious or unconscious; thus, communication is not always conscious, purposeful, or intentional behavior. The axiom that a person "*cannot not communicate*" (Watzlawick et al., 1967, p. 51; Bavelas, 1990) captures the autonomic nature of communication. One cannot possibly begin to understand the leadership process unless one understands how the leader communicates; yet, to date, the central role of communication as a key element in leadership as a relational process has only been examined as expressions of personality and predictors of some leader outcomes (Bakker-Pieper & De Vries, 2013; De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Konings, et al., 2011; De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, 2010; De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Siberg, et al., 2009, 2013) and, for some, has not been given due importance in the leadership process (Fairhurst & Uhl-Bien, 2012).

The plethora of communication studies relating to leadership has been pursued vigorously under the banner of organizational communication, which includes interpersonal communication (e.g., Ayoko & Pekerti, 2008; Bambacas & Patrickson, 2008, 2009; Becerra & Gupta, 2008; Bekmeier-Feuerhahn & Eichenlaub, 2010; Bisel, Messersmith, & Kelley, 2012; Ding, 2006; Mueller &

Lee, 2002). Studies in interpersonal communication in organizations and leadership literature, however, typically have examined communication as a general construct (Ahmed, Shields, White, & Wilbert, 2010; Hamrefors, 2010; Neufeld et al., 2010) rather than specific verbal or nonverbal expressions (e.g., De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, 2010; Timm, 1978). For example, Bhal, Uday Bhaskar, et al. (2009) found possible linkages between LMX dimensions and follower affective, cognitive, and behavioral reactions mediated by leader communication. Leader communication as a mediating variable was measured as a general construct rather than specific leader communication styles reflecting a positive or supportive communication in a high-LMX situation (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001) and dominance-like and restricted communication in a low-LMX situation (Fairhurst, Roger, & Sarr, 1987). De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, and Oostenveld (2010), however, found significant support for the importance of communication style in the leadership process. Yet, there remains a critical gap in leadership research that places leader communication style as the central and underlying mechanism of the leadership process in terms of its influence on the quality of the dyadic relationship.

Gudykunst, Matsumoto, et al. (1996) developed an eight-factor Communication Style Scale (CSS) derived from existing communication style instruments (e.g., Booth-Butterfiled & Booth-Butterfield, 1990; Norton, 1983; Singelis, 1994). They combined items in these instruments with items they had developed drawn from low-context and high-context conceptualizations of communication (Gudykunst & Ting-Toomey, 1988; Hall, 1976). The dimensions of the CSS are (a) infer other's meanings, (b) tendencies to use indirect/ambiguous communication, (c) interpersonal sensitivity, (d) tendencies to use dramatic communication, (e) tendency to use feelings to guide behavior, (f) openness in and initiation of communication with others, (g) preciseness in communication, and (h) positive perceptions of silence in communication.

In contrast to the instrument-integrative approach developed by Gudykunst, Matsumoto, et al. (1996), a different integrative approach was performed by De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Siberg, et al. (2009, 2013) by conducting a lexical study of 744 adjectives and 837 verbs primarily to determine the content and dimensionality

of communication styles. These authors found seven dimensions of communication style: (a) preciseness, (b) reflectiveness or argumentativeness, (c) expressiveness, (d) supportiveness, (e) emotionality or emotional tension (reversed as assuredness), (f) niceness, and (g) threateningness or verbal aggression. In the lexical study, the dimension of expressiveness highly correlated with the tendency to use dramatic communication of the CSS, the lexical dimension of preciseness strongly correlated with preciseness of the CSS, and the lexical dimension of niceness was positively related to interpersonal sensitivity of the CSS. De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Siberg, et al. also found that the lexical expressiveness negatively correlated with interpersonal sensitivity and indirect communication. The lexical expressiveness refers to being talkative, certain, energetic, and eloquent (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Siberg, et al., 2009, 2013), while interpersonal sensitivity refers to less talking and more listening, tactfulness, and choosing words carefully, thus suggesting low expressiveness (Gudykunst, Matsumoto, et al., 1996). Indirect communication refers to ambiguous expressiveness, thus less certainty and not eloquent.

Leader Style and Personality

De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, and Oostenveld (2010) examined the relationship between communication styles, leadership style, and leader outcomes using the lexical dimensions of communication. These authors found that charismatic leadership style significantly related to preciseness, assuredness, supportiveness, argumentativeness in the positive direction, and verbal aggressiveness in the negative direction. A significant relation between the lexical expressiveness and charismatic leadership was not supported. Some might find this a surprise finding, but expressivity in the context of charismatic leadership does not refer to a lexical definition but to a charismatic rhetoric involving the nonverbal emotional expressivity of charisma and articulation of vision (Bass, 1985, 1990, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 1990, 1994; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Yukl, 2010). The results also showed that human-oriented leadership style significantly related to expressiveness and supportiveness but negatively related to verbal aggressiveness. In contrast, task-oriented leadership style significantly related to verbal aggressiveness, preciseness, and assuredness. In this mediated model, communication styles

predicted leadership styles, which partially predicted leader outcomes of leader performance and satisfaction with the leader and fully mediated subordinate team commitment (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, 2010).

De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Konings, et al. (2011) further examined communication styles in relation to personality and found that communication styles may be reflections of personality. Based on the lexical study on the content and dimensionality of communication styles (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Siberg, et al., 2009), these authors proposed the Communication Style Inventory (CSI) to come up with six behavioral communication style dimensions: (a) expressiveness; (b) preciseness; (c) verbal aggressiveness, comprising of lexical threateningness, reversed niceness, and reversed supportiveness; (d) questioningness or lexical reflexiveness; (e) emotionality; and (f) impression manipulativeness (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Konings, et al., 2011). Impression manipulativeness was not part of the lexical study, but the authors found it relevant to include deceptive communication style. De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Siberg, et al. found the CSI domain-level scales of expressiveness, questioningness, and emotionality correlated significantly with the domain-level scale of extraversion, openness to experience, and emotionality of the HEXACO-PI-R (K. Lee & Ashton, 2004), while verbal aggressiveness and impression manipulativeness of the CSI correlated negatively with agreeableness and honesty–humility of the HEXACO. Some of the CSI domain-level scales also correlated significantly with dimensions of NEO-PI-R (Costa & McCrae, 1992), CSI expressiveness with NEO extraversion, CSI questioningness with NEO openness to experience, CSI emotionality with NEO neuroticism, and negative correlation between CSI verbal aggressiveness with NEO agreeableness.

Studies have shown that personality may predict leadership styles and leader outcomes (e.g., Bahreinian, Ahi, & Soltani, 2012; Hautula, 2006; Kalshoven, Den Hartog, & De Hoogh, 2011; Mathisen, Einarsen, & Mykletun, 2011; Nana, Jackson, & Birch, 2010). These studies have suggested that personality may be more predictive of leader behavior and outcomes than other factors such as communication styles. Bakker-Pieper and De Vries (2013) investigated the

incremental validity of communication styles over personality measures in predicting leader outcomes. These authors found that leader expressive communication style has incremental validity over leader personality of extraversion, and leader preciseness in communication has incremental validity over leader personality of conscientiousness. A significant finding of the study was that LMX was predicted positively by three communication styles (emotionality, expressiveness, preciseness) and negatively by verbal aggressiveness. Rhetoric is the means by which communication styles are enacted (Bonet & Sauquet, 2010; J. Huang & Galliers, 2011; S. Oliver, 2000). Cheney, Christensen, Conrad, and Lair (2004) suggested that rhetoric represents a leader's ability to select and shape rhetorical strategies to communicate with his or her audience, such as expressions of power and influence (Morand, 2000).

Rhetorical Strategies

Morand (2000) examined how dyadic relations enact power differentials through language behaviors in everyday encounters. Morand referred to the enactment as the "flow of verbalization" (p. 236), which suggests that language tactics are the mechanism to define and create power differentials in a supervisor–subordinate interaction, thus language analysis is an important means to understand how status relations or relationships in general are "diminished or blurred" (p. 236) at the behavioral level of analysis. Proceeding from a sociolinguistic frame of politeness (P. Brown & Levinson, 1987; R. Brown & Gilman, 1991; Fraser, 1990; Ting-Toomey, 1994) to study dyadic relationships in organizations, Morand found in an experimental setting that avoidance (negative) linguistic and rhetorical tactics to avoid face threatening acts were more predictive of overall politeness than rituals of approach (positive) linguistic tactics. Examples of avoidance linguistic tactics are the use of honourifics, apologizing, using of formal words, dropping of pronouns, using of hedge words, and using indirect questions. Examples of positive linguistic tactics are ingratiation, phonological slurring and colloquialism to convey in-group membership, or expressions of sympathy and understanding. Both negative and positive rhetorical tactics of politeness fit an impression manipulative

style of communication (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, 2010) to achieve cooperation (P. Brown & Levinson, 1987).

P. S. Rogers and Lee-Wong (2003) examined the rhetorical tensions between the use of certain politeness strategies (conventional politeness dimensions), which reflect the relational needs of the dyadic interaction, and obligations to the organization. These competing communicative tensions or opposing values are deference versus confidence, nonimposition versus direction, and solidarity versus individuality. Subordinates encounter communicative dilemmas involving these tensions (P. S. Rogers & Lee-Wong, 2003). According to these authors, subordinate attention to avoiding face threats to the receiver in order to gain cooperation should not be at the expense of sacrificing self-assertion necessary to meet organizational obligations. P. S. Rogers and Lee-Wong suggested that in the context of building quality LMX relationship, the leader in the dyadic relationship may react differently to the conventional dimensions (deference, nonimposition, solidarity) and communicative dimensions of organizational obligations (confidence, direction, individuality).

Timm (1978) found that subordinates have expectations of equity in relation to supervisor communicative behavior, which when violated can have behavioral and psychological consequences in the quality of the relationship. When subordinates perceive communicative inequity, they may engage in retaliatory behaviors or withdraw from the inequitable relationship (Timm, 1978). Given P. S. Rogers and Lee-Wong's (2003) findings, a subordinate may move away from deference and be more confident in his communicative behavior with the supervisor as a form of retaliatory communicative behavior in order to reduce the psychologically felt inequity.

Both Timm (1978) and P. S. Rogers and Lee-Wong (2003) suggested that rhetorical styles of leaders and followers may determine the quality of exchange relationships. Politeness rhetoric (negative and positive) and rhetorical tactics that promote perceptions of equity may lead to high-LMX relationships, while tactics that create perceptions of inequity may lead to low-LMX relationships. The current study argues that transformational leaders promote perceptions of equity, which

leads to high-LMX relationships, while transactional leaders may promote perceptions of inequity, which may lead to low-LMX relationships. Stated differently, the lexical communication styles of transformational leaders lead to high-LMX relationships, while transactional leaders lead to low-LMX relationships. Thus, the current study proposes to test the following hypotheses:

H_3^a: Lexical leader communication style of expressiveness is negatively related to the quality of LMX relationship among transformational leaders but positively related among transactional leaders.

H_3^b: Lexical leader communication style of verbal aggressiveness is negatively related to the quality of LMX among transformational but positively related among transactional leaders.

H_3^c: Lexical leader communication style of questioningness is negatively related to the quality of LMX among transformational leaders but positively related among transactional leaders.

H_3^d: Lexical leader communication style of preciseness is positively related to the quality of LMX among transformational and transactional leaders.

H_3^e: Lexical leader communication style of emotionality is positively related to the quality of LMX among transformational but negatively related among transactional leaders.

H_3^f: Lexical leader communication style of impression manipulativeness is positively related to the quality of LMX among transformational leaders and transactional leaders.

Leader–Member Exchange Theory

Founded upon social exchange theory of Blau, LMX theory, which was also known as the vertical dyad leadership theory (Dansereau, Cashman, & Graen, 1973; Dansereau, Graen, et al., 1975; Graen & Schiemann, 1978), is the social exchange process in a leadership context where leader and follower define their roles in a reciprocal interaction involving mutual evaluation and exchanges of resources valuable to each party, leading to the development of a relationship

(Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Although individual agency is central to LMX, the emphasis is on the construction of a relationship through social interaction built upon communication (Graen & Scandura, 1987; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991, 1995; Uhl-Bien, 2006). The basis of the efficacy of LMX is on the quality of the relationship between leader and follower, and communication styles may determine the quality of the leader–member relationship. In LMX, quality is categorized as high LMX and low LMX (Klein & Kim, 1998). High LMX suggests a close relationship, while low LMX suggests a distant relationship. Thus, proximal relations are essential to LMX relationship (Brandes et al., 2004). Dansereau, Graen, et al. (1975) described a vertical dyad between a leader and subordinate as direct and interpersonal exchange. The theory suggests that high LMX is a close relationship between supervisor and subordinate in a way that the reciprocal relationship mutually benefits both (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

LMX and Communication

Studies linking LMX to antecedents (O'Donnell et al., 2012; Yukl, O'Donnell, & Taber, 2009) and outcomes have generally implied the centrality of communication as a determinant factor of the exchange process and proximal relations (Brandes et al., 2004) such as knowledge sharing and innovation (Carmeli, Atwater, & Levi, 2011; J. Lee, 2008), trust development (Werbel & Henriques, 2009; Xiaqi, Kun, Chongsen, & Sufang, 2012), organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Hamdi & Rajablu, 2012; Landry & Vandenberghe, 2012; J. Lee, 2005; Love & Forret, 2008; Mayfield & Mayfield, 2010), team commitment and team performance (Bakar, Mustaffa, & Mohamad, 2009; Naidoo, Scherbaum, Goldstein, & Graen, 2011), organizational communication satisfaction (Mueller & Lee, 2002), impression management (J. R. Carlson, Carlson, & Ferguson, 2011; Othman, Ee, & Shi, 2010), and career outcomes (Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001). The development of a mature leadership relation between leader and follower depend on communication, which gives the follower access to the many benefits that the relationship brings (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Among the benefits of high LMX is supervisors giving more advice or mentoring, encouragement, tasks assistance, and rewards that enhance

employee work performance (Dansereau, Graen, et al., 1975; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Klein & Kim, 1998), which leads to career success (Henderson et al., 2009). Leaders who maintain high LMX with individual followers expect followers to reciprocate by demonstrating increased in-role behavior (e.g., job competency) and extra-role behavior, referred to as organizational citizenship behaviors (Brandes et al., 2004). Consistent with social capital theory, when followers reciprocate, they gain access to the benefits of high LMX because supervisors may be inclined and would allocate more resources and career-enhancing opportunities to the subordinate.

X. Huang et al. (2008) suggested that both leader and follower develop knowledge structures of relational exchanges (relational schemas) as they interact and communicate. Based on the perceptions of respondents, which X. Huang et al. described as giving voice to the impressions and implicit theories of the respondents, X. Huang et al. extracted effective communication as an important item in the relational schema of team player and mutual understanding. These authors suggested that while leaders focus their schemas on work-related issues, followers tend to rely upon a leader's abilities to communicate to foster mutual understanding, promote learning and developmental opportunities, form friendships, and demonstrate capability to influence them. Although leaders and followers form implicit relational schemas that categorize how each perceive the exchange relationship, dyadic relationships are uniquely differentiated (Henderson et al., 2009). In LMX differentiation, the dynamic and interactive exchanges that occur across dyads differ, thus the leader forms different quality exchange relationships (ranging from low to high) within a work group (Henderson et al., 2009). Leader LMX differentiation is related to work group performance at later stages of the group development (Naidoo et al., 2011). Naidoo et al. (2011) suggested that at later stages of the work group lifecycle, the quality of the LMX is higher, thus less differentiated. In proposing antecedent factors and outcomes of LMX differentiation, Henderson et al. (2009) suggested communication as the core behavior that predicts high-quality LMX relationships. For example, highly transformational leaders form high-quality LMX relationships within a work group

(Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005) on the basis of a well-articulated communication of a vision and goals (Bass & Riggio, 2006), which enhances leader–member communication that leads to the relational schema of mutual understanding (X. Huang et al., 2008).

Hamdi and Rajablu (2012) examined the relationship between enhanced leader–member communication and affective and continuance organizational commitment with leader consideration as moderating variable. These authors found affective commitment depends on the quality of the leader–member communication such that high LMX would predict affective commitment but not with low LMX. The low quality of LMX differentiation may suggest a dysfunctional form of exchange (Othman et al., 2010). In a dysfunctional form of exchange, reciprocity is negative (Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003), which means that the leader and subordinate are exchanging negative behaviors such as restrained and aggressive communication (e.g., disrespect), avoidance and noncommitment, misinterpretations and misunderstanding, marginal follower performance, low commitment, motivation, and productivity.

Impression Management and Language

Hamdi and Rajablu (2012) and J. R. Carlson et al. (2011) suggested that deceptive forms of communication would be inversely related to subordinate commitment, thus high-LMX differentiation. In contrast to other types of impression management tactics (DuBrin, 2011; Gardner & Cleavenger, 1998), deceptive impression management is the intentional use of deception in an LMX relationship (J. R. Carlson et al., 2011). Othman et al. (2010) referred to this tactic as dysfunctional LMX, where members of a work group perceive the exchange relationship of a leader between certain members of that work group as unequal either as a result of a leader's flawed assessment of a member or deceptive impression management tactics. According to J. R. Carlson et al., the emphasis of deception impression management is on the recurring use of deceptive communicative acts to maintain a relationship. Thus, the casual use of lying and faking, which may be viewed as single deceptive acts (Jehn & Scott, 2008; Levashina & Campion, 2007), are part of a communicative campaign by the

subordinate to maintain or improve the impression of the supervisor upon the subordinate (J. R. Carlson et al., 2011). J. R. Carlson et al. suggested that follower outcomes may depend on language use.

Mayfield and Mayfield (2010) investigated the relationship between leader motivating language and follower performance and job satisfaction. Using motivation language theory (Sullivan, 1988), which assumes that all leader–follower communication operates at a dyadic level, Mayfield and Mayfield found that leader-level motivating language, which involves the use of direction-giving language, emphatic language, and meaning-making language, was significantly related to worker performance but not job satisfaction. At dyadic level, the results show these languages are predictive of worker performance and job satisfaction. These findings suggest that language is an important leader behavior that may determine the quality of LMX relationships. Bhal and Ansari (2007) suggested that when a leader gives "voice" (p. 23) to subordinates to reduce work-group differentiation in an LMX relationship, perceptions of procedural justice improves. Voice is giving subordinates a say in the decision-making process and stands as the link between perceptions of procedural justice and quality of LMX (Bhal & Ansari, 2007). In a reciprocal relationship (Gouldner, 1960), encouraging follower voice behavior may lead to high-quality LMX relationships when perceived by supervisors as prosocial behaviors but low-quality LMX when perceived as an impression management motive (Cheng, Lu, Chang, & Johnstone, 2013). X. Huang et al. (2008) suggested that when leaders give voice to followers as an impression management behavior, followers develop relational schemas that may influence the quality of the LMX relationship. Bezuijen, van Dam, van den Berg, and Thierry (2010) suggested that the communicative relationship in high-LMX is much more intense (Kacmar, Witt, Zivnuska, & Gully, 2003) such that the leader would set a high goal difficulty and specific learning goals for followers, thus stimulate follower learning (Bezuijen et al., 2010).

Fairhurst (1993) conducted a discourse analysis of LMX communication patterns. Communication in low-quality LMX relationships may be intense but can be confrontational and negative, thus polarizing. When this kind of communicative

interaction is frequent, the intensity of existing problems increases and new problems arise because it creates mutually negative impressions between the leader and member. In this instance, the communication patterns are typically face-threatening acts, power plays, competition, and performance monitoring. Fairhurst found that the nature of language in polarizing communication reflects constant disagreements, interruptions, control orientation, and one-upmanship. On the other hand, communication patterns in high-quality LMX are more supportive and polite and may be more prosocial in orientation (e.g., coaching, value convergence, choice framing). In high LMX, communication patterns tend to align by minimizing power differences or accommodating when power differences remain unsettled. Thus, language is polite, personal, humorous, open, and more deferent.

Proceeding from the assumption that LMX is a "communicatively constructed" (Fairhurst, 1993, p. 322) relationship, and consistent with previously proposed hypotheses, the current study argues that transformational leadership and transactional leader influence the quality of LMX relationships and that the leader's lexical communication style influences the relationship between leadership styles and quality of LMX. The current study seeks to test the following hypotheses:

H_4^a: Transformational leadership style predicts the quality of LMX relationship.

H_4^b: Transactional leadership style predicts the quality of LMX relationship.

H_5^a: Lexical leader communication styles mediate the relationship between transformational leadership style and quality of LMX.

H_5^b: Lexical leader communication styles mediate the relationship between transactional leadership style and quality of LMX.

Cultural Theories

Identity Management Theory

The central proposition of identity management theory, which is also known as cultural identity theory (Collier, 1998), is that cultural identities are negotiated through the development of interpersonal relationships (Cupach & Imahori, 1993).

This theory suggests that successful negotiation depends on intercultural communication competence, which is vital to establishing and maintaining intercultural relationships (Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2011). Wiseman (2003) defined intercultural communication competence as "the knowledge, motivation, and skills to interact effectively and appropriately with members of different cultures" (p. 192). It is the "ability of an individual to successfully negotiate mutually acceptable identities in interaction" (Cupach & Imahori, 1993, p. 118). Successful intercultural relationships are constituted in communication such that incompetent communication derails and destroys relationships, while competent communication nurtures relationships (Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2011).

Littlejohn and Foss (2011) suggested that individuals establish, maintain, and change an identity as a result of interacting with others within a relationship, and the interaction through constant negotiation leads to the development of relationships, which leads to the development of mutually acceptable identities. Identity is defined as a person's self-concept about himself or herself within a social, geographical, cultural, and political context (Yep, 1998) or "one's theory of oneself" (Cupach & Imahori, 1993, p. 113). Imahori and Cupach (2005) stated that different cultures have different expectations of appropriate communicative behaviors, suggesting that individuals bring their cultural identities in the dialogue and through dialogue redefine the relational identity of the individuals.

According to Cupach and Imahori (1993), identities are made up of two facets—cultural identity and relational identity. Cultural identity is "identification with and perceived acceptance into a group that has shared systems of symbols and meanings as well as norms/rules for conduct" (Collier & Thomas, 1988, p. 113). Relational identity is relational culture (Cupach & Imahori, 1993), which refers to a system of privately constructed meanings and actions of relationship participants (Wood, 1982). Wood (1982) suggested that communication produce relational culture because the creation and definition of experiences (symbolic interactionism) are maintained, altered, and dissolved in communication, thus serving as the "nucleus" (p. 76) of the relationship; communication as nucleus provides the

individuals a "shared universe of discourse and definition in matters deemed important" (p. 76).

When the individuals in a relationship share a common culture, come from the same culture, or share the same systems of meanings and symbols, it is likely that they will engage in *intracultural* dialogue, which means common cultural qualities become salient in dialogue (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). In contrast, when individuals with different cultural identities engage in dialogue, cultural differences become more salient, thus the dialogue is *intercultural,* and when culture is not a concern, the dialogue is *interpersonal* (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). According to Littlejohn and Foss (2011), in these types of communications, the desired identity of the individuals in dialogue influence how both negotiate relational identity. Individuals present and reveal their desired identity through *face*, defined as the "socially situated identities people claim or attribute to others" (Tracy, 1990, p. 210), and *facework* is the communicative behavior (Cupach & Imahori, 1993) that people do to establish, preserve, protect, or maintain their face and the face of others (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011) and to counteract face threats (Cupach & Imahori, 1993). According to P. Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory, an individual who desires to be accepted, approved, and appreciated would communicate a *positive* face, while an individual who wants to be autonomous, free from impositions of others, and not have one's actions or resources restricted without cause would communicate a *negative* face. Lim and Bowers (1991) referred to positive face as *fellowship* face, which means wanting to be included, and *competence* face, which means wanting to have one's abilities respected. In contrast, *autonomy* face refers to negative face.

Face is the image that individuals desire others to see and recognize publicly, thus face threats or challenges to the image during an interaction (Cupach & Imahori, 1993) have a direct impact on the development of the relationship or relational identity. Inherent in facework is when one individual perceives a face threat when the other individual in dialogue attempts to maintain face. Cupach and Imahori (1993) referred to this as dialectical tension between maintaining face versus face threat or the tension between an individual's desire for acceptance

(fellowship face) and respect (competence face) on one hand and desire for autonomy on the other. Productive relationships depend on the successful management of these paradoxical challenges. For example, based on politeness theory (P. Brown & Levinson, 1987) and face management theory (Lim, 1994), people in the workplace maintain and avoid damaging workplace friendly relationship by being polite while at the same time giving up autonomy and giving up the ability to engage in open and honest dialogue with others (Sias, Gallagher, Kopaneva, & Pedersen, 2012). In this sense, politeness is a preventive facework to mitigate any face-threatening implications of workplace behavior (Cupach & Imahori, 1993), but politeness in the workplace may be more damaging to the relationship because it is a face threat to one's autonomy.

Dialectical tensions in facework become more pronounced and complex in intercultural relationships because cultural identity is more intense when differences in cultural characteristics are salient and nothing is shared in common (Cupach & Imahori, 1993). In contrast, facework in intracultural communication is easier to manage because the individuals in dialogue understand what is appropriate in supporting face and what is inappropriate and face threatening.

The first and perhaps the most common dialectical tension (face threat) in intercultural dialogue is when a person lacks the knowledge about another individual and begins to stereotype the individual into certain cultural forms. Stereotyping is a way of managing another's face; but whether it is positive or negative, stereotyping is a face threat to another person because it freezes that person's identity narrowly to cultural cues or stimuli such as language mannerism (e.g., accent), physical attributes (e.g., clothing), and behavior (e.g., pace of work). Imahori and Cupach (2005) referred to this as identity freezing. Identity freezing is a face threat because it is an imposition to the cultural identity of another person, thus constraining the person's desire to affirm an identity different from that imposed. A second dialectical tension emerging from stereotyping is the *nonsupport* problem (Imahori & Cupach, 2005). This tension ignores cultural identity when one attempts to support his or her own fellowship face without recognizing the autonomy face of the other person in the dialogue, thus creating a

face threat to the other individual (Cupach & Imahori, 1993). This often occurs when one tries to avoid the risk of stereotyping and identity freezing by focusing on each other as individuals rather than as members of a culture (Imahori & Cupach, 2005). The third dialectical tension is the tension between supporting one's own face and supporting the other's face (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). This is referred to as the "self-other face" (Imahori & Cupach, 2005, p. 200) dialectic. Trying to support one's own face confirms one's cultural identity and, in supporting the autonomy face of another, confirms the other's cultural identity. In effect, the cultural differences become distinct. The heightened salience of the cultural differences threatens the fellowship face of the other person because there is nothing shared or common for both to become "fellows" (Cupach & Imahori, 1993, p. 122). In order words, in an effort to support both faces, the cultural norms and values of the individuals in dialogue are legitimized, but the norms and values may be at odds, thus creating a threat to the cultural identities of the individuals (Imahori & Cupach, 2005). The last dialectical tension is the tension between "positive-negative face" (Imahori & Cupach, 2005, p. 200) dialectic. In intercultural communication, individuals in dialogue face the challenge of confirming the other's cultural identity (positive face) by supporting it but also want to support the other's autonomy (negative face) by avoiding the risk of constraining the other individual by stereotyping. Imahori and Cupach (1993) explained that supporting another's cultural identity by ingratiation or compliment "locks" (p. 121) the other to that cultural identity, thus threatening the autonomy (negative face) of the other. In other words, in an effort to avoid freezing the other person to a particular cultural identity by supporting the identity, he or she has constrained or stereotyped the other individual.

Cross-cultural communication is a major area of study within intercultural communications (Steinfatt & Millette, 1996). Identity management is a culturally universal communication phenomenon, thus making it cross-culturally universal (Ting-Toomey, 1988), which means that cultural dimensions are an important consideration in facework across cultural boundaries. Steinfatt and Millette (1996) defined cross-cultural communication as the "comparison of communication across

two or more specific cultures or ethnicities" (p. 301). Cross-cultural communication involves both cultural identity and ethnic identity. Ethnic identity refers to a particular ancestry or beliefs about one's origin (Alba, 1990). Ting-Toomey (1988) referred to cultural identity as the "emotional significance we attach to our sense of belonging and affiliation with the larger culture" (p. 214). In cross-cultural studies, ethnic identity salience, or the strength of a person's subjective allegiance and loyalty to his or her ancestral links (Edwards, 1994), reflects his or her ethnic value contents. Ethnic value contents are ethnic identities dichotomized in Hofstede's (2001) individualism–collectivism cultural dimensions (Ting-Toomey, 2005).

Individualism–Collectivism Cultural Dimensions

The individualism–collectivism cultural dimension describes the extent to which societies or country-level cultures value the individual or the collective. Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov (2010) defined the individualism–collectivism dichotomy as follows:

> Individualism pertains to societies in which the ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after him or herself, and his or her immediate family. Collectivism as its opposite pertains to societies in which people from birth onward are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, which throughout people's lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty. (p. 92)

In individualist cultures, the person is a decontextualized agent, which means that the person is solely responsible for his or her own actions (Kashima & Kashima, 1998). Within each culture, individuals may exhibit both value dimensions but there would be more *I* identity communicative behaviors for cultures that incline toward individualism and *we* identity for cultures that incline toward collectivism (Ting-Toomey, 2005). Thus, the value dimension of individualism–collectivism of each country or national culture level varies along the continuum where these value dimensions are at the opposite ends of the continuum. When considering level of analysis, the use of the individualism–collectivism dimensions "is not suitable for distinguishing among occupations, the genders, age group, or individuals"

(Hofstede, 2001, p. 209). In other words, the level of analysis and measurement of this culture value is at the societal level (Hofstede et al., 2010). Kashima and Kashima (1998) investigated the relationship between culture and language use by directly testing the correlation between pronoun drop and individualism. These authors argued that in countries that allow the omission of pronouns (i.e., 1PS and 2PS) in the spoken language would score low on individualism dimension. As predicted, countries that allow pronoun drops had lower individualism scores than those countries whose language does not permit pronoun drop. The strongest correlation was the use of the obligatory I pronoun in individualistic cultures. In other words, the reference to self cannot be omitted in individualistic cultures. Kashima and Kashima also found that language spoken in collectivist cultures allow or even prescribe dropping pronouns.

The individualism–collectivism cultural dimension is a starting framework to explain how culture influences face orientations and face concerns in different cultures (Ting-Toomey, 2005). According to Ting-Toomey (2005), face orientations or concern refer to whether the primary concern of the individual is to self, others, or both. In other words, facework interaction strategies would differ between a culture that tends to individualism and a culture that tends to collectivism. Individualism is a broad tendency of a culture to place emphasis on the importance of I over we identity, individual rights over group interests, and ego focus emotions over group emotions (Ting-Toomey, 2005); thus, in individualistic cultures, a person's face is more important than the face of the other individual in dialogue. In contrast, collectivism places the focus of face orientation on the collective or the social group such that the interest of the we is the primary interest that drives individual behavior within the group (Ting-Toomey, 1985, 1988).

Ting-Toomey (2005) explained this dichotomous dynamic as the low-context or high-context communication interaction. Gudykunst and Ting-Toomey (1988) suggested that the individualism–collectivism dimension affects the use of low-context and high-context communication. In low-context interaction, communicative behavior places emphasis and importance on explicit verbal messages that convey personal thoughts, opinion, and feelings. Communication

styles in low-context interaction are more assertive, verbally explicit and upfront, use complementary nonverbal gestures to punctuate important conflict points, and separate the content goal issues from the conflict relationship (Ting-Toomey, 2005). High-context communication, however, places emphasis on social norms and roles, situational and relational contexts, historical context, and other contextual factors that frame the interaction. Communication styles in high-context interaction focus on nonverbal nuances and subtleties to signal conflict meanings, more indirect and more verbally effusive, or demonstrative in facework negotiations because they see the person, the content goal, and relationship conflict goal as interconnected (Ting-Toomey, 2005). Tanova and Nadiri (2010) suggested that in high-context cultures formal words are less powerful compared to context such that organizational members would focus less on the message but more on context or rely more on subtle cures instead of direct words. In high-context cultures, organizational members would ask the *why* rather than the *what* of the communication behavior. Tanova and Nadiri argued that in high-context cultures, there would be less direct communication between the organization and the employees. These authors defined *direct communication* as being formally briefed by management on business strategy, financial performance, and organization of the work. The results of the study showed that direct communication in high-context countries are lower compared to low-context countries. This study suggests that direct communication may be higher in individualistic (low-context) culture but lower in collectivist (high-context) culture.

Pekerti and Thomas (2003) and Smith (2011) confirmed that communication style is a distinguishing factor of national culture. Pekerti and Thomas argued that communication behaviors in different cultures are either sociocentric (or allocentric) or idiocentric. Triandis et al. (1993) referred to allocentrism as a personality attribute relating to collectivism, thus indicating associative, high-context, and indirect forms of communicative behaviors. Pekerti and Thomas (2003) used the term sociocentric in lieu of allocentrism and broadly defined it as relationship-oriented behaviors. In contrast, idiocentrism refers to individualism, which indicates directive forms of communication approaches for

task accomplishment (Pekerti & Thomas, 2003; Triandis et al., 1993). In the Pekerti and Thomas study, idiocentric communication style characterized by aggressiveness, expressiveness, dominance, opinionated, and argumentativeness was dominant in the individualist subsample, while communication style characterized by accommodation, argument avoidance, and shifting opinions was dominant in the collectivist subsample. Consistent with the study of Pekerti and Thomas, Smith argued that in collectivist cultures in-group harmony is a major value among the members of the social group, thus favoring indirect forms of communication and would be more acquiescent in responding to survey questions. The implication of this from a communication style perspective shows that collectivist cultures tend to disagree less on survey responses while individualistic culture tend to disagree more. Smith found that scores on respondent agreement correlate significantly with consensus index at the national level but not significantly between disagreement and dissent index, thus supporting the proposition that collectivist cultures are consensus cultures but individualistic cultures are not necessarily a dissent culture.

Den Hartog, House, et al. (1999) found that certain attributes of charismatic and transformational leadership are universally endorsed across cultures. These authors stated that communicating a vision is an important aspect of transformational and charismatic leadership. A powerful rhetorical appeal is one enacting mechanism of transformational and charismatic leaders (Den Hertog, House, et al., 1999). It is the mechanism of communicating visionary leadership, which is a defining attribute of transformational and charismatic leadership. These authors suggested that rhetorical styles differ in communicating a vision across cultures; thus, the way a transformational leader in one culture would communicate a vision will be different for a transformational leader in another culture, yet both may be transformational in the sense that both are visionaries.

Cross-Cultural Context

As a culturally determined variable, the current study assumes that leadership styles (e.g., Jogulu, 2010) and communication styles differ between organizational leaders in cultures that incline toward collectivism and those that

incline toward individualism (Gudykunst, Matsumoto, et al., 1996). The trend in leadership studies, however, using communication styles as a framework to understand the leadership phenomenon remains lacking given the emergence and trends of globalization. De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Siberg, et al. (2009) explored the dimensional structure of the words that people use to describe different communication styles. Based on this lexical study, De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, and Oostenveld (2010) examined the differences in communication styles of charismatic leadership, human-oriented leadership, and task-oriented leadership using a sample drawn from the Netherlands. Communication styles significantly differed between these leadership styles (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, 2010). The Netherlands tends toward individualism. It has an actual IDV (i.e., individualism–collectivism) index value of 80 and ranked number 5 of 53 countries measured on the individualism–collectivism dimensions, with 1 indicating highly individualistic and 53 as least individualistic or highly collectivist (Hofstede, 2001). In response to the call of these scholars to validate and advance the use of communication as a framework to understand the leadership phenomenon using different methods and samples, the current study examines relationship between leadership styles and communication styles using respondents drawn from the United States and the Philippines, which incline toward individualistic and collectivist societal values, respectively (Hofstede, 2001). At the individual level, Filipinos tend to demonstrate individualistic values (Uy, 2011), but the ethnic diversity of the Philippines makes it incline more toward collectivism at the societal level as evidenced by its low rank in the individualism index societal value scale (Hofstede, 2001).

The choice of the Philippines is made on the basis of English as a common language spoken in all aspects of society with the United States. English is the official language of the Philippines (Gee, Walseman, & Takeuchi, 2010) and reflects a cultural adoption of American values into Philippine society. Although the Philippines is ethnically heterogeneous with pre-Hispanic cultural influences of Hinduism, Buddhism, and Islam—and subsequently over three centuries of Spanish colonial rule (Mujtaba & Balboa, 2009)—the comparability of both the United

States and the Philippines on the basis of language proceeds from the historical connection of the Philippines as a colony of the United States. In spite of its cultural diversity where customs, traditions, and cultural artifacts (e.g., food, music, games, etc.) emerge from a mixture of oriental and western culture, the political, judicial, educational, and military institutions of the Philippines are rooted and have been more influenced intensely by values, beliefs, and institutions of the United States, particularly the English language. As a consequence, Mujtaba and Balboa (2009) suggested that it is easier for Filipinos to integrate into the American society on the basis of the colonial influence, stating, "The model used for business education (and the bureaucracy for that matter) is derived from the former colonizers. This includes not only the structure of management but also its philosophy, content, and practice" (p. 85). In all aspects of societal life, English is the official language of communication discourse.

Studies on leadership and organizations in the Philippine context have been cross-cultural comparisons on communication (Mintu-Wimsatt & Gassenheimer, 1996; Reardon & Miller, 2012; H. J. Wilson, Callaghan, & Wright, 1996) and task and relationship orientations (Mujtaba & Balboa, 2009). More recent studies have examined transformational leadership (Dimaculangan & Aguiling, 2012), and team performance (Dayaram & Fung, 2012). H. J. Wilson et al. (1996) compared differences in verbal communication between Filipino and British manager and subordinate interactions on the basis of differences in the individualism–collectivism dimension. These authors found that British managers tend to exhibit more rewarding, deterring, closed questioning, evaluating, and enquiring communicative behaviors than Filipino managers. Among subordinates, British respondents exhibited more rewarding, deterring, and evaluating communicative behaviors. Differences in communication were also found between American and Filipino industrial sellers. Mintu-Wimsatt and Gassenheimer (1996) compared the negotiation differences between these two cultures and found that American sellers achieved cooperation in negotiations by tolerating individual differences, while Filipino sellers achieved cooperation by foregoing individual predispositions in favor of organizational goals. This study reflects the individualism orientation of

American respondents and collectivism orientation of Filipino respondents. Mujtaba and Balboa (2009) found that Americans are more task-oriented and Filipinos more relations-oriented in managerial behavior, thus suggesting that the former tends to be more direct and adversarial in communication styles while the latter more sensitive, indirect, and nonadversarial. The question remains whether leader communication styles differ between two cultures that share a common language deeply rooted in shared values and beliefs and how the differences, if any, predict the quality of relationships in the leadership process.

Given that leadership styles (e.g., Jogulu, 2010) and communication styles may differ across cultures (Gudykunst, Matsumoto, et al., 1996), the current study examines the difference in leadership styles, communications styles, and the quality of LMX between two cultures and whether any significant differences in the overall model result from leader communication styles more than leadership style by testing the following hypotheses:

H_6^a: Leadership styles differ between the U.S. and Philippine respondents.

H_6^b: Lexical communication styles differ between the U.S. and Philippine respondents.

H_6^c: Quality of LMX as determined by communication styles differs between the U.S. and Philippine respondents.

H_6^d: Leader communication styles as enactive mechanism of the leadership process and it impact on LMX differs between the U.S. and Philippine respondents.

Summary of Hypotheses

The following is a summary of research hypotheses that builds on the assumption that LMX is a "communicatively constructed" (Fairhurst, 1993, p. 322) relationship. As shown in the casual path (see Figure 2), the current study seeks to examine the impact of leadership styles and lexical communication styles on the quality of LMX relationship in a mediation model.

H_1^a: Transformational leadership style is negatively related to the lexical leader communication style of expressiveness.

H_1^b: Transformational leadership style is negatively related to the lexical leader communication style of verbal aggressiveness.

H_1^c: Transformational leadership style is negatively related to the lexical leader communication style of questioningness.

H_1^d: Transformational leadership style is positively related to the lexical leader communication style of preciseness.

H_1^e: Transformational leadership style is positively related to the lexical leader communication style of emotionality.

H_1^f: Transformational leadership style is positively related to the lexical leader communication style of impression manipulativeness.

H_2^a: Transactional leadership style is positively related to the lexical leader communication style of expressiveness.

H_2^b: Transactional leadership style is positively related to the lexical leader communication style of verbal aggressiveness.

H_2^c: Transactional leadership style is positively related to the lexical leader communication style of questioningness.

H_2^d: Transactional leadership style is positively related to the lexical leader communication style of preciseness.

H_2^e: Transactional leadership style is negatively related to the lexical leader communication style of emotionality.

H_2^f: Transactional leadership style is positively related to the lexical leader communication style of impression manipulativeness.

H_3^a: Lexical leader communication style of expressiveness is negatively related to the quality of LMX relationship with transformational but positively related with transactional leadership.

H_3^b: Lexical leader communication style of verbal aggressiveness is negatively related to the quality of LMX with transformational but positively related with transactional leadership.

H_3^c: Lexical leader communication style of questioningness is negatively related to the quality of LMX with transformational but positively related with transactional leadership.

H_3^d: Lexical leader communication style of preciseness is positively related to the quality of LMX with transformational leadership and transactional leadership.

H_3^e: Lexical leader communication style of emotionality is positively related to the quality of LMX with transformational but negatively related with transactional leadership.

H_3^f: Lexical leader communication style of impression manipulativeness is positively related to the quality of LMX with transformational and transactional leadership.

H_4^a: Transformational leadership style predicts the quality of LMX.

H_4^b: Transactional leadership style predicts the quality of LMX.

H_5^a: Lexical leader communication styles mediate the relationship between transformational leadership style and quality of LMX.

H_5^b: Lexical leader communication styles mediate the relationship between transactional leadership style and quality of LMX.

H_6^a: Leadership styles differ between the U.S. and the Philippines respondents.

H_6^b: Lexical communication styles differ between the U.S. and the Philippine respondents.

H_6^c: Quality of LMX as determined by communication styles differ between the U.S. and the Philippine respondents.

H_6^d: Leader communication styles as enactive mechanism of the leadership process and its impact on LMX differ between the U.S. and the Philippine respondents.
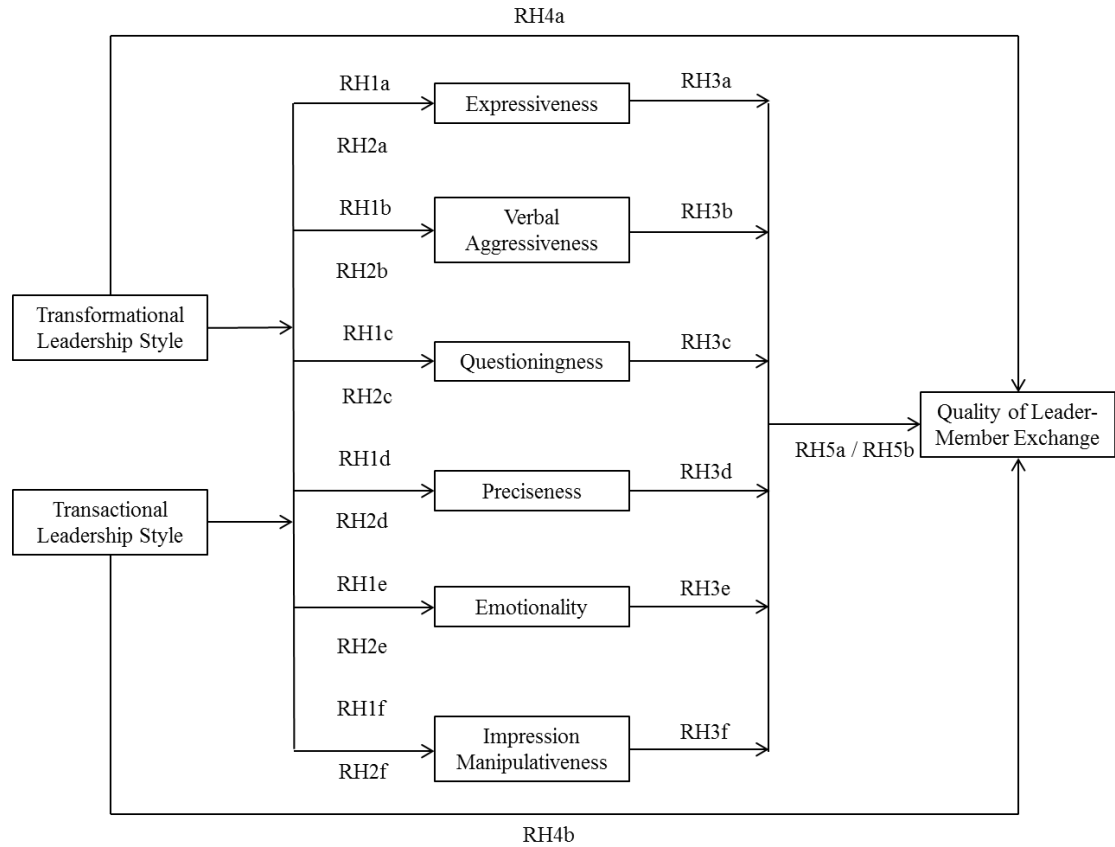
Figure 2: Hypothetical causal path of leadership styles on leader communication styles and on the quality of LMX. All H_1 hypotheses relating to transformational leadership are indicated above the line. All H_2 hypotheses relating to transactional leadership are indicated below the line.

Chapter 3 – Method

In this chapter, the research methodology to test the empirical model for the current study is described. In empirical research, detailing the adequacy of the research method, design, measurement, and analysis is critical to answering the research questions, controlling variance, and establishing the foundation of a reliable and valid study (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). The structure of the empirical methodology to examine causal relationships is as follows: (a) research method, (b) research design, (c) sampling, (d) instrumentation, (e) data collection, and (f) data analysis.

Research Method

The current study followed a quantitative nonexperimental approach. Consistent with the epistemological tradition of postpositivist assumptions, the study used theory deductively with the primary objective of testing theoretical propositions by examining perceptual data on the possible causal relationships between the variables (Creswell, 2009) of leadership style, communication style, and quality of leader–member exchange (LMX) relationships. In order to confirm or disconfirm theory at a particular point or period in time, data collection is cross-sectional (Glock, 1988; Singh, 2007).

Nonexperimental

The epistemic tradition of nonexperimental research is ex post facto, which refers to observational studies because there is no intervention by the researcher (Jarde, Losilla, & Vives, 2012), or "post hoc, ergo proctor hoc" (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000, p. 557), which means "after this, therefore caused by this" (p. 557); stated differently, the causal inference follows the occurrence of an event. Kerlinger and Lee (2000) defined nonexperimental research as follows:

Nonexperimental research is a systematic empirical inquiry in which the scientist does not have direct control of independent variables because their manifestations have already occurred or because they are inherently not manipulated. Inferences about relationship among variables are made,

without direct intervention, from concomitant variation of independent and dependent variables. (p. 558)

The epistemological instrument of nonexperimental studies is survey research "classified as field studies with a quantitative orientation" (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000, p. 599). Field studies are nonexperimental scientific inquiries with the purpose of discovering relationships and interactions of variables representing social, psychological, and educational phenomenon (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). The most important difference between experimental and nonexperimental approach is direct control of the variables (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Variables are not and could not be manipulated in nonexperimental designs. It collects perceptual data (e.g., attitudes, opinions, beliefs, knowledge, behaviors) from a selected sample group representative of some population (Creswell, 2009). Unlike experimental designs where the focus of measurement is on carefully controlled and observed application of a treatment protocol, the interpretation of nonexperimental data rely only on relationships of variables on the basis of perceptions of the respondent at the present moment, thus they could not be controlled because the manifestation of the independent variables has already occurred. Any casual inference may be spurious because factors other than the variables under investigation may provide other plausible explanations (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Nonexperimental research is appropriate when the study involves more variables in contrast to a single treatment variable in a controlled experiment (Holton & Burnett, 2005).

Quantitative

The purpose of quantitative approach is to provide empirically based evidence of the existence of relationships between variables in a manner that establishes the plausibility of prediction (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000; Tacq, 2011). Tacq (2011) suggested that causality in quantitative research flows from "experimental logic" (p. 278), which means the presence of a "necessary condition" (p. 278) before deducing causal inference. Thus, an independent variable (predictor) is a necessary condition in predicting the dependent variable, which makes it a central and logical characteristic of causality. The same logic is present in complex survey investigations with multivariate

analyses (Tacq, 2011). An important implication in quantitative nonexperimental research is the opportunity to make inferential findings that may be generalized from a sample to a population (Creswell, 2009). Quantitative analysis permits not only the examination of relationships between variables through correlation (bivariate relationships) but also causality and predictive power of many variables beyond that which could be controlled in a classical experimental design (Holton & Burnett, 2005) by way of multivariate methods (Hair et al., 2010; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000).

In quantitative nonexperimental studies, empirical inferences of causality (or causal–comparative research), correlational relationships, and descriptive research (Holton & Burnett, 2005) depend on rigorous statistical analyses. Statistical analyses require that the operational definition of the theoretical variables of the study relate to numeric descriptions of respondent perceptions of the variables through survey research. In the epistemic empiricist tradition, theory testing requires numeric data and the application of statistical procedures to analyze the numeric data (Creswell, 2009). It follows that the ontological source of reality, the respondents' perceptions of reality or worldview, is captured in numerical data in order that causal inferences may provide an objective and singular understanding of the phenomenon, which is a postpositivist assumption (Creswell, 2009). Objectivity in quantitative nonexperimental research assumes a deterministic posture, which provides a "logical model to clarify the deterministic system of cause and effect" (Babbie, 1990, p. 41) or what Tacq (2011) referred to as experimental logic—the presence of a necessary condition (cause) to explain the effect. The logical model and the primary instrument of explaining the reasons of causal inferences, correlations, observed events, and characteristics is survey research.

Explanatory

Babbie (1990) differentiated the purposes of nonexperimental research through different types of survey research as descriptive, exploratory, or explanatory. Descriptive research uses survey to gather information about people, groups, and organizations for the singular purpose of making descriptive assertions

of the characteristics of a particular population or domain in order to discover the distribution of certain traits and attributes (Babbie, 1990; Holton & Burnett, 2005). Exploratory research seeks to discover relationships, interpretations, and characteristics that may lead to new theory and define new problems (Holton & Burnett, 2005). Epistemically, exploratory research is middle-range theory development (Merton, 1968). Explanatory research seeks to test theory by the simultaneous examination of two or more variables in quantitative form using multivariate analyses (Babbie, 1990) for purposes of broad generalizations to a larger audience (Holton & Burnett, 2005).

Explanatory research falls within the domain of field studies, specifically in the category of hypothesis testing (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). In order to achieve the aim of hypothesis testing, methodological and measurement investigation precedes the explanatory objective of the study (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). In explanatory research, the rigorous application of quantitative methods answers specifically stated hypotheses that examine the relationships between variables, which in turn explain certain outcomes (Holton & Burnett, 2005). Using multivariate methods involving causal prediction, mediation effect, and differences between groups, the current study attempted to explain how the mediating effect of leader communication styles as perceived by the follower cause the quality of LMX relationship over and above leadership style. In addition, the current study sought to explain the effect of culture on the empirical propositions by comparing differences between two culturally diverse sample groups.

Cross-Sectional

Two types of survey design may be appropriate for hypothesis testing—cross-sectional survey or longitudinal survey. The time dimension of the current study is cross-sectional. Cross-sectional survey design collects data at one point in time—once to a particular sample of respondents—and fits the purpose of determining causal relationships (Babbie, 1990; Nardi, 2003). In contrast to longitudinal studies, which seek to collect data over different periods in time for purposes of examining changes over time, the current study collected data in one brief period in time.

In summary, the current study is an empirical field study that is quantitative, nonexperimental, explanatory, and cross-sectional. Although the method is limited in its depth as nonexploratory, uncontrolled, constrained in data collection in terms of time and money, exposed to chance results or sampling error, and respondent biases, it is extensive and provides a means to collect information from a large population, thus inexpensive for the amount and quality of information they yield, and accurate within the sampling error (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000).

Research Design

According to Sapsford (2007), in its broadest sense survey research is defined as follows:

> The collection of quantified data from a population for purposes of description or to identify covariation between variables that may point to causal relationship or predictive patterns of influence. It introduces the notions of representative sampling and of inference from comparison between groups—two of the three major "technologies" of survey research. (p. 1)

The research design of the current study proceeds from Sapsford's criteria on the appropriateness of using survey research:

1. Is research feasible at all in these circumstances?
2. Is survey research the right way to approach the problem, to obtain the kind of answers that are required?
3. Is a survey feasible—would it yield valid conclusions?
4. Is it ethically appropriate to use survey methods rather than some other approach?
5. Is it ethically and politically appropriate to carry out any form of research, given the research questions and the social context?

Research feasibility refers to whether the research can be carried out to answer the research questions, thus the nature of the research questions determines the appropriateness of conducting the research (Sapsford, 2007); that is, are the research questions open to measurement and quantification? Quantification of data

is unique to survey research because the standardization of the survey questions permits the researcher to ask all the respondents precisely those questions that need to be answered (Sapsford, 2007). More specifically, the respondents are given the same questions in precisely the same way in order to facilitate measurement and quantification. Sapsford (2007) stated, "Standardization lies at the heart of survey research, and the whole point is to get consistent answers to consistent questions" (p. 5). Thus, survey research is a systematic way of answering research questions quantitatively. In the current study, operationalizing the research questions into measureable dimensions was done using valid and summated scale instruments. Summated scales or multivariate measurements are survey instruments that join several variables into a composite measure to represent a concept (Hair et al., 2010). The use of summated scales replaces the independent, mediating, and dependent variables with the values coded and averaged in the summated scales to permit measurement (Hair et al., 2010). Thus, the collection and quantification of data make survey research feasible and appropriate (Babbie, 1990); more importantly, the use of multiple variables through summated scale reduces reliance on any single variable as the sole representative of the concept and mitigates measurement error (Hair et al., 2010).

Finding empirical evidence of causality between leadership styles, communication styles, and LMX relationship as well as generalizing the results were the basic intent of the current study. Achieving these goals required the application of three measurement (statistical) parameters relating to statistical significance and statistical power. Statistical power is the probability that the statistical test would yield statistically significant results (Cohen, 1988). In other words, statistical power is the probability that the null hypothesis would be correctly rejected, which would lead to the conclusion that the phenomenon under investigation exists (Cohen, 1988; Hair et al., 2010). The current study followed the recommended sample size and desired alpha level of .05 to detect statistically significant variances at a power level of .80, which means an 80% probability of detecting that the percentage of variance (R^2) is due to a one-unit change in the independent variable and not to chance (Hair et al., 2010). In other words, given a

sample size that corresponds to the number of independent variables, and a given alpha level, the regression model would detect the statistically significant minimum variance 80% of the time it occurs (Hair et al., 2010).

Sample Size

In addition to maintaining the necessary levels of statistical power and statistical significance, Hair et al. (2010) stated, "Sample size is the single most influential element under the control of the researcher in designing the analysis" (p. 174). Passmore and Baker (2005) stated, "A sample must be large enough to estimate population parameters precisely enough to allow decisions to be made based on data" (p. 55). Recent studies have cautioned against too large a sample that greatly exceeds the recommended 20:1 ratio of observations to independent variable because a large sample (e.g., 1,000+) can result in overly sensitive statistical significance test (Hair et al., 2010) just as an "overly small sample size cannot grasp the actual situation" (H. Chang & Chang, 2010, p. 136). Sample sizes of 30 observations or less are not appropriate in multiple regression models (Hair et al., 2010).

In multiple regression models, sample sizes must be reasonable enough to detect statistical power and achieve generalizability. Following the guidelines for detecting a statistically significant R^2 and permit generalizability (Hair et al., 2010), the sample size of the current study falls between the minimum 70 and preferred 280 respondents. A sample size of 70 meets the minimum size for statistical power of .80 as it would detect "minimum R^2 *values*" (Hair et al., 2010, p 174) from 23% to 36% at $\alpha = .01$ and 19% to 29% at $\alpha = .05$ and achieve the minimum 5:1 (observations to independent variables) ratio for generalizability. The desired or preferred ratio, however, for generalizability is 15 to 20 observations to independent variables for a sample size of 210 to 280, but these bigger sample sizes would detect only smaller statistically significant R^2 values of 5% to 8% at $\alpha = .01$, and 4% to 6% at $\alpha = .05$. Using the 15:1 ratio and with 14 independent variables (two leadership styles, six communication styles, and six control variables), the minimum sample size of the current study would be $n = 200$ respondents for each subsample (United States and Philippines) to maintain a statistical power of .80 but

would target at least 280 respondents to increase the generalizability of the results because it maximizes the degrees of freedom (Hair et al., 2010).

Sampling

Given that the theoretical basis of the study is on the construction of relationships between people at the dyadic level, the unit of analysis of the study was individuals. The sample of the current study was drawn from domestic bank organizations in the United States and the Philippines. The choice of financial organizations, specifically banks, was in recognition of the critical role that leadership style, communication style, and interpersonal relationships play in the financial industry (e.g., Y. Lee, 2011; Lindorff & Peck, 2010; Riaz, Akram, & Ijaz, 2011; Sherwood, Wolfe, & Staley, 2005; Weese, 2005). Weese (2005) argued that the nature of leadership within financial organizations needs to move beyond the stereotypical and monolithic to that which promotes adaptability toward change. Thus, the choice fills a critical need for leadership development within the financial sector. More importantly, homogeneity is critical to the generalizability of the study in order that the sample may be more representative of the survey population (Babbie, 1990). The current study, therefore, limited the survey population to a specific type of financial organization. Although distinct national regulatory differences govern bank institutions in different countries, the nature of bank operations is fairly similar, if not standard, across different national economies, thus may lend itself to comparability in cross-cultural studies.

With generalizability a goal of the current study, estimating and reducing sampling error requires the use of probability sampling (Babbie, 1990). Sampling error is the inherent error present when making inferences about a population using a sample or when estimating population parameters from sample statistics (Passmore & Baker, 2005). According to Babbie (1990), sampling error may be reduced with a large sample or ensuring that the survey population is as homogenous as possible. Among several types of probability sampling, the current study used a stratified sampling approach where samples are drawn from a homogenous survey population, thus permitting a greater degree of representativeness than simple random sampling and systematic random sampling

(Babbie, 1990).

In probability sampling, each person in the population has an equal chance of being chosen for the study (Babbie, 1990; Kerliner & Lee, 2000; Nardi, 2009), thus random sampling. Kirk (1990) defined random sampling as the "method of drawing samples from a population such that every possible sample of a particular size has an equal chance of being selected" (p. 8) such that the resulting samples are random. Probability sampling uses random selection to eliminate any form of subjective selection of the target respondents and those not selected (Bartlett, 2005). Inferences made using nonprobability sample are unreliable and inaccurate (Wolverton, 2009) because in nonprobability sampling the chances of selection are unknown, thus may be zero but is known (nonzero) in probability sampling (Babbie, 1990). With stratified random selection of respondents, generalization of the results can be made with a degree of reliability and accuracy to the survey population (Nardi, 2009).

Instrumentation

Creswell (2009) stated that rigorous data collection and analysis in quantitative design requires the use of reliable and valid scale instruments. The current study used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X Rater Form; see Appendix A) to measure the independent variables, transformational and transactional leadership styles; the Communication Style Inventory (CSI Rater Version; see Appendix B) to measure the mediating variables leader communication styles; and Leader–Member Exchange Questionnaire (LMX-7; see Appendix C) to measure the dependent variable quality of LMX relationship.

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (5X Short Form) Rater Version

Bass and Avolio (1997) developed the 45-item MLQ-5X survey instrument to measure transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles. The current study measured transformational (16 items) and transactional (12 items) leadership styles only. The scale on transformational leadership measures four factors with four items each: idealized influence (attributed), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. The scale on

transactional leadership measures three factors with four items each: contingent reward, management-by-exception (active), and management-by-exception (passive). Examples of transactional leadership questions are "Instills pride in me for being associated with him/her," "Talks optimistically about the future," "Reexamines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate," and "Spends time teaching and coaching." Examples of questions on transactional leadership are "Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts"; "Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards"; and "Fails to interfere until problems become serious."

The respondent answers the questions on a 5-point Likert-type rating scale from 0-4, with 0 = *not at all*, 1 = *once in a while*, 2 = *sometimes*, 3 = *fairly often*, and 4 = *frequently, if not always*. Studies have indicated high internal consistency for transformational leadership with Cronbach's alpha ranging from α = .84 to α = .99 (Epitropaki & Martin, 2013; Goodwin, Whittington, Murray, & Nichols, 2011; Lam & O'Higgins, 2012; Sahaya, 2012; Simola, Barling, & Turner, 2010; Washburn, 2012; Zopiatis & Constanti, 2012) and transactional leadership α = .70 to α = .83 (Alabduljader, 2012; Epitropaki & Martin, 2013; Liu et al., 2011; Luu, 2012). The criterion validity of the MLQ-5X has been well-established in a wide variety of studies such as predicting employee job satisfaction (Lam & O'Higgins, 2012; Zahari & Shurbagi, 2012), quality of LMX relationship (O'Donnel et al., 2012; Shunlong & Weiming, 2012), and follower motivation (Chaudhry, Javed, & Sabir, 2012). Rowold and Heinitz (2007) found high convergent validity between transformational and charismatic leadership and divergent validity with transactional leadership.

Communication Styles Inventory

The CSI (Rater Version) was developed by De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Konings, et al. (2011) based on a lexical study on communication style dimensions (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Siberg, et al., 2009) to measure six domain-level communicative behavior subscales: (a) expressiveness, (b) preciseness, (c) verbal aggressiveness, (d) questioningness, (e) emotionality, and (f) impression manipulativeness. The CSI is a 96-item instrument comprising 16 items per

subscale, and each subscale measures four facets of the domain-level behavior. For example, the 16 items on expressiveness measures four facets: talkativeness, conversational dominance, humor, and informality. Respondents answer the questions on a 5-point Likert-type rating scale ranging from 1-5, with 1 = *completely disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 3 = *neutral*, 4 = *agree*, and 5 = *completely agree*. Examples of questions in the CSI are "He/she always has a lot to say" (expressiveness); "When he/she tells a story, the different parts are always clearly related to each other" (preciseness); "If something displeases him/her, he/she sometimes explode in anger" (verbal aggressiveness); "He/she often say unexpected things" (questioningness); "When he/she sees others cry, he/she has difficulty holding back my tears" (emotionality); and "He/she sometimes praise somebody at great length, without being really genuine, in order to make them like him/her" (impression manipulativeness).

In validating the new instrument, De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Konings, et al. (2011) examined the psychometric properties using two samples—respondents from the community (community sample) and student sample. Internal consistency of the community sample for all six subscales ranged from α = .82 to α = .88 and α = .83 to α = .87 for the student sample. These reliabilities are consistent with the lexical dimensions of communication styles found by De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, and Oostenveld (2010) showing Cronbach's alpha ranging from α = .68 to α = .92. De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Konings, et al. (2011) found medium to strong convergent and discriminant validity between the lexical communication marker scales (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Siberg, et al., 2009), communication style scale (Gudykunst, Matsumoto, et al., 1996; Leung & Bond, 2001), verbal aggressiveness scale (Infante & Rancer, 1982), and argumentativeness scale (Infante & Wigley, 1986). Strong criterion validity was established in relation to personality domain-level scales (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Konings, et al., 2011) using the HEXACO Personality Inventory (Ashton & Lee, 2008; Lee & Ashton, 2004) and NEO-PI-R (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

Leader–Member Exchange Questionnaire

The LMX-7 measured the dimensionality of the quality of LMX relationship (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The LMX-7 is a seven-item unidimensional instrument that specifically measures the effectiveness of the working relationship between a leader and follower as the indicator of a quality relationship (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The LMX-7 is a 5-point Likert-type rating scale from 1-5. The rating description varies in all seven questions, thus 1 = *rarely, not a bit, none, strongly disagree, or extremely ineffective*, 2 = *occasionally, a little, small, disagree, or worse than average*, 3 = *sometimes, a fair amount, moderate, neutral, or average*, 4 = *fairly often, quite a bit, mostly, high, agree, or better than average*, and 5 = *very often, a great deal, fully, very high, strongly agree, or extremely effective*. Sample items include "Do you know where you stand with your leader and do you usually know how satisfied your leader is with what you do?" "How well does you leader recognize your potential?" and "How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader?"

Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) found that the homogeneity of the instrument has been consistent across different studies with Cronbach's alpha for the single dimension ranging from $\alpha = .80$ to $\alpha = .90$. Gerstner and Day (1997) performed a meta-analytic review of LMX and found that LMX-7 has the "soundest psychometric properties of all the LMX instruments reviewed" (p. 827), which indicates high construct validity in relation to criterion outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, follower performance). Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) found strong content validity of the Servant Leadership Scale (SLS) with LMX-7 revealing strong correlations with the dimensions of the SLS, empowerment, humility, stewardship, authenticity, and standing back. Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) found strong convergent validity between five dimensions of SLS and LMX-7. More recent studies have indicated that LMX-7 has strong psychometric properties to measure the quality of leader–member relationship as shown by high internal consistency ranging from $\alpha = .70$ to $\alpha = .92$ (e.g., Davis & Bryant, 2010; van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011; Vukonjanski, Nikolic, Hadzic, Terek, & Nedeljkovic, 2012; Yukl et al., 2009).

Data Collection

Data collection followed a three-step process: (a) creation and distribution of the validated instruments through an online portal, (b) data preparation and code development in SPSS, and (c) response rate analysis.

Creation and Distribution of Validated Instruments

The validated survey instruments (MLQ-5X Rater Form, CSI, and LMX-7) were created and distributed through Survey Gizmo, an online survey research service. The use of online survey tools has been increasing and becoming more typical for organizational and academic purposes over the past decade (Nesbary, 2000; Sue & Ritter, 2007). Over the last few years, advances in techniques and technology such as systematic sampling methods, enhanced questionnaire design, and computerized and integrated data analysis has made survey research more scientific and popular (Evans & Mathur, 2005). Online survey research offers several advantages over the traditional paper-and-pencil approach (Comley & Beaumont, 2011; Evans & Mathur, 2005; Furner, 2011; Granello & Wheaton, 2004; Tingling, Parent, & Wade, 2003; Van Selm & Jankowski, 2006). Online surveys reach a greater number of potential respondents (global reach) and may have better response rates (speed), quicker response times (timeliness), and lower cost; and they also facilitate ease of data integration with the analytical program (Creswell, 2009; Evans & Mathur, 2005; Granello & Wheaton, 2004).

Online survey services typically maintain a large database of respondents (e.g., email database) referred to as panels (or audience) from which a pool or list could be drawn as a sampling frame. Online panel access is "a pool of registered and profiled people who have agreed to participate in online surveys" (Comley & Beaumont, 2011, p. 316). Online panel services offer faster research, niche targeting of respondents, low cost, and wider sampling frames (Comley & Beaumont, 2011). Overcoming the challenge of soliciting respondents across two countries, the current study used online panel providers (Comley & Beaumont, 2011; Evans & Mathur, 2005) to achieve the minimum target sample using carefully defined criteria, which narrowly seeks samples from domestic bank organizations in the United States. Panel services were not readily available in the

Philippines. Data were collected by direct contact with bank organizations and individuals.

Although sample bias (Pitkow & Recker, 1995; Sheehan & Hoy, 1999) or sample representativeness is a major concern in using online survey research (Kay & Johnson, 1999; Van Selm & Jankowski, 2006), it is possible to achieve an acceptable level of randomness and sample representativeness by ensuring random assignment of email addresses, use of stratified random samples, and using of sampling frame from list of users (Kay & Johnson, 1999) such as financial organizations. Schaefer and Dillman (1998) suggested that mitigating the unbalanced representation, which is referred to as the ''digital divide'' (p. 224), can be made possible among a population with high technological familiarity, such as domestic bank organizations. Selecting a sample from a list drawn from a homogenous industry or group can mitigate the risk of panel sample bias (Schaefer & Dillman, 1998).

Data Preparation and Codebook Development

Following the completion of data collection in the United States and the Philippines, the data were defined and each variable labeled. All items relating to each variable were labeled according to the concept it measured, including the subscales. The response scales were then numerically coded according to the scale numbers of the Likert scale of the validated scale. Each demographic variable was also coded. For example, age was coded as 0 = *under 18*, 1 = *18 to 24*, 2 = *25 to 34*, 3 = *35 to 54*, and 4 = *55 and above*. Education was coded as 1 = *bachelor's degree*, 2 = *some postgraduate master's*, 3 = *master's degree*, 4 = *some postgraduate PhD*, and 5 = *PhD*. Employment was coded as 0 = *less than 1 year*, 1 = *1 to 2 years*, 2 = *3 to 4 years*, and 4 = *more than 6 years*. Gender was coded as 1 = *male* and 2 = *female*. Nationality was coded as 1 = *United States* and 2 = *Philippines*. Lastly, position was coded as 1 = *Supervisor* and 2 = *Nonsupervisor*.

Response Rate Analysis

The unit of analysis of the current study is the individual working in domestic banks in the United States and the Philippines. Table 1 presents the demographic profile of the respondents. Data collection was conducted in the

United States and the Philippines for a period of 1 month. Respondents were invited in person through managers of local bank branches, formal letters to local bank associations (see Appendix D), use of online panel services, posting in an online social networking site (e.g., LinkedIn), and by email to individual social relations (e.g., family, friends) working in domestic banks. A total of $N = 441$ usable surveys were collected. Participation through local bank branches, bank associations, and online social networking sites yielded a combined response rate of 51%. Babbie (1990) stated that a response rate of 50% is generally sufficient and considered acceptable for analysis and reporting. Although response rates have no statistical basis (Babbie, 1990), a metareview of response rates in survey research suggests a minimum of 30% (Anseel, Lievens, Schollaert, & Choragwicka, 2010). Rogelberg and Stanton (2007) suggested that the guidelines on response rates fall anywhere from 30% to 50%.

For the U.S. sample, a total of 1,000 individuals were invited to complete the survey of which 571 filled out the online survey. Of this number, 358 surveys were partially completed with substantial missing data, thus they were removed from the database. A total of 213 respondents provided complete and usable surveys, representing a 37.3% response rate for the U.S. sample. Although this response rate meets the 30% minimum guidelines (Anseel et al., 2010; Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007), it is low relative to the response rate of the RP sample. A review of the unusable surveys indicated that the length of the combined survey instruments deterred respondents. In total, there were 137 items on the combined survey. The majority of the U.S. respondents who did not complete the survey stopped at the end of the MLQ section and did not proceed to the 96-item Leader Communication Style section.

Data collection for the RP sample was done by direct contact through banks and individuals. Employing a convenience sampling approach to reach the minimum required sampling size, heads of organizational development divisions at the corporate level of domestic banks were approached and formal letters were also sent to local bank associations requesting them to participate by soliciting participants in the study. The online link to the survey was sent to the division

heads who then solicited and distributed the online survey within their organizations. Individual social relations (family and friends) were invited by email as well. A total of 300 respondents complete the online survey. Of this number, 228 were usable for a response rate of 76%.

Table 1: Demographic Profile of Participants ($N = 441$)

Demographics	U.S. ($N = 213$) number / %	RP ($N = 228$) number / %
Age		
18-24	24 / 11.3	39 / 17.1
25-34	67 / 31.5	93 / 40.8
35-54	90 / 42.3	93 / 40.8
55 +	32 / 15	3 / 1.3
Education		
Bachelor's	148 / 69.5	174 / 76.3
Some master's courses	19 / 8.9	27 / 11.8
Master's	36 / 16.9	21 / 9.2
Some PhD courses	5 / 2.3	6 / 2.6
PhD	5 / 2.3	0 / 0
Employment		
Employment		
Less than 1 year	18 / 8.5	18 / 7.9
1-2 years	42 / 19.7	51 / 22.4
3-4 years	45 / 21.1	30 / 13.2
5-6	29 / 13.6	45 / 19.7
More than 6 years	79 / 37.1	84 / 36.8
Gender		
Male	72 / 33.8	66 / 28.9
Female	141 / 66.2	162 / 71.1
Position		
Supervisor	78 / 36.6	78 / 34.2
Nonsupervisor	135 / 63.4	147 / 64.5

Variables

Torgeson (1985) suggested that for all construct to be useful scientifically, a construct must have an operational definition that is more than just constitutive. Constitutive definitions define a construct using other constructs while operational definition "assigns meaning to a construct or a variable by specifying the activities or 'operations' necessary to measure it and evaluate the measurement" (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000, p. 42). Hair et al. (2010) stated that operationalizing a construct is a "key process in the measurement model involving determination of measured variables that will represent a construct and the way in which they will be measured" (p. 615). An operational definition is a manual instruction to the researcher that spells out what the researcher must do to measure and evaluate the measurement (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Operationalizing the variables of the study begins with a good theoretical definition, then selecting its measurement scale items and scale type (Hair et al., 2010). In survey research, developing a new scale or using validated scales from prior research are the two ways to operationalize a construct or variable (Hair et al., 2010). In the current study, the relationship of the independent variables, *leadership styles*, and mediating variables, *leader communication styles,* are expected to significantly predict the dependent variable, *quality of LMX relationship.* Leader communication styles are expected to mediate the relationship between leadership styles and quality of LMX relationships.

Independent Variables: Leadership Styles

Leadership styles comprises transformational and transactional leadership. The MLQ-5X measures 16 items of transformational leadership: (a) Items 10, 18, 21, and 25 measure attributed idealized influence; (b) Items 9, 13, 26, and 36 measure inspirational motivation; (c) Items 2, 8, 30, and 32 measure intellectual stimulation; and (d) Items 15, 19, 29, and 31 measure individual consideration. Three dimensions comprising 12 items measures transactional leadership: (a) Items 1, 11, 16, and 35 measure contingent reward; (b) Items 4, 22, 24, and 27 measure management-by-exception (active); and (c) Items 3, 12, 17, and 20 measure management-by-exception (passive). All item scores were summated and averaged

into a single composite score for transformational leadership style and a single composite score for transactional leadership style.

Mediating Variables: Communication Styles

Communication styles comprises six dimensions. The CSI (English version) measures 96 items. Items 1, 7, 13, 19, 25, 31, 37, 43, 49, 55, 61, 67, 73, 79, 85, and 91 measure expressiveness; Items 2, 8, 14, 20, 26, 32, 38, 44, 50, 56, 62, 68, 74, 80, 86, and 92 measure preciseness; Items 3, 9, 15, 21, 27, 33, 39, 45, 51, 57, 63, 69, 75, 81, 87, and 93 measure verbal aggressiveness; Items 4, 10, 16, 22, 28, 34, 40, 46, 52, 58, 64, 70, 76, 82, 88, and 94 measure questioningness; Items 5, 11, 17, 23, 29, 35, 41, 47, 53, 59, 65, 71, 77, 83, 89, and 95 measure emotionality; and Items 6, 12, 18, 24, 30, 36, 42, 48, 54, 60, 66, 72, 78, 84, 90, and 96 measure impression manipulativeness.

Dependent Variable: Leader–Member Exchange

Quality of LMX relationship is a single-dimension variable. The LMX-7 measures seven items that refer to a leader or a follower, and the scores reflect the quality of the relationship as well as the degree to which the relationship is characteristic of the LMX model (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Control Variables

Control variables are variables whose effect on a dependent variable may need to be nullified, minimized, or isolated (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). In nonexperimental designs, controlling for variables other than those under investigation would mitigate the influence of any extraneous factors that may render the results spurious, which means that the relationship is false or misleading (Hair et al., 2010), because extraneous factors may provide other plausible explanations of the causal inferences. In the current study, nullifying, minimizing, or isolating the effect of extraneous variables requires controlling for age, gender, tenure (years of employment), position (supervisor, nonsupervisor), educational level, and nationality. Studies have shown that maturation in terms of age is a "general" and typical extraneous variable that reflects a "change or growth in the organism under study" (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000, p. 470). Similarly, studies have

shown that gender influences quality of LMX (Bhal, Ansari, et al., 2007; Rai, 2009). Tenure is included because it reflects an individual maturation in work experience, and it is directly related to employee commitment, which impacts leader–member relationships (e.g., Bhal, Ansari, et al., 2007; Kang, Stewart, & Kim, 2011). Xiaqi et al. (2012) suggested that position (e.g., supervisor) may lead to some degree of negative leadership (e.g., abusive behaviors), which affects the development of trust in LMX. For position, as job level increases, job satisfaction increases as well (Robie, Ryan, Schmieder, Parra, & Smith, 1998), and job satisfaction is directly related to LMX (Guohong, 2010; O'Donnel et al., 2012). Schyns, Kroon, and Moors (2008) suggested that high level of education has a positive influence on perceptions of LMX. Dimensions of culture have also been found to influence perceptions of LMX (e.g., Bhal, Ansari, et al., 2007; Ouyang, 2011; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006).

Data Analysis

Assuming that all parametric assumptions of normality, homogeneity of variance (homoscedasticity), linearity, and independence of observations (or error terms) are met (Hair et al., 2010), the current study used the independent-samples *t* test, hierarchical multiple regression analysis, and test for mediation as the methods of statistical analysis to test the dependence relationship of leadership style, leader communication styles, and LMX relationship and to determine significant differences between two diverse cultural sample groups.

Multiple Regression Analysis

The primary objective of the current study is to test whether leadership styles would predict leader communication styles, which in turn predict the quality of LMX relationship, and test whether leader communication styles would mediate the relationship between leadership style and quality of LMX relationship. With one dependent (criterion) variable and several independent (predictor) variables, the appropriate statistical technique of analysis is hierarchical multiple regression analysis, which is a regression model of predicting a single dependent variable with values of several independent variables (Hair et al., 2010) sequentially (Pallant,

2007) or as an ordered set of predictors (Green & Salkind, 2011). Multiple regression analysis is a dependence technique that uses metric data (Hair et al., 2010) to study the "effects and the magnitudes of more than one independent variable on one dependent variable, using the principles of correlation and regression" (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000, p. 755). In hierarchical multiple regression, sets of independent variables are entered into the regression equation (models) in steps (or blocks) to assess the variance each set and individual independent variable adds to the prediction of the dependent variable controlling for other variables and whether the variance is not due to chance or statistically significant. In the current study, hierarchical multiple regression would determine how much of the variance in the quality of LMX relationship can be explained by leadership styles and leader communication styles.

With the aid of SPSS statistical program Version 21, data analysis proceeded as follows:

Step 1: Prepared a codebook by creating and defining variables by coding scale responses of each respondent with a unique variable name and transforming variables by reverse scoring negative questions.

Step 2: Calculated individual scores for each independent and dependent variables by summating and averaging each item response on all nine subscales (Hair et al., 2010).

Step 3: Ran hierarchical multiple regression analysis in SPSS. In SPSS, control variables (age, gender, tenure, position, educational level, nationality) were entered in Step 1 (Block 1), independent variables (leadership styles) in Step 2 (Block 2), and mediating variables (communication styles) in Step 3 (Block 3). The dependent variable, LMX, was entered in the dependent variable box.

Step 4: Performed preliminary analysis to examine the assumptions of regression analysis are met. This step involved examining normality of population, homoscedasticity of variables, and linearity of data.

Step 5: Estimated the regression model and assess over model fit by examining the R^2 (coefficient of determination), adjusted R^2,

standard error of the estimate, and statistical significance of the

regression coefficients (Hair et al., 2010).

Step 6: Interpreted the regression variate by evaluating the predicted

equation with the regression coefficients, evaluated the relative

importance of the independent variables with the beta coefficients,

and assessed the predictive effects of the regression models.

Hierarchical multiple regression is an extension of bivariate regression and correlation analysis (Green & Salkind, 2011). Data analysis included examination of the bivariate and correlation results to test for significant regression variates, H_1^a to H_4^b, which are necessary in testing for mediation (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Frazier, Tix, & Barron, 2004).

Test for Mediation

According to Baron and Kenny (1986), mediation explains the how or the why of a causal model. Mediation or mediator variables are the mechanism through which a predictor explains a criterion or outcome variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). In contrast to moderator research, mediator research is "more interested in the mechanism than in the exogenous variable itself" (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p. 1178). In predicting quality of leader–member relationship, the current study attempts to explain how communication styles as a mechanism construct the leadership relationship. Testing for the mediation effect of leader communication style, as hypothesized in H_5^a and H_5^b, requires the estimation of a series of three regression models (Judd & Kenny, 1981). The purpose of estimating three regression models is to establish the existence of bivariate (zero-order) relationships among the variables (MacKinnon, Coxe, & Baraldi, 201; MacKinnon, Fairchild, & Fritz, 2007; MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002). To test for mediation, one must estimate the following regression models: (a) variations in levels of the independent variables significantly account for variations in the presumed mediator, (b) variations in the mediator significantly account for variations in the dependent variable, and (c) variations in the independent variables approach a nonsignificant level in relation to the dependent variable, following or after the addition of the mediator (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

In the current study, to establish mediation the following regression conditions must hold: (a) significant regression of the mediator, leader communication styles on the independent variables, leadership styles; (b) significant regression of the dependent variable, quality of LMX relationship to the independent variables, leadership styles, which are tested in H_1^a to H_4^b; and (c) significant regression of the mediator, leader communication styles, to both the independent and dependent variable (Judd & Kenny, 1981). If these conditions hold, the effect (or zero-order correlation) of the independent variable on the dependent variable must be less in the third equation (Baron & Kenny, 1986), in order to demonstrate the mediating role of leader communication styles. Baron and Kenny stated that "perfection mediation" occurs when the independent variable has no effect when the mediator is controlled (p. 1177), which means that the direct effect in the second regression equation (model) becomes nonsignificant after the addition of the mediator variable. In other words, there is complete (full) mediation if the mediator completely explains the relationship between the independent and dependent variables, and there is partial mediation if the regression coefficient decreases but remains significant between the independent and dependent variables (Hair et al., 2010).

It is possible that the mediation effect moves in the opposite direction. Meyers, Gamst, and Guarino (2013a) referred to this as a "suppression effect" (p. 402). A suppression effect enhances the predictive power of the independent variable such that the mediator accounts for some of the variance of the independent variable that does not explain variations in the dependent variable. In other words, the addition of the mediator makes the effect of the independent variable stronger than the mediator, thus the mediator explains the variance but in the opposite direction.

Independent-Samples t Test

Although an analysis of variance (ANOVA) table is given in multiple regression analysis, it is necessary to run a separate *t* test to compare differences between the U.S. and RP sample. The *t* test determines whether the means of the two independent groups coded categorically would significantly differ on a metric

or quantitatively measured dependent variable (Meyers et al., 2013b). The *t* test evaluates whether the mean value of the test variable for one group differs significantly from the mean value for the second group (Green & Salkind, 2011). One-way between-subjects ANOVA is the generalized form of independent-samples *t* test and is typically used instead, but because a post hoc test is not possible unless the grouping variable is three or more and the current study is limited to two independent groups, a *t* test would be used to compare differences in preferences for leadership styles, leader communication styles, and LMX. Moreover, in ANOVA the Levene's test for equality of variance, which examines the homogeneity of variance assumption (2013b), does not provide an alternative *F* value in the same way a *t* test would provide an alternative *t* value when the assumption is violated.

A *t* test was conducted to determine whether there is a significant mean difference between the U.S. and RP sample in preferences for leadership styles, leader communication styles, and LMX as test variables. The current study examines the mean and standard deviations of the two sample groups and Levene's test for homogeneity by examining *F-ratio* for significance (Green & Salkind, 2011; Pallant, 2009). If the *F-ratio* were significant, the current study would evaluate the results using the *t* value of equality variances not assumed. The magnitude of the mean difference was examined by calculating the following statistics: (a) strength of effect (eta square): $\eta^2 = t^2 / (t^2 + \text{degrees of freedom})$ and (b) effect size (Cohen's *d*): mean difference / weighted average standard deviation of the groups.

Eta square takes on the values 0 to 1 and explains the percentage of total variance or proportion of variance in the dependent variable explained by a levels of given effect or independent (group) variable (Meyers et al., 2013a; Pallant, 2009; Tabachnik & Fidell, 2007). Cohen's *d* is a criterion interpreting the separation of the two means in standard deviation units such that the *d* statistic renders the effect size in terms of small (.20), medium (.50), and large (.80) with .50 indicating a half a standard deviation apart (Cohen, 1988). Large effect sizes generally exceed one standard deviation (Meyers et al., 2013b).

Strengthening the Internal Validity of the Study

Kerlinger and Lee (2009) suggested that in quantitative research the conceptual and methodological design have inherent weaknesses or deficiencies that threaten the internal validity of the study. Kerlinger and Lee stated,

> All disciplined creations of humans have form. People put great stress on the content of their creations, often not realizing that without strong structure, no matter how rich and how significant the content, the creations may be weak and sterile. (p. 465)

In a nonexperimental and cross-sectional study using survey research as method of inquiry, the following are threats to the internal validity of the study: (a) control of extraneous variables, (b) sample selection bias, (c) nonresponse bias, and (d) common method variance.

Controlling for extraneous variables. Becker (2005) stated that control variables "are as important as the independent and dependent variables" (p. 275) and, unless controls are "included in studies of the X-Y relationship or of significance and effect sizes" (p. 285), the results may be viewed as simple bivariate relationships, which does not represent the contexts in which X-Y relationships exist. Although it may serve an "illusion" (K. D. Carlson & Wu, 2012, p. 414) of control and may qualify as "urban legend" (Spector & Brannick, 2010, p. 288), K. D. Carlson and Wu (2012) recommended the inclusion of control variables in the research design for purposes it serves such as reducing bias, avoiding confounding effects, and avoiding spurious findings in order to provide better or more accurate results. Spector and Brannick (2010) argued that although the treatment of control variables requires inclusion of alternative hypothesis to test the effect of control variables, "establishing relationships and ruling out potential control variables as explanations for those relationships is a reasonable first step" (p. 298) by using multiple regression analysis, which is a simple approach before pursuing more costly and difficult studies. A major strength of the current study is the use of multiple regression analysis, which permits the inclusion of control variables to partial out possible variances that may be due to the control variables.

Sample selection bias. Randomization is an important element of a good research design (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Unless selection of participants is done randomly, the internal validity of the study that "requires ruling out all alternative explanations of causality" (Wolverton, 2009, p. 373) may lead to inconclusive and problematic results such as generalizing the results (Berk, 1983; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Sample selection bias leads to internal and external validity problems because it underestimates the causal effect of the regression model (Berk, 1983), which precludes the generalizability of the results. The risk of sample selection bias emerges when "potential observations from some population of interest are excluded from the sample on a nonrandom basis" (Berk, 1983, p. 390).

One of the major strengths of the current study is the solicitation of respondents using stratified sampling approach. Stratified sampling mitigates sample selection bias by permitting random selection of participants and ensuring that the "sample proportion for the stratifying characteristic is identical to the population proportion, reducing sampling error, and improving the accuracy of inferences" (Wolverton, 2009, p. 374). Stratified sampling is a way to homogenize the population because it begins by limiting the survey population to a specific industry or group, thus increasing the representativeness of the sample to that particular survey population (Babbie, 1990).

Nonresponse bias. Nonresponse bias is a nonsampling error when the rate of nonresponse could be different from those who responded (Simsek & Viega, 2000), which leads to biased estimates of population responses (Lyness & Kropf, 2007). Nonresponse bias is a serious threat because a high rate would tend to nullify the benefit of randomization and "erodes" (Simsek & Viega, 2000, p. 98) any attempt at making the sample representative. Nonresponse bias leads to smaller data samples, which "decreases statistical power, increases the size of confidence intervals around sample statistics, and limits the type of statistical technique that could be effectively applied to the collected data" (Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007, p. 195) and, most importantly, "actual generalizability" (p. 195).

Rogelberg and Stanton (2007) discussed several ways to address nonresponse bias by using response facilitation techniques that would ensure an

acceptable level of response rate such as the aesthetic (physical) design of the survey, providing incentives, managing survey length by using theory-driver instruments, monitoring survey response, establishing survey importance, and publicizing the survey. Simsek and Viega (2001) added managing anonymity, confidentiality, and sponsorship. Another major strength of the current study is the use of electronic survey technique through an online survey service that has been shown to improve survey response rates from "19.3% to 76%" (Simsek & Viega, 2000, p. 98). An important benefit of using online survey services is improvement in response rates (Comley & Beaumont, 2011; Evans & Mathur, 2005; Furner, 2011; Granello & Wheaton, 2004; Tingling et al., 2003; Van Selm & Jankowski, 2006) because it can apply response facilitation techniques to reduce nonresponse bias (Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007).

Common method variance. In cross-sectional studies using survey research, the relationship or correlations between measured variables may be inflated as a result of common method variance (S. J. Chang, Witteloostuijn, & Eden, 2010; Lindell & Whitney, 2001; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Spector, 2006). According to Podsakoff et al. (2003), the characteristics of people such as motif, implicit theories and illusory correlations, social desirability, leniency, acquiescence bias, and emotional affectivity introduce bias into the measurement process in addition to the effect of method on the nature of the construct. Although the measurement bias that arises from common method variance refers to self-report (Spector, 2006), the current study considers this a threat because of method effects and nonpersonality factors such as consistency motif, acquiescence bias, and common rater effects (Podsakoff et al., 2003) that may have some influence on survey responses.

S. J. Chang et al. (2010) suggested ways to mitigate the potential of common method variance relating to research design and statistical analysis. In line with research design, the current study used rater versions of survey instruments to measure several factors of the independent, mediating, and dependent variables, thus separating the measurement of the predictor and criterion variables (Podsakoff et al., 2003). In addition, the research design would reduce method bias by

protecting respondent anonymity through confidentiality in order to reduce respondent apprehension for honesty (Podsakoff et al., 2003). S. J. Chang et al. stated, "Fact-based questionnaire items are less likely to be associated with CMV" (2010, p. 180).

Chapter 4 – Results

The purpose of the current study is to test several empirical propositions that relate leadership styles, leader communication styles, and impact on the quality of the leader–member exchange (LMX) relationship controlling for age, education, gender, position, length of employment, and nationality from a sample drawn among employees of domestic bank organizations in the United States and the Philippines (RP). The current study sought to determine the mediating effect of leader communication styles on the relationship between leadership style and LMX relationship. The current study further examined the effect of culture on leadership style and leader communication style by comparing differences between the U.S. subsample and RP subsample. This chapter begins with the results of preliminary analysis involving response analysis, assessment of assumptions, descriptive statistics, and reliability analysis. The results of the regression analysis, mediation effect, and group differences are then presented.

Preliminary Analysis

Following the procedures for multiple regression analysis, preliminary analyses were performed on the (a) descriptive statistics, (b) parametric assumptions of the data, and (c) internal consistencies of the validated instruments.

Descriptive Statistics

The mean and standard deviation of the variables shows the characteristics of the sample and variability of the data (see Table 2). Homogenous data tend to fall within the range, variance, and standard deviation of the data (Berenson, Levine, & Krehbiel, 2002). In addition, analysis of the range and variance restriction is a useful framework in understanding correlation (Meyers et al., 2013a). Low variability indicates a range or varaince restriction, which means the "low variability on one of the variables will produce a low value of the Pearson correlation" (Meyers et al., 2013a, p. 312); as a result, the obtained statistical result may or may not have much external validity. As Table 2 indicates, the range and variance are not restricted.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics

Variables	U.S. Sample (*N* = 213)				RP Sample (*N* = 228)			
	M	*SD*	Range	Variance	*M*	*SD*	Range	Variance
Age	2.61	.88	3.00	.77	2.26	.75	3.00	.56
Education	1.59	1.00	4.00	1.01	1.38	.76	3.00	.58
Employment	2.51	1.38	4.00	1.90	2.55	1.38	4.00	1.91
Gender	1.66	.47	1.00	.22	1.71	.45	1.00	.21
Position	1.63	.48	1.00	.23	1.65	.48	1.00	.23
Transactional	2.21	.53	3.08	.28	2.28	.47	2.08	.22
Transformational	2.56	.75	3.63	.57	2.77	.68	3.00	.46
Emotionality	2.87	.59	2.88	.35	2.66	.55	2.69	.30
Expressiveness	3.37	.40	2.63	.16	3.30	.37	2.63	.14
Impression manipulativeness	2.90	.48	2.63	.23	2.81	.44	1.81	.20
Preciseness	3.36	.60	3.25	.36	3.44	.52	2.44	.27
Questioningness	3.00	.52	2.88	.27	3.19	.38	2.44	.15
Verbal aggressiveness	2.72	.71	3.88	.51	2.59	.63	2.94	.40
LMX	3.56	.87	4.00	.75	3.69	.73	2.86	.53

Analysis of Parametric Assumptions

Following the procedures detailed by Hair et al. (2010), the assumptions in multiple regression analysis were examined by assessing the multicollinearity of the independent varaibles, normality of the distribution, homoscedasticity of the individual variables and variate, and linearity of the data. Ideally, interpretation of the coefficients of the regression variate depends on and is affected by the collinearity of the independent variables (Hair et al., 2010). High multicollinearity increases the standard error of the model, thus making it difficult to demonstrate that the regression coefficients are significantly different from zero (Hair et al., 2010). Multicollinearity is measured by tolerance and the variance inflation factor (VIF). Tolerance is the amount of variability of a specified independent variable not explained by the other independent variables in the variate. VIF is the inverse of tolerance. Low tolerance and high VIF indicate high multicollinearity. The cutoff threshold for tolerance value is .10, which corresponds to a VIF of 10 (1.0 / .10 = 10). The square root of the VIF is 3.16, which indicates that the standard error of the model has been inflated three times (Hair et al., 2010). The tolerance value of .10 and VIF of 10 corresponds to a multiple correlation of .95 with other independent variables. As shown in the collinearity statistics (see Appendix E), the tolerance values are above the .10 threshold and VIF values within the acceptable levels of standard error, which indicates that the multicollinearity assumption was met.

In paramteric statistics, data or score normality refers to the shape of the sample distribution to have been drawn from a normally distributed distribution (Hair et al., 2010; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). The results of the normality test indicate that the scores are normally distributed (see Appendix F). Homoscedasticity is the next most important assumption in multiple regression analysis (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Homoscedasticity assumes the equality of variance, which means that the variability of the scores within the groups are statistically the same. The Levene's test for equality of variance for each individual variable indicates that variables with $p < .05$ do not meet the homoscedasticity assumption. Although four of the nine variables violate this assumption, parametric tests are robust enough to

correctly reject the null hypothesis when it is actually false, "if the populations are not too far off from normality" (Kerliner & Lee, 2000, p. 416). Given that all variables appear to be normally distributed, no remedies are necessary. The linearity assumption predicts that scores will fall along an upward diagonal line such that the linearity of the phenomenon represents an association of the dependent variable with the independent variables (Hair et al., 2010). The normal probability plot (P-P) of the data as represented by the regression standardized residuals fall along a linear pattern of relationship (see Appendix G).

Reliability Analysis

Reliability is a critical psychometric property in parametric testing. All forms of empirical investigation using summated scales must possess an acceptable degree of dependability, stability, consistency, and predictability (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000) in measuring the phenomenon or concept under investigation. Reliability may be measured across different times for consistency, but a second and most common way of measuring the internal consistency of an instrument is to determine whether the scale items (variables) in a summated scale are highly correlated to ensure that the scale is measuring the concepts under investigation (Hair et al., 2010). The internal consistency of the entire scale based on interitem correlation is represented by the reliability coefficient, also known as coefficient alpha or Cronbach's alpha (α). In scale development, the minimum acceptable level of reliability is α = .60, but for other parametric tests such as multiple regression analysis the minimum acceptable level is α = .70 (Hair et al., 2010).

A reliability analysis was performed to examine the internal consistency of nine subscales comprising the transformational and transactional leadership style subscales of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ; Bass &Avolio, 1997), expressiveness, preciseness, verbal aggressiveness, questioningness, emotionality, and impression management subscales of the Communication Style Inventory (CSI; De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Konings, et al., 2011), and the unidimensioanal Leader–Member Exchange (LMX-7; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) instrument. The Cronbach's alpha for each subscale under the combined samples (*N* = 441) generally met and exceeded the α = .70 minimum level of acceptability

(see Table 3). The U.S. and RP samples consistently followed the internal consistencies of the combined samples with the exception of the subscale on questioningness for the RP sample falling slightly below the minimum at $\alpha = .69$.

As indicated in Table 3, the reliability of transformational and transactional leadership styles for the combined sample is $\alpha = .91$ and $\alpha = .70$, respectively. For the U.S. sample, reliability was $\alpha = .92$ and $\alpha = .70$; while in the RP sample, reliability was $\alpha = .91$ and $\alpha = 72$, respectively. These reliability coefficients are consistent with the range of $\alpha = .84$ to $\alpha = .99$ reported on previous studies on transformational leadership styles (e.g., Epitropaki & Martin, 2013; Goodwin et al., 2011; Lam & O'Higgins, 2012; Sahaya, 2012; Simola et al., 2010; Washburn, 2012; Zopiatis & Constanti, 2012) and transactional leadership $\alpha = .70$ to $\alpha = .83$ (Alabduljader, 2012; Epitropaki & Martin, 2013; Liu et al., 2011; Luu, 2012).

Table 3: Reliability of Scale Instruments

Scale/Subscale	Cronbach's alpha		
	Combined ($N = 441$)	U.S. Sample ($N = 213$)	RP Sample ($N = 228$)
MLQ-5x	.91	.91	.91
Transformational	.91	.92	.91
Transactional	.70	.70	.72
CSI	.81	.84	.76
Expressiveness	.70	.71	.70
Preciseness	.86	.86	.85
Verbal Aggressiveness	.88	.89	.87
Questioningness	.74	.78	.69
Emotionality	.85	.84	.85
Impression manipulativeness	.71	.70	.72
LMX	.89	.91	.88

Consistent with the initial reliabilities established by the authors of the CSI showing internal consistency ranging from $\alpha = .68$ to $\alpha = .92$ (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, 2010) and $\alpha = .82$ to $\alpha = .88$ (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Konings, et al., 2011), the 96-item instrument comprising nine subscales with 16 items per subscale measuring four facets of the domain-level behavior used in the current study displayed acceptable reliabilities from $\alpha = .70$ to $\alpha = .88$. The range of reliabilities is slightly higher with the U.S. sample but more aligned with the RP sample as evidenced by $\alpha = .69$ for the subscale on questioningness, which is similar to the reliability of the subscale of argumentativeness at $\alpha = .68$ reported by De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, and Oostenveld (2010). In the study of De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Konings, et al. (2011), argumentativeness was included as a facet of the subscale on questioningness.

The seven-item unidimensial LMX-7 (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), which measures quality relationships in the workplace, shows high internal consistency ranging from $\alpha = .89$ for the combined sample, $\alpha = .91$ for the U.S. sample, and $\alpha = .88$ for the RP sample. In a meta-study, Gerstner and Day (1997) concluded that LMX-7 manifested sound psychometric properties across a variety of studies. The reliabilities of the current study are consistent with the previously reported reliability range of $\alpha = .80$ to $\alpha = .90$ (1997) and $\alpha = .70$ to $\alpha = .92$ (e.g., Davis & Bryant, 2010; van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011; Vukonjanski et al., 2012; Yukl et al., 2009).

Regression Analysis: Testing of Hypotheses

Baron and Kenny (1986) recommended estimating three regression equations to test the mediation linkages of the hypothesized model. Baron and Kenny stated, "There is no need for hierarchical or stepwise regression" (p. 1177) in the estimation of mediated relationships. Partialling out the effects of control variables, however, the current study conducted a series of hierarchical multiple regression equations to estimate three regression models for the U.S. and RP samples. Bivariate correlations are presented for the U.S. (see Table 4) and RP (see Table 5) samples to examine the correlations of the independent variables,

leadership styles, and leader communication styles for covariation. The presence of significant covariation patterns makes accurate prediction possible in regression models.

Regression of Mediator Variable (Leader's Communication Style) on Leadership Styles

The first condition of a mediated relationship is to determine whether there is a significant relationship between the independent and mediator variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Meyers et al. (2013a, 2013b) stated that the independent variable must significantly "act through" (p. 401) the mediator variable in isolation because mediation does not make sense and is not possible unless it can be demonstrated that the independent variable could influence the mediator. The first regression model examined whether transformational and transactional leadership styles predicted leader communcation styles.

Controlling for age, education, employment, gender, and position, the results for the U.S. sample (Model 1; see Table 6) indicate that the regression is significant, $R = .58$, $p < .01$. Leadership styles explained 58% of the variance in leader communication styles, which accounted for an incremental change of 17% ($R^2 = .17$, $p < .01$) over the variance explained by control variables. The regression model shows that the standardized coefficient (β), which explains the relative contribution of a variable compared to other variables in the regression equation (Hair et al., 2010), suggest that transformational leadership has a negative relationship with leader communication styles, $\beta = -.20$, $p < .01$, but is significantly positive for transactional leadership, $\beta = .50$, $p < .01$. The results for the RP sample (Model 1; see Table 7) also indicate that leadership styles predicted leader communication styles, $R = .34$, $p < .01$. The regression model for the RP sample explained 34% of the variance in leader communication styles, which accounted for an incremental change of 11% ($R^2 = .11$, $p < .01$) over the variance explained by control variables. Although transformational leadership shows a negative causal relationship, $\beta = -.46$, $p < .01$, but positive for transactional leadership, $\beta = .33$, $p < .01$, the overall model is significant for the U.S. samle ($F[7, 205] = 14.97$, $p < .01$) and the RP sample ($F[7, 217] = 4.14$, $p < .01$).

The negative relationship of transformational leadership style with leader communication styles may be due to strong collinearity with transactional leadership. The bivariate correlation of transactional leadership with transformational leadership for the U.S. sample, $r = .53$, $p < .01$, and RP sample, $r = .68$, $p < .01$, indicates high multicollinearity. Multicollinearity tends to hide the true relationship between an independent variable that covaries with another independent variable with the dependent variable and confounds the estimation of the regression coefficients (Hair et al., 2010). The result indicates that the shared variance of transactional leadership with transformational leadership hides the true contribution of transformational leadership in the regression equation. One remedy for high multicollinearity is to remove the highly correlated independent variables (Hair et al., 2010), but the removal of transformational leadership in the regression model to reveal the true relationship of transformational leadership with LMX may lead to specification error, which seriously leads to bias in model interpretation as a result of the removal or ommission of a relevant variable (Hair et al., 2010).

As Hair et al. (2010) recommended, the current study used the estimated regression model for prediction only and no attempt to interpret the negative regression coefficient of transformational leadership will be made. Hair et al., instead, recommended the use of the bivariate correlations "between each independent variable and the dependent variable to understand the independent-dependent variable relationship" (p. 205). With bivariate correlations as the basis for accurate predictions, which are statistically tested in simple linear regression (Meyers et al., 2013a, 2013b), and extended in multiple regression analysis, the bivariate correlations of the individual correlations of leadership styles and leader communication styles are presented.

Transformational leadership. The current study argued that transformational leadership style is negatively related to the leader communication styles of expressiveness, verbal aggressiveness, and questioningness but positively related to preciseness, emotionality, and impression manipulativeness. The bivariate correlations show that for the U.S. sample (see Table 4), transformational leadership has significant positive correlations with expressiveness ($r = .46$, $p <$

.01), preciseness ($r = .66, p < .01$) and questioningness ($r = .41, p < .01$) but significant negative correlations with emotionality ($r = -.17, p < .05$), impression manipulativeness ($r = -.26, p < .01$) and verbal aggressiveness ($r = -.57, p < .01$). The results of the correlation with expressiveness and questioningness are in the negative direction of the hypothesized model, thus H_1^a and H_1^c are not supported. The results support the proposition that transformational leadership is negatively related to verbal aggressiveness, thus H_1^b is supported. The results also show that transformational leadership is positively related to preciseness, thus H_1^d is supported. Emotionality and impression manipulativeness were hypothesized to have a positive relationship with transformational leadership, but the results were significant in the negative direction, thus H_1^e and H_1^f are not supported.

Similar results were found in the RP sample. The bivariate correlations (see Table 5) shows transformational leadership has significant positive correlations with expressiveness ($r = .20, p < .01$), preciseness ($r = .44, p < .01$), and questioningness ($r = .19, p < .01$), but the causal propositions for expressiveness and questioningness are in the negative direction; thus, H_1^a and H_1^c are not supported. The results support the proposition that transformational leadership is negatively related to verbal aggressiveness, thus H_1^b is supported. Support was also found for preciseness in the positive direction, thus H_1^d is supported. Significant negative correlations were found with emotionality ($r = -.40, p < .01$), impression manipulativeness ($r = -.16, p < .05$), and verbal aggressiveness ($r = -.57, p < .01$). Emotionality and impression manipulativeness were hypothesized to have a positive relationship, but the results were significant in the negative direction, thus H_1^e and H_1^f are not supported.

Transactional leadership. The current study argued that transactional leadership style is positively related to expressiveness, verbal aggressiveness, questioningness, preciseness, and impression manipulativeness but negatively related to emotionality. The results show that for the U.S. sample (see Table 4), the effects of transactional leadership have significant positive correlations with expressiveness ($r = .37, p < .01$), questioningness ($r = .38, p < .01$), and preciseness ($r = .60, p < .01$), thus supporting H_2^a, H_2^c, and H_2^d. Significant negative

relationships were found on verbal aggressiveness (r = -0.57, p < .01) and impression manipulativeness (r = -.28, p < .01), thus H$_2$[b] and H$_2$[f] are not supported. Emotionality is positive but not significant (r = .06, p > .05), thus H$_2$[e] is not supported.

The RP sample yielded similar results. Three of the leader communication styles showed significant positive correlations with transactional leadership, expressiveness (r = .19, p < .01), preciseness (r = .27, p < .01), and questioningness (r = .16, p < .05), thus supporting H$_2$[a], H$_2$[c], and H$_2$[d]. Verbal aggressiveness was significant in the negative direction (r = -0.29, p < .01), and impression manipulativeness was found not significant (r = .05, p > .05), thus H$_2$[b] and H$_2$[f] are not supported. Emotionality is positive and significant (r = -.16, p < .05), thus H$_2$[e] is supported.

Table 4: Bivariate Correlations Leadership Styles, Leader Communication Styles, and LMX (U.S. Sample, $N = 213$)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
LMX	1.00													
Age	.02	1.00												
Education	.00	.09	1.00											
Employment	.13	.45**	.15*	1.00										
Gender	.03	-.10	-.25**	-.17*	1.00									
Position	-.05	.01	-.13	-.23**	.20**	1.00								
Transactional	.36**	-.03	.06	.09	-.04	-.25**	1.00							
Transformational	.72**	-.04	-.06	.05	.11	-.11	.53**	1.00						
Emotionality	-.12	-.11	.14*	.01	-.11	-.21**	.28**	-.17*	1.00					
Expressiveness	.37**	-.05	-.07	-.01	.04	-.10	.28**	.46**	-.12	1.00				
Imprssn manpltvness	-.28**	-.19**	.07	-.03	-.11	-.24**	.26**	-.26**	.62**	-.04	1.00			
Preciseness	.60**	.07	-.04	.09	.05	.03	.21**	.66**	-.45**	.27**	-.35**	1.00		
Questioningness	.38**	-.25**	.12	.01	-.20**	-.21**	.43**	.41**	.34**	.26**	.33**	.27**	1.00	
Vrbl aggressiveness	-.57**	-.07	.13	-.10	-.12	-.20**	.00	-.57**	.60**	-.25**	.56**	-.66**	-.02	1.00
M	3.56	2.10	1.59	2.51	1.66	1.63	2.21	2.56	2.87	3.37	2.90	3.36	3.00	2.72
SD	.87	.88	1.00	1.38	.47	.48	.53	.75	.59	.40	.48	.60	.51	1.00
N	213	213	213	213	213	213	213	213	213	213	213	213	213	213

*p < .05. **p < .01.

Table 5: Bivariate Correlations Leadership Styles, Leader Communication Styles, and LMX (RP Sample, $N = 228$)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
LMX	1.00													
Age	-.17*	1.00												
Education	.05	.42**	1.00											
Employment	-.09	.76**	.30**	1.00										
Gender	.05	.07	-.21**	.09	1.00									
Position	-.01	-.37**	-.25**	-.39**	-.04	1.00								
Transactional	.52**	-.24**	.01	-.19**	-.13*	.02	1.00							
Transformational	.66**	-.13*	.01	.01	-.03	-.02	.68**	1.00						
Emotionality	-.45**	-.13*	-.03	-.10	-.04	.12	-.16*	-.40**	1.00					
Expressiveness	.09	.14*	-.12	.17**	.23**	-.09	.19**	.20**	.00	1.00				
Imprssn mnpltvness	-.29**	-.02	-.05	.02	-.18**	-.02	.05	-.16*	.52**	.08	1.00			
Preciseness	.58**	.06	.09	.06	.02	-.15*	.27**	.44**	-.69**	.01	-.31**	1.00		
Questioningness	.27**	-.07	-.01	-.09	-.20**	-.01	.16*	.19**	.01	.06	.11	.30**	1.00	
Vrbl aggressiveness	-.60**	.04	.06	-.07	-.02	.11	-.29**	-.57**	.72**	-.08	.30**	-.71**	-.27**	1.00
M	3.69	2.26	1.38	2.55	1.71	1.65	2.28	2.77	2.66	3.30	2.81	3.44	3.19	2.58
SD	.73	.75	.76	1.38	.45	.48	.47	.67	.55	.37	.44	.52	.38	.63
N	228	228	228	228	228	228	228	228	228	228	228	228	228	228

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table 6: Hierarchical Multiple Regression Models (United States, $N = 213$)

Step		Model 1β	Model 2β	Model 3β
Step 1	(Control variables)			
	Age	-.20	-.04	-.04
	Education	.10	-.01	-.01
	Employment	-.03	.15	.15
	Gender	-.11	.05	.05
	Position	-.29**	-.03	-.03
Step 2	(Unmediated model)			
	Age	-.18**	.00	.00
	Education	.07	.03	.03
	Employment	-.04	.09	.09
	Gender	-.09	-.04	-.04
	Position	-.20**	.06	.06
	Transformational	-.20**	.74**	.74**
	Transactional	.50**	-.03	-.03
Step 3	(Mediated model)			
	Age			.01
	Education			.02
	Employment			.05
	Gender			-.01
	Position			-.01
	Transformational			.31**
	Transactional			.05
	Emotionality			.26**
	Expressiveness			.09
	Impression Manipulativeness			-.16*
	Preciseness			.18*
	Questioningness			.11
	Verbal Aggressiveness			-.31**
	R	.58	.72	.79
	F	14.97***	33.14***	25.24***
	df	(7, 205)	(7, 205)	(13, 199)
	R^2 change	.17***	.51***	.09***

Note. Model 1 predicted leader's communication style and represents the first regression equation of the mediation model. Model 2 and 3 predicted LMX and represents the second and third regression equation of the medaition model.

*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Table 7: Hierarchical Multiple Regression Models (RP, *N* = 228)

Step		Model 1β	Model 2β	Model 3β
Step 1	(Control variables)			
	Age	.06	-.33**	-.33**
	Education	-.03	.17*	.17*
	Employment	-.05	.08	.08
	Gender	-.09	.10	.10
	Position	.00	-.06	-.06
Step 2	(Unmediated model)			
	Age	-.02	-.08	-.08
	Education	-.03	.11	.11
	Employment	.08	-.07	-.07
	Gender	-.07	.11*	.11*
	Position	.00	-.03	-.03
	Transformational	-.46**	.59**	.59**
	Transactional	.33**	.09	.10
Step 3	(Mediated Model)			
	Age			-.13
	Education			.10*
	Employment			-.01
	Gender			.10*
	Position			.02
	Transformational			.32**
	Transactional			.17**
	Emotionality			.05
	Expressiveness			.00
	Impression manipulativeness			-.14*
	Preciseness			.25**
	Questioningness			.09
	Verbal aggressiveness			-.15
	R	.34	.69	.78
	F	4.14***	28.01***	25.18***
	df	(7, 217)	(7, 217)	(13, 211)
	R^2 change	.11***	.41***	.14***

Note. Model 1 predicted leader's communication style and represents the first regression equation of the mediation model. Model 2 and 3 predicted LMX and represents the second and third regression equation of the medaition model.

p < .05. **p* < .01. ***p* < .001.

Regression of Independent Variable on LMX

The second condition of a mediated relationship is to determine whether there are significant relationships between the independent and dependent variables. In this model, LMX was regressed on leadership styles and leader communication styles as independent variables. The independent variable must significantly predict the dependent variable before a mediated relationship could be examined (Meyers et al., 2013a, 2013b). The current study argued that transformational and transactional leadership would predict LMX. The regression variate is presented as Model 2 for both the U.S. (see Table 6) and RP (see Table 7) samples. As the regression variate shows, transformational leadership style predicted LMX, $\beta = .74$, $p < .01$ for the U.S. sample and $\beta = .59$, $p < .01$ for the RP sample. Thus, H_4^a is supported for both sample groups.

Although the regression coefficients of transactional leadership, $\beta = -.03$, $p > .05$ for the U.S. sample and $\beta = .09$, $p > .01$ for the RP sample appear to be not significant, the bivariate correlations however are significant, thus predictive of LMX, $r = .36$, $p < .01$ for the U.S. sample (see Table 4) and $r = .52$, $p < .01$ for the RP sample. The use of bivariate correlations in prediction follows the recommendation of Hair et al. (2010) to examine the independent–dependent relationship of the variables individually when the regression coefficients appear to be inconclusive of prediction. After all, regression coefficients simply indicate the relative contribution of a variable in a model that is significant. Thus, Hair et al. instead recommended the use of the bivariate correlations. Bivariate correlations are the basis for accurate predictions (Meyers et al., 2013a, 2013b). Thus, H_4^b is supported for both sample groups.

The regression coefficients of leader communication styles for both sample groups suggest mixed results in the causal prediction of LMX. In the regression variate, only emotionality ($\beta = .26$, $p < .01$) and preciseness ($\beta = .18$, $p < .05$) positively predict LMX for the U.S. sample and only preciseness ($\beta = .25$, $p < .01$) for the RP sample. For the U.S. sample, impression manipulativeness ($\beta = -.16$, $p < .05$) and verbal aggressiveness ($\beta = -.31$, $p < .01$) were also significant but had a negative effect. For the RP sample, only impression manipulativeness ($\beta = -.14$, $p <$

.05) was negative. The bivariate correlations, however, suggest more conclusive results. For the U.S. sample, expressiveness ($r = .37$, $p < .01$), preciseness ($r = .60$, $p < .01$), questioningness ($r = .38$, $p < .01$), impression manipulativeness ($r = -.28$, $p < .01$), and verbal aggressiveness ($r = -.57$, $p < .01$) have significant correlations with LMX, while no significant correlation was found for emotionality. In contrast, the results for the RP sample indicate significant correlations were found with preciseness ($r = .58$, $p < .01$), questioningness ($r = .27$, $p < .01$), emotionality ($r = -.45$, $p < .01$), impression manipulativeness ($r = -.29$, $p < .01$), and verbal aggressiveness ($r = -.60$, $p < .01$). No significant correlation was found for expressiveness.

Transformational leadership. The causal propositions of the current study argued that the relationships of leader communication styles with LMX would follow the causal (linear) propositions of transformational leadership, H_1^a to H_1^f, and transactional leadership styles, H_2^a to H_2^f. For the U.S. sample, the results for transformational leadership show that only two of six leader communication styles followed the causal propositions of H_1^a to H_1^f (see Table 8). Expressiveness is positively related to LMX but significant in the opposite (negative) direction of H_1^a, thus H_3^a is not supported. Verbal aggressiveness is negatively related to LMX and follows the direction of H_1^b, thus H_3^b is supported. Questioningness is positively related to LMX but significant in the opposite direction of H_1^c, thus H_3^c is not supported.

Table 8: Directional Results of Bivariate Correlations (U.S. Sample)

Variable	Causal propositions	Transformational	LMX	Results
H_1^a/H_3^a Expressiveness	-	+	+	NS / NS
H_1^b/H_3^b Verbal aggressiveness	-	-	-	S / S
H_1^c/H_3^c Questioningness	-	+	+	NS / NS
H_1^d/H_3^d Preciseness	+	+	+	S / S
H_1^e/H_3^e Emotionality	+	-	ns	NS / NS
H_1^f/H_3^f Impression manipulativeness	+	-	-	NS /NS

S = Supported, NS = Not Supported, ns = not significant.

Preciseness is positively related to LMX and follows the direction of H_1^d, thus H_{3d} is supported. Emotionality is not significant, thus H_{3e} is not supported. Lastly, impression manipulativeness is negatively related to LMX but significant in the opposite direction of H_1^f, thus H_3^f is not supported. Similar results are found for the RP sample. The directional results for transformational leadership show that only verbal aggressiveness and preciseness followed the causal propositions of H_1^a to H_1^f (see Table 9), thus H_3^b and H_3^d are supported while the causal propositions for expressiveness (H_3^a), questioningness (H_3^c), emotionality (H_3^e), and impression manipulativeness (H_3^f) are not supported.

Table 9: Directional Results of Bivariate Correlations (RP Sample)

Variable	Causal propositions	Transformational	LMX	Results
H_1^a/H_3^a Expressiveness	-	+	+	NS / NS
H_1^b/H_3^b Verbal aggressiveness	-	-	-	S / S
H_1^c/H_3^c Questioningness	-	+	+	NS / NS
H_1^d/H_3^d Preciseness	+	+	+	S / S
H_1^e/H_3^e Emotionality	+	-	ns	NS / NS
H_1^f/H_3^f Impression manipulativeness	+	-	-	NS /NS

S = Supported, NS = Not Supported, ns = not significant.

Transactional leadership. The results for transactional leadership show that three leader communication styles followed the causal propositions of H_2^a to H_2^f for the U.S. sample (see Table 10). Expressiveness is significant and followed the causal proposition of H_2^a, thus H_3^a is supported. Verbal aggressiveness is not significant, thus H_3^b is not supported. Both questioningness and preciseness are positively related to LMX, which follows the causal propositions of H_2^c and H_2^d, thus H_3^c and H_3^d are supported. Emotionality is not significant in relation to LMX, thus H_3^e is not supported. Lastly, although impression manipulativeness followed

the causal proposition of transactional leadership, H_2^f, it is negatively related to LMX, thus H_3^f is not supported.

The results for the RP sample (see Table 11) show that questioningness, preciseness, and emotionality followed the causal proposition of transactional leadership, thus H_3^c, H_3^d, and H_3^e are supported. Although expressiveness is positively related to transactional leadership, it is not significant in relation to LMX, while verbal aggressiveness and impression manipulativeness were negatively related to both transactional and LMX, thus H_3^a, H_3^b, and H_3^f are not supported.

Table 10: Directional Results of Bivariate Correlations (U.S. Sample)

Variable	Causal propositions	Transactional	LMX	Results
H_2^a/H_3^a Expressiveness	+	+	+	S / S
H_2^b/H_3^b Verbal aggressiveness	+	ns	-	NS / NS
H_2^c/H_3^c Questioningness	+	+	+	S / S
H_2^d/H_3^d Preciseness	+	+	+	S / S
H_2^e/H_3^e Emotionality	-	+	ns	NS / S
H_2^f/H_3^f Impression manipulativeness	+	+	-	S /NS

S = Supported, NS = Not Supported, ns = nonsignificant.

Table 11: Directional Results of Bivariate Correlations (RP Sample)

Variable	Causal propositions	Transactional	LMX	Results
H_2^a/H_3^a Expressiveness	+	+	ns	S / NS
H_2^b/H_3^b Verbal aggressiveness	+	-	-	NS / NS
H_2^c/H_3^c Questioningness	+	+	+	S / S
H_2^d/H_3^d Preciseness	+	+	+	S / S
H_2^e/H_3^e Emotionality	-	-	-	S / S
H_2^f/H_3^f Impression manipulativeness	+	ns	-	NS /NS

S = Supported, NS = Not Supported, ns = nonsignificant.

Regression Analysis of Mediation Effect

        The third condition is to estimate and test the effect of the mediating variables (leader's communication style) on the dependent variable (LMX) and determine whether the addition of the mediator variables reduces the direct effect of the independent variables (leadership style) on the dependent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). This model is presented as Model 3 in Table 6 for the U.S. sample and in Table 7 for the RP sample. Mediation has four possible outcomes: (a) perfect or complete mediation, (b) partial mediation, (c) absence of mediation, and (d) suppression effect (Meyers et al., 2013). In perfect mediation, the mediator removes the predictive power of the independent variable by reducing the effect to a nonsignificant level (Preacher & Hayes, 2004). In partial mediation, the independent variable maintains its significant predictive power, but the regression coefficient is smaller following the addition of the mediating variables (Preacher & Hayes, 2004). The absence of mediation would show that the predictive power of the independent variable remains significant with the regression coefficient remaining the same following the addition of the mediating variable (Meyers et al., 2013a). In suppression effect, the predictive power of the independent variable becomes stronger following the addition of the mediating variables (Meyers et al., 2013a) and, in some instances, a reversal of signs (Hair et al., 2010). Other indication of a suppression effect is that the correlation between the suppressing variable and the dependent variable is substantially lower than its beta weight (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2007). Suppressor variables also have near zero correlation with the dependent variable but a significant predictor in the regression model or have little or no correlation with the dependent variable but correlated with one or more of the predictors (Pedhazur, 1982).

        Transformational leadership. The current study argued that leader communication styles mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and quality of LMX relationship. The results for the U.S. sample indicate that partial mediation occurred when the set of leader communication styles were added in the regression. When leader communication styles were added the regression coefficients of transformational leadership remained significant but the predictive

power decreased from $\beta = .74$, $p < .01$ to $\beta = .31$, $p < .01$ (see Table 6). The leader communication styles of impression manipulativeness, $\beta = -0.16$, $p < .05$, and verbal aggressiveness, $\beta = -0.31$, $p < .01$, partially explained the negative variance attributed to transformational leadership with the quality of LMX relationship, which suggest that impression manipulativeness and verbal aggressiveness leads to low LMX. Similarly, the leader communication style of emotionality partially explained the positive variance, $\beta = .26$, $p < .01$, attributed to transformational leadership with the quality of LMX, which suggest that emotionality leads to high LMX. Emotionality, impression manipulativeness, and verbal aggressiveness partially mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and quality of LMX in the U.S. sample. Thus, for the U.S. sample, H_5^a is supported by three leader communication styles.

Partial mediation also occurred for the RP sample. The regression coefficient of transformational leadership decreased but remained significant when the set of leader communication styles were added in the regression variate, from $\beta = .59$, $p < .01$ to $\beta = .32$, $p < .01$ (see Table 7). In contrast to the results of the U.S. sample, preciseness partially explained a positive variance on LMX attributed to transformational leadership, $\beta = .25$, $p < .01$, which suggest that preciseness leads to high LMX. Impression manipulativeness was also significant but partially explained a negative variance, $\beta = -.14$, $p < .05$, which suggests that impression manipulativeness leads to low LMX. Preciseness and impression manipulativeness partially mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and quality of LMX in the RP sample. Thus, for the RP sample, H_5^a is supported by two leader communication styles.

Transactional leadership. The current study argued that leader communication styles mediate the relationship between transactional leadership and quality of LMX relationship. For the U.S. sample, although transactional leadership was not significant in Model 2 and Model 3 due to high multicollinearity with transformational leadership, the overall models were significant, $F(7, 205) = 33.14$, $p < .01$ and $F(13, 199) = 25.24$, $p < .01$, respectively. The results suggests that while the relative contribution (β) of transactional leadership was not

significant in both models and does not indicate the occurrence of mediation, the significant bivariate correlation of transactional leadership with LMX, $r = .36$, $p <$ .01, for the U.S. sample (see Table 4) and a nonsignificant regression coefficient of transactional leadership, $\beta = .05$, $p > .05$ (see Table 6) following the addition of leader communication styles, suggest the possibility of a mediation effect attributed to emotionality, impression manipulativeness, and verbal aggressiveness. Thus, H_5^b is supported.

The results for the RP sample indicate that the leader communication styles of preciseness and impression manipulativeness partially mediated the relationship between transactional leadership and LMX. Although transactional leadership was not significant in Model 2, the overall model was significant, $F(7, 217) = 28.01$, $p <$ .01. The result suggests that while the relative contribution (β) of transactional leadership was not significant in Model 2, the significant bivariate correlation of transactional leadership with LMX, $r = .52$, $p < .01$ (see Table 5) and a smaller significant regression coefficient of transactional leadership, $\beta = .17$, $p < .01$ (see Table 7) following the addition of leader communication styles suggest a partial mediation. Transactional leadership style partially acted through preciseness and impression manipulativeness to explain variances in LMX. Thus, H_5^b is supported.

Independent-Samples *t* Test

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to compare the scores (mean value) of the U.S. and RP samples on transformational and transactional leadership styles, leadership styles, six leader communication styles, and LMX as test variables to test the hypotheses that culture, which is represented by nationality, would show significant differences in preference for all test variables (see Appendix G).

Leadership Styles

The results indicate a significant difference in preference for transformational leadership between the U.S. ($M = 2.56$, $SD = .75$) and RP ($M = 2.77$, $SD = .68$) samples, $t(426) = -3.05$, $p = .00$ (two-tailed). The strength of the effect (eta squared) is very small, $\eta^2 = .02$, which indicates that nationality

explained 2% of the variance in preference for transformational leadership and that the mean value of the U.S. sample is smaller than the mean value of the RP sample as indicated by the negative *t* statistic. The effect size, Cohen's *d* = -.30 (mean difference = -.21, 95% CI: -.34 to -.07) is within one standard deviation, thus indicating that the magnitude of the differences in mean value is small. Although the magnitude of the effect (strength and size) is small, the higher mean value of the RP sample indicates significant preferrence for transformational leadership style than the U.S. respondents.

The results indicate that there is no significant difference in preference for transactional leadership between the U.S. (*M* = 2.21, *SD* = .53) and RP samples (*M* = 2.28, *SD* = .47). With equal variances assumed, the standard *t* statistic is *t*(439) = -1.44, *p* = .15 (two-tailed). The strength of the effect is very small, η^2 = .004, which indicates that nationality explained .4% of the variance in preference for transactional leadership, and that the mean value of the U.S. respondents is nearly equal to the mean value of the RP respondents (mean difference = -.07, 95% CI: -.16 to .02). The effect size, Cohen's *d* = -0.14, is within one standard deviation, which indicates that the magnitude of the differences in mean value is very small. With the *t*-test results indicating significant difference in preference for transformational leadership but not significant for transactional leadership bewtween the groups, H_6^a is supported with transformational leadership.

Leader Communication Styles

There is no significant difference in preference for expressiveness between the U.S. (*M* = 3.37, *SD* = .40) and RP samples (*M* = 3.30, *SD* = .37). With equal variances assumed, the standard *t* statistic is *t*(439) = 1.89, *p* = .06 (two-tailed). The strength of the effect is very small, η^2 = .008, which indicates that nationality explained .8% of the variance in preference for expressiveness, and that the mean value of the U.S. sample is not significantly different to that of the RP sample (mean difference = .07, 95% CI: -.002 to .14). The effect size, Cohen's *d* = -.18, is within one standard deviation, thus indicating that the magnitude of the differences in mean value is very small. Similarly, no significant difference was found with preference for preciseness, U.S. (*M* = 3.36, *SD* = .60) and RP samples (*M* = 3.44,

SD = .52); *t* (439) = -1.64, *p* = .10 (two-tailed); η^2 = .006 (mean difference = -.09, 95% CI: -.19 to .02); and Cohen's *d* = -.16.

Significant differences were found for the remaining four leader communication styles. The results show that differences in preference for verbal aggressiveness are significant between the U.S. (*M* = 2.72, *SD* = .71) and RP samples (*M* = 2.58, *SD* = .53). The alternative *t* statistic is *t*(422) = 2.12, *p* = .03 (two-tailed). The strength of the effect is very small, η^2 = .01, which indicates that nationality explained .1% of the variance in preference for verbal aggressiveness. The effect size, Cohen's *d* = .20, is within one standard deviation, thus indicating that the magnitude of the differences in mean value is also small. The magnitude of the strength and size of the effect may be small, but the mean difference indicates that the mean value of the U.S. respondents is significantly higher than the mean value of the RP respondents (mean difference = .13, 95% CI: .01 to .26). Similar significant results are found with questioningness, emotionality, and impression management. The results indicate that differences in preference for questioningness are significant between the U.S. (*M* = 3.00, *SD* = .51) and RP samples (*M* = 3.19, *SD* = .38); *t*(391) = -4.35, *p* = .00 (two-tailed); η^2 = .05 (mean difference = -.19, 95% CI: -.27 to -.10), and Cohen's *d* = -.42. The results indicate that differences in preference for emotionality are significant between the U.S. (*M* = 2.87, *SD* = .59) and RP samples (*M* = 2.66, *SD* = .55); *t*(439) = 3.75, *p* = .00 (two-tailed); η^2 = .03 (mean difference = .20, 95% CI: .10 to .30), and Cohen's *d* = .35. The results indicate that differences in preference for impression manipulativeness are significant between the U.S. (*M* = 2.90, *SD* = .48) and RP samples (*M* = 2.81, *SD* = .44); *t*(439) = 2.00, *p* = .04 (two-tailed); η^2 = .008 (mean difference = .09, 95% CI: .00 to .17), and Cohen's *d* = .19.

Given that the *t*-test results shows no significant difference in preference for two of the six leaders communication styles—expressiveness and preciseness—but significant differences for the four remaining leader communication styles—verbal aggressiveness, questioningness, emotionality, and impression manipulativeness—between the U.S. and RP samples, H_6^b is supported by four leader communication styles.

Leader–Member Exchange

The results indicate that there is no significant difference in the quality of LMX relationship between the scores of the U.S. (M = 3.56, SD = .87) and RP samples (M = 3.67, SD = .73). The alternative t statistic is $t(414)$ = -1.64, p = .11 (two-tailed). The strength of the effect is very small, η^2 = .006, which indicates that nationality explained .6% of the variance in the quality of LMX relationship, and the effect size, Cohen's d = -.15, is within one standard deviation, thus indicating that the magnitude of the differences in mean value is very small. The mean difference in mean value of the U.S. and RP samples (mean difference = -.12, 95% CI: -.27 to .02) suggests that to the extent that there is no difference, both sample groups are influenced by leadership styles and leader communication styles in the same degree. Thus, H_6^c is not supported.

The current study argued that leader communication style as an enactive mechanism of the leadership process and its impact on LMX will differ between the United States and the Philippines. With one leadership style and four of six leadership styles found to have significant differences by nationality, showing the U.S. sample having lower preference for transformational leadership and higher preferences for verbal aggressiveness, emotionality, and impression manipulativeness, and the RP sample having a higher preference for transformational leadership and leader communication style of questioningness, the results give support to H_6^d.

Summary of Results

Following is a summary that shows the results of hypothesis testing and the causal path showing the relevant variables that support the predicted causal path.

Table 12: Summary of Regression Results of Leader's Communication Style on Leadership Style

Hypothesis	United States	RP
H_1^a	NS	NS
H_1^b	S	S
H_1^c	NS	NS
H_1^d	S	S
H_1^e	NS	NS
H_1^f	NS	NS
H_2^a	S	S
H_2^b	NS	NS
H_2^c	S	S
H_2^d	S	S
H_2^e	NS	S
H_2^f	NS	NS

S = Supported, NS = Not Supported.

Table 13: Summary of Regression Results of LMX on Leadership Style and Leader's Communication Style

Hypothesis	United States		RP	
	Transformational	Transactional	Transformational	Transactional
H_3^a	NS	S	NS	NS
H_3^b	S	NS	S	NS
H_3^c	NS	S	NS	S
H_3^d	S	S	S	S
H_3^e	NS	NS	NS	S
H_3^f	NS	NS	NS	NS

S = Supported, NS = Not Supported.

Table 14: Summary of Mediated Results

Hypothesis	United States	RP
H_4^a	S	S
H_4^b	S	S
H_5^a	S	S
H_5^b	S	S

S = Supported, NS = Not Supported.

Table 15: Summary of Differences

Hypothesis	United States	RP
H_6^a	Partial Support	Partial Support
H_6^b	Partial Support	Partial Support
H_6^c	NS	NS
H_6^d	S	S

S = Supported, NS = Not Supported.

Figure 3: Predicted mediated model for the U.S. sample indicating three significant regression relationships that show two leader communication styles partially reducing the variance (*β*) of transformational leadership on LMX.

**p < .01.

Figure 4: Predicted mediated model for the RP sample indicating three significant regression relationships that show two leader communication styles partially reducing the variance (*β*) of transformational leadership on LMX.

**p < .01.

H4b   *r* = .36**

Expressiveness

RH2a
r = .28**

RH3a
r = .37**

RH5b
β = .05

Transactional
Leadership

RH2c
r = .43**

Questioningness

RH3c
r = .38**

Quality of Leader-
Member Exchange

RH2d
r = .21**

Preciseness

r = .60**
RH3d

Figure 5: Predicted mediated model for the U.S. sample indicating three significant regression relationships that show two leader communication styles partially reducing the variance (*β*) of transactional leadership on LMX.
**p < .01.

H4b   *r* = .52**

Questioningness

RH2c
r = .16*

RH3c
r = .27**

RH5b
β = .17**

Transactional
Leadership

RH2d
r = .27**

Preciseness

RH3d
r = .58**

Quality of Leader-
Member Exchange
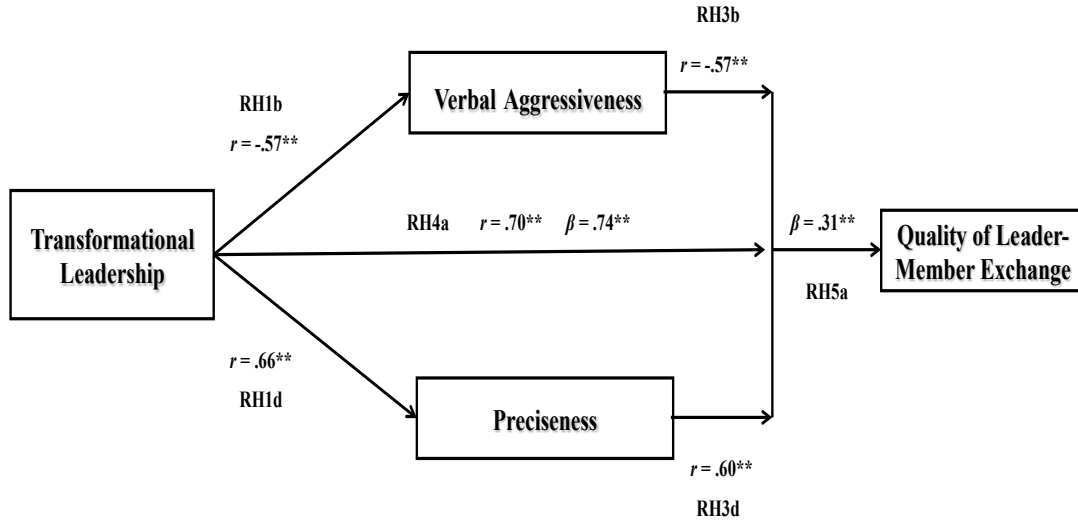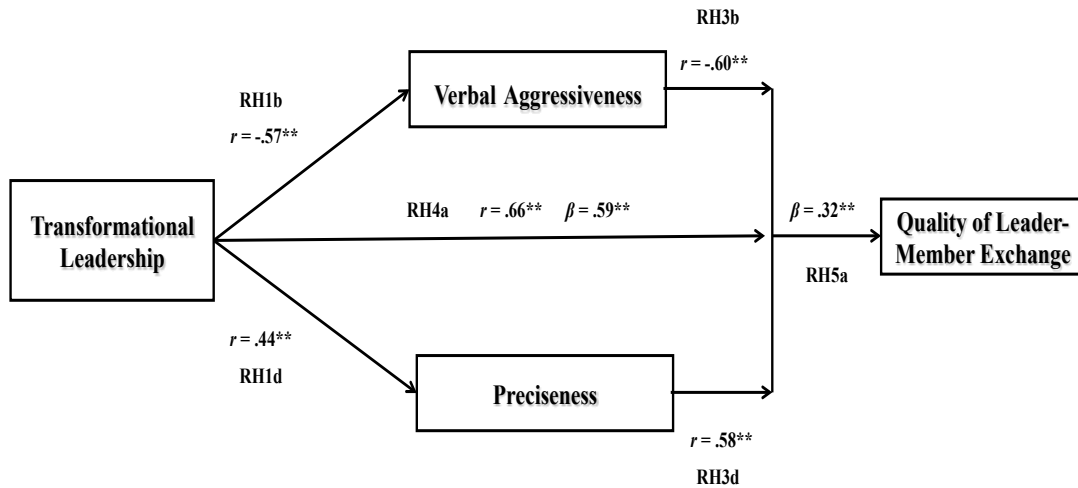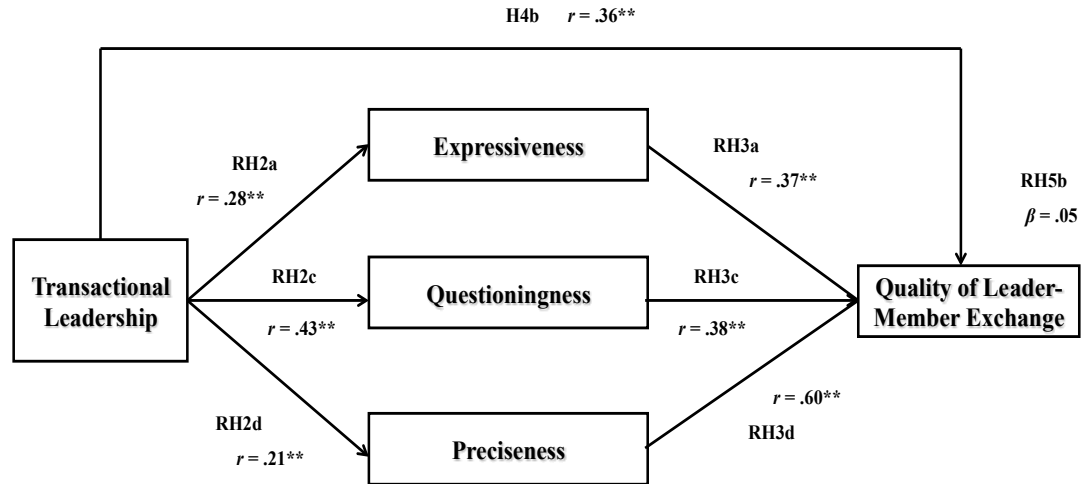
r = -.45**
RH2e

Emotionality

r = -.16**
RH3e
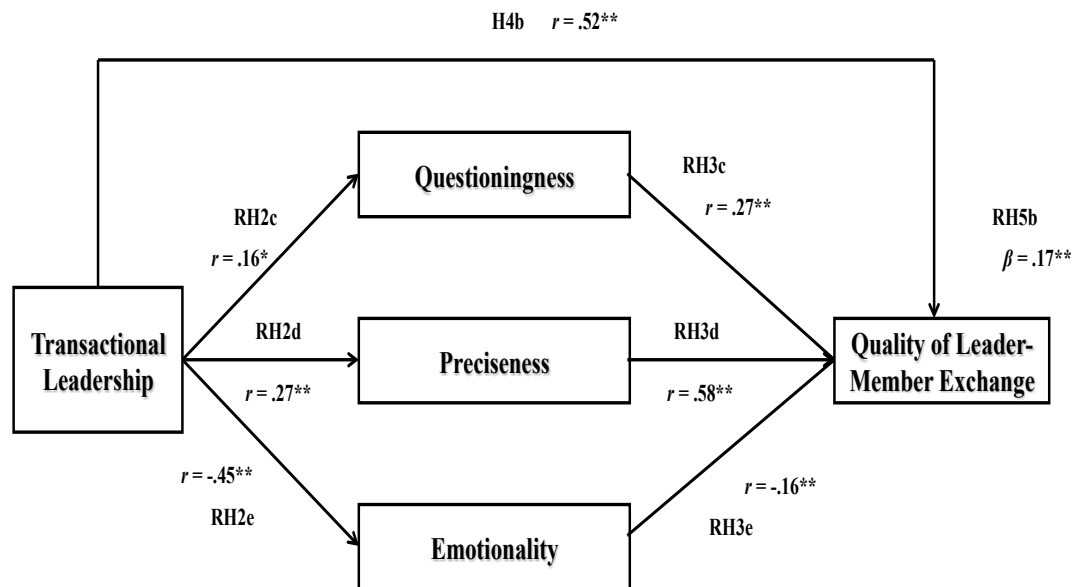
Figure 6: Predicted mediated model for the RP sample indicating three significant regression relationships that show two leader communication styles partially reducing the variance (*β*) of transactional leadership on LMX.
**p < .01. *p < .05.

Chapter 5 – Discussion

Scholars in leadership and communication have agreed that communication is the interactive pathways in a network of social relationships. The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine how communication enacts the leadership process in constructing or building quality leader–member exchange (LMX) relationships. Proceeding from previous studies (e.g., De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Konings, et al., 2011) linking leadership styles and leader communication styles, the current study sought to examine and explain the direct and mediated relationship of transformational and transactional leadership styles on six leader communication styles—expressiveness, verbal aggressiveness, questioningness, preciseness, emotionality, and impression manipulativeness—and how the mediated model predicts quality LMX relationship.

Guided by the following questions: (a) how does leader communication behavior determine the quality of LMX relationship? (b) What leader communication styles emerge from different leadership styles? (c) What communication styles predict high or low LMX relationship? (d) What sort of leadership theory might emerge from communication, and (e) will the relationship between leadership style and communication style vary across culture—the current study set out to accomplish three objectives. The primary objectives were to examine the role of leader communication style as the primary and central mechanism in building quality relationships between the leader and follower and to determine the effect of culture on the hypothesized model. A secondary, but equally important, objective is the validation of the Leader Communication Style Inventory (CSI) developed by De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Konings, et al. (2011).

The findings of the survey research indicated that leader communication styles enact leadership behavior and have a direct causal effect on respondents' perceptions of their relationship with leaders in a dyadic exchange process. In a series of estimated regression models transformational leadership predicted two leader communication styles—preciseness and verbal aggressiveness—which predicted the quality of LMX relationship for both U.S. and Philippine (RP) respondents. As expected, the positive effect of preciseness increases the variance

on LMX, while the negative effect of verbal aggressiveness decreases the variance on LMX, which suggests that preciseness leads to high LMX while verbal aggressiveness leads to low LMX. Transactional leadership also predicted two common leader communication styles—questioningness and preciseness—but differed on a third—expressiveness for U.S. respondents and emotionality for the RP respondents. All three, in turn, predicted the quality of LMX relationship. In contrast to transformational leadership, all the predicted relationship of transactional leadership with these leader communication styles proceeded in the positive direction, which is a clear indication that the increase in variance on LMX suggests that these ways of communicating would lead to high LMX.

A general conclusion could be drawn that transformational and transactional styles of leadership are enacted through leader communication styles and that the quality of the dyadic relationship are determined significantly, in part, by certain ways of communicating. With sufficient theoretical support derived from the literature, the results of the current study provide empirical evidence that the construction of leader–member relationships is built on leader communication styles. Although not all forms of lexical leader communication styles were significant, the results of the study are consistent with the literature on the role that leader communication plays in the relation-building process of leadership. The findings of the study conclusively affirm that "leadership = communication" (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, 2010, p. 376) and communication, as patterns of interaction, affects the quality of LMX. Following the studies of De Vries and colleagues that certain communication styles strongly associate with human-oriented leadership, charismatic leadership, and task-oriented leadership, the current study advances research in leadership communication by linking transformational and transactional leadership styles to communication styles and the ultimate objective of the leadership process, that is, building quality relationships at the dyadic level.

Construction of Relationships

As previously defined, a relationship is a unique connection between two people within a social order resulting from interactional patterns that are enacted through communication (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). It is a mechanism of the leadership process to exert influence (Hernandez et al., 2011). Leader communication styles provide the mechanism of influence and construction of relationships.

Verbal Aggressiveness

The negative relationship of verbal aggressiveness with transformational leadership and the quality of LMX relationship is consistent with the tactic of intimidation as a coercive and threatening form of impression management. Impression management approaches are methods of persuasion that involve controlling and manipulation of perceptions leading to the development of relationships (DuBrin, 2011; Tedeschi & Riess, 1981). Although the lexical markers of De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Konings, et al. (2011) include impression manipulativeness, which more closely fit within the framework of impression management approaches, intimidation is not a defining facet of that communication style. Intimidation, however, is a forceful way to persuade followers (DuBrin, 2011; Gardner & Cleavenger, 1998) because it seeks to create the perception of power and authority. It may adapt verbally aggressive forms of communication, which is inconsistent with transformational leadership. Transformational leadership is a human-oriented style that seeks to appeal to the moral side of the follower, thus it uses inspiring language or a communication style that seeks to inspire and motivate (Conger, 1991) rather than be threatening or coercive. Transformational leaders encourage creativity openly, avoid public criticism of mistakes, do not criticize ideas, and accept all ideas (Bass & Avolio, 1998). Transformational leaders question assumptions and reframe problems in pursuit of innovative and novel solutions (Bass & Avolio, 1998). Transformational leaders draw people closer through inspirational language (Yukl, 2010).

Verbal aggressiveness has four facets (Bakker-Piper & De Vries, 2013; De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Siberg, et al., 2009; De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Konings, et al.,

2011): angriness, authoritarianism, derogatoriness, and nonsupportiveness. In the case of verbal aggressiveness, the development of the relationship moves in the opposite direction. Showing irritability or anger, expecting instant obedience, humiliating people in public, and showing little respect for others are features of a leader who is verbally aggressive. This form of communication pushes people away, thus creating distance in relationships. Each of these facets or defining features is by nature threatening and coercive, which typically elicits and arouses fear. In typical situations, subtle references to poor performance intended to impress or assert power by inflicting emotional pain or hardship on others is intimidation because it may elicit a sense of public humiliation.

Verbal aggressiveness creates the conditions that directly affect a follower's inclination for attachment with the leader. The farther a follower is to the leader in terms of relationship, the less safe and attached the follower is to the leader. The psychological threats and barriers (Bowlby, 1969) it creates prevent the formation of quality relationships. Previous studies on attachment theory found that leader and follower attachment are typical in relations-oriented leadership styles based on security, but those based on intimidation or fear are less likely to develop attachments with the leader (Boatwright et al., 2010). The negative effect of verbal aggressiveness is directly opposite to developing a sense of security and empowerment on followers (Popper & Mayseless, 2002) and may lead to insecure followers, which leads to attachment avoidance (Hansbrough, 2012). Hansbrough (2012) found that attachment avoidance is negatively related to both transformational and transactional leadership. Followers inclined toward attachment avoidance may find it difficult to form adaptive behaviors, which directly affect their abilities to form quality relationships (Berson et al., 2006).

A relevant theory related to the whole idea of distance and attachment in the construction of relationship is field theory, which is a method theory focusing on the "nature of conditions of change" (Lewin, 1943, p. 294). It could explain proximal relationships and the construction of the relationship. If leadership emerges within a social system (Dachler, 1992; Hosking, 1988; Hosking & Fineman, 1990) and social context determines the relationships (Hosking, 1988;

Hosking & Fineman, 1990), then the social context becomes the field of construction upon which relationships are built. Verbal aggressiveness is a condition that clearly affects the field of relationships. Field theory suggests that the closer a follower is to a leader, the more important it is to influencing works outcomes (Brandes et al., 2004). Proximity, or distance, is a state or condition in the field that influences the elements, which are the individuals and the interaction of the individuals situated in the field. Verbal aggressiveness not only creates distance but shapes the conditions of attachment avoidance, less interaction, and increased follower negative evaluation of the leader, which in turn leads to less inclination toward reciprocal behavior. Thus, the quality of the relationship is negatively impacted, and in a dyadic relationship, this would mean low LMX.

A noteworthy finding is that verbal aggressiveness correlated negatively with transactional leadership and did not explain the relationship between transactional leadership and quality of LMX. This is somewhat consistent with the findings of De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Konings, et al. (2011) showing task-oriented leadership having a positive but not significant relationship with leader verbal aggressiveness. In the current study, however, the finding of a significant negative relationship is surprising because one facet of verbal aggressiveness, authoritativeness, fits the profile of a transactional leadership. Thus, a significant positive relationship as argued in the causal proposition should have emerged, but instead an inverse directional effect resulted. An authoritative leader is one who would focus on task performance by telling others what they should do, insist that others do what he or she wants them to do, expects people to obey when told to do something, and does it in a demanding tone of voice (Bakker-Piper & De Vries, , 2013; De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Konings, et al., 2011). Although it could be expected that the dialogic discourse of transactional leaders emphasize behavioral compliance through an authoritative form of communication style, the findings suggest that respondents from the United States and RP do not associate verbal aggressiveness with transactional leadership style. Two possible explanations for the negative relationship is that in both cultural groups, respondents may have a high degree of awareness of the need to comply and perform task requirements,

thus precluding any form of authoritative expressions from the leaders; secondly, they may be experiencing more recognition and rewards for performance than punishment. In other words, there is no need for leaders in these cultural groups to be verbally aggressiveness to induce compliance because they promote compliance through rewards and punishment, and this seems to be reflected in the negative relationship.

Preciseness

As expected, transformational and transactional leadership style predicted preciseness, which explained to a significant extent the relationship between each of these leadership styles and the quality of LMX relationship for both sample groups. Bakker-Pieper and De Vries (2013) found preciseness to predict and explain variances in LMX, together with expressiveness. Preciseness conjures up ideas of exactness, correctness, accuracy in detail, clarity, and unambiguity. As a leader communication style, it is highly structured, substantive, concise, and thoughtful (Bakker-Pieper & De Vries, 2013; De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Konings, et al., 2011). If verbal aggressiveness creates distance and increases the inclination of a follower's attachment avoidance, preciseness creates a different field of relationship. It creates certainty in a relationship, because both leader and follower would know exactly what is expected of each other. Dealing with and managing uncertainty is one of the most important predictors of leadership outcomes because of the inherent tension that exists in relationships. Inherent in relationships, particularly in dialectics, are tensions of integration and separation, closeness and distance, similarity and difference, and certainty versus uncertainty (Baxter, 2004). In relational dialectics, the tension of certainty and uncertainty deals with the interplay of predictability and consistency versus being spontaneous and different, which creates a complex dynamic of contradictions that defines and redefines relationships (Baxter, 2004). In the field of relationships, preciseness reduces uncertainty and conflict, thus creating the conditions that foster productive relationships.

Uncertainty reduction is a primary dimension of developing relationship (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). Preciseness lies in the heart of uncertainty reduction

theory. The theory advances the idea that people generally desire to predict and explain behavior, and such desire motivates them to seek information about others in order to better predict and explain how they will behave (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). When transformational or transactional leaders tell stories in an organized way, ensure that different parts of the story they tell are clearly related to each other, express a clear chain of thought to argue a point, and contain a logical structure (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Siberg, et al., 2013), followers would perceive preciseness, which provides them the information they need to understand the leader and be able to predict and explain his or her behavior. In addition to the structure, being thoughtful, substantive, and concise reduces uncertainty. According to De Vries, Bakkerj-Pieper, Siberg, et al. (2013), thoughtfulness means thinking carefully before speaking, weighing answers carefully, and choosing words with care, which leads to a well thought-out answer. Preciseness must be substantive, in the sense that conversations must involve some important topic, avoiding superficial, shallow, and trivial matters. Equally important is the idea of conciseness, which means getting the message across and explaining something in a few words with clarity and avoiding long-windedness. The latter point tends to distort the important points of a message with *noise* or undesired signal along the channel of communication (Krauss & Morsella, 2006). All these facets of preciseness reduce uncertainty because preciseness permits the clear conveyance of information between a leader and follower, which leads to better prediction and understanding of behavior and expectations.

Another condition that favors the formation of positive relationship through precise communication is conflict management, specifically conflict reduction or resolution. Krauss and Morsella (2006) explained that noise has a damaging effect on communication, especially in conflict management because it forces the recipient to "fill in" (p. 146) the information that noise distorted. If the substance of the information is distorted by noise, it leads to confusion, which forces the recipients to try to understand what was distorted by filling in the information. In a conflict situation, failing to be precise results in noise that more likely worsens the conflict than mitigates it. The less a leader and follower understand each other,

expectations become ambiguous and uncertain, which creates more distance in the relationship. In a dyadic exchange context, reciprocal behavior from the follower becomes difficult. In situations like this, the follower would likely perform only to the minimum that the work requires.

Regardless of the focal emphasis of transformational and transactional leadership styles, precision in the articulation of vision and precision in conveying expectations of task performance have a significant positive effect on the quality of LMX. Precision in communication style explains leader performance and satisfaction with leader in other forms of leadership styles (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, 2010; De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Konings, et al., 2011). It is a critical element in any transformative effort because the ability of a transformative leader to precisely communicate a sense of urgency, the need for radical change, powerful vision and inspirational goals are necessary to motivate others to act on the vision, and articulate the connections between the new behaviors and corporate success (Kotter, 1995). It is equally critical in conveying recognitions and rewards (Kotter, 1995) because it is important to the psychological contract existing in transactional exchanges for both leader and follower to have a precise understanding of expectations. The successful completion of tasks depends on precision because successful exchanges are based on the leader identifying performance requirements and clarifying the conditions under which rewards and punishments are conveyed (Whittington et al., 2009). Precision, therefore, is a condition of communication effectiveness as it applies to transactional leadership (Neufeld et al., 2010) as it is with task-oriented leadership approach (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, 2010; De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Konings, et al., 2011).

Questioningness

Consistent with the causal proposition, questioningness was found to have a significant relationship with transactional leadership and explains the relationship between transactional leadership and the quality of LMX relationship for both the U.S. and RP sample groups. The facets of lexical questioningness, which are being unconventional, philosophical, inquisitive, and argumentative (De Vries, Bakker-

Pieper, Siberg, et al., 2013), seem to fit the profile of a transformational leader with the exception of argumentativeness. Argumentativeness is a state of conflict and, in a dyadic interaction, may either lead to a productive relationship or deteriorate the relationship. According to De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Siberg, et al. (2013), being argumentative provokes others by making bold statements, to get them to debate topics or ideas, and through controversial statements force others to express clear opinions. Argumentative leaders stimulate discussion by expressing a different point of view (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Siberg, et al., 2013). When people argue, they begin and process through divergence or disagreements about certain things or may be engaged in trying to resolve interpersonal conflict. In this context, argumentativeness would not be a behavior that could be attributed to a transformational leader but that of a transactional leader, even though the bivariate correlations may support a positive link between questioningness and transformational leadership and LMX. The results, however, suggest that the facets of lexical questioningness apply more to dyadic-level interactions, which are more transactional than transformative, as a way of strengthening and deepening a dyadic relationship or resolving relationship problems. Thus, the results reveal a significant positive relationship between transactional leadership and questioningness and questioningness with LMX.

The positive link of questioningness to transactional leadership suggest that respondents in both the U.S. and RP samples find that leaders who try to stimulate discussions or debates of different ideas or different points of view, inquire about motives and conclusions, or even talk about life in a philosophical sense are efforts or ways of clarifying and defining the nature of work requirements and expectations of performance. This contributes to a positive development of dyadic relationships because it helps followers to gain a better understanding of the leader as much as the work environment. In this context, questioningness is a leader communication style that may reflect the dynamics of social penetration theory being played out. Through the process of being philosophical or unconventional, the transactional leader is unwittingly engaged in self-disclosure, and through

inquisitiveness and argumentativeness unintentionally encourages the follower, in turn, to self-disclose.

Although the central idea behind transactional leadership is the emphasis on rewards and punishments in relation to task performance, and the emphasis on power relationship to compel performance, it does not preclude the necessity for the transactional leader to motivate followers beyond extrinsic factors. Followers have expectations of leaders to recognize their hard work and good performance, and, when recognized, expect the leaders to render a reward in recognition for the good performance (Vroom, 1964). In return, followers develop attitudes that lead them to behave in a certain way, such as reciprocating the recognition given by the leader (Fishbein, 1980). The expectation, however, depends on how close or much the follower knows the leader. Vroom's expectancy theory suggests that followers would have a desire to know their leaders in a more intimate way in order for them to evaluate whether the leader would have the inclination to recognize their hard work and good performance. Thus, a leader's questioningness reveals information about the leader to the follower. The self-disclosure could serve as a basis for followers to evaluate the likelihood that the leader would be inclined to recognize hard work and good performance. The strength of the expectancy is linked to how close the follower is to the leader, such that the more questioning a leader is, the more close the dyadic relationship. Thus, supporting the causal proposition that transactional leadership predicts leader questioningness, and questioningness in turn mediate the relationship between transactional and quality of LMX relationship in the positive direction.

Expressiveness

Although expressiveness did not contribute to the variance in LMX in the regression model, the bivariate correlations with transactional leadership and LMX followed the causal proposition. Unlike verbal aggressiveness, preciseness, and questioningness, which are common to both U.S. and RP samples, expressiveness applies only to the U.S. sample group in explaining the relationship between transactional leadership and quality of LMX relationship. In the study by De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, and Oostenveld (2010), however, expressiveness did not contribute

to the prediction of task-oriented leadership among Dutch respondents. Among RP respondents, the bivariate correlations were significant with transactional and transformational leadership but not with LMX, thus failing to support the causal proposition for this sample group. Culture may account for this difference, which suggests that U.S. respondents find that transactional leaders who express themselves more by being talkative, conversationally dominant, informal, and humorous contribute to building positive relationships. This means that U.S. respondents may desire their leaders to interact more or be more social rather than formal. In this sense, being talkative or having a lot to say, being dominant in conversations by taking the lead in talking about certain topics in conversations, being humorous by making people burst out laughing, and being informal by making people feel at ease, relax, casual, or even personal in manner creates a social exchange that draws both leader and follower, and others within the group, close to each other, which in turn leads to high LMX.

As in questioningness, an expressive leader reveals more of himself or herself to his or her followers. The self-disclosure gives followers the ability to judge and evaluate the character of the leader, which either draws them closer to the leader or maintains a certain distance. The dynamics of social penetration theory (Taylor & Altman, 1987), social exchange theory (Blau, 1986; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), and expectancy-value theory (Fishbein, 1980) are integrated in the social interaction created by leader expressiveness. Expressiveness is a means of self-disclosure that invites or stimulates a follower and others within the social group to self-disclose as well, but the extent to which a follower would reciprocate would depend on the benefit the follower derives by reciprocating the self-disclosure. If the information derived from leader expressiveness gives the follower a sense that it benefits him or her to reciprocate, he or she develops a predisposition to a belief that the rewards of reciprocating the expressiveness and behavior of the leader exceeds the cost of nonreciprocating. Reciprocal self-disclosure leads to the development of attitudes, which are evaluative predispositions that leads a person to behave a certain way that, in turn, draws both leader and follower closer to each

other with the strength of belief that close relationship leads to and gives them access to rewards and benefits.

Expressiveness is also a form of power expression. Power itself is enacted through language, and power differentials are embedded in everyday speech (Morand, 2000). In addition to being task-oriented, transactional leadership is an overt demonstration of power relationship, because it compels performance based on the authority of the leader to grant rewards and punishments (Bass & Avolio, 1990). Thus, transactional leaders possess high relative power. According to Morand (2000), speakers high in relative power tend to be less polite in language or speech acts. Morand explained that positive politeness is being less polite, because being less polite suggests familiarity, or presumptuousness of social solidarity, which also means being informal, thus in the lexical style, being less polite means being expressive. Informality is a facet of expressiveness, where language could be very casual and personal such as the use of colloquial or slang words, addressing others by their first names, or even presuming general agreement when there is none through the use of inclusive forms of grammar such as *we*. Expressiveness is a form of positive politeness reflecting power differentials, and for U.S. respondents, leader informality at the dyadic level has a positive effect on the quality of LMX.

From a cross-cultural perspective, the result is consistent with previous findings that Americans tend to be more task-oriented while Filipinos tend to be more relations-oriented in managerial behavior (Mujatba & Balboa, 2009). Filipino managers tend to be less rewarding and less questioning and inquisitive in communication behavior (H. J. Wilson et al., 1996). The communicative behaviors of Filipinos do not reflect task-oriented leadership style. Thus, for RP respondents, expressiveness is not something that favors the development of quality LMXs. Given that expressiveness promotes social interaction, and the individualistic tendencies of the American culture correlate highly with extraversion (Migliore, 2011; Robie, Brown, & Bly, 2005), extraversion as an American personality trait that makes them highly expressive and sociable and, consistent with the results of the current study, suggest that U.S. respondents find expressiveness favorable to the development of social relationships. The facets of expressiveness may be

considered less polite, but this is typical in the social interactions of Americans, who are highly social and extraverted. The directness of discourse in American language and communicative demeanor (Adair, Okumura, & Brett, 2001), and sometime adversarial in managing conflict in the workplace involving threats, blame, destructive criticism, patronizing, stereotyping, interrupting, and discounting (Raider, Coleman, & Gerson, 2006), is a natural part of the social norm, which reflects a preference for expressiveness. In a low-context communication such as in the United States, direct and open communication is highly appreciated and preferred (X. Lin & Miller, 2003). For the U.S. sample, respondents expect leaders to be expressive, not in an adversarial manner, but openly through talkativeness, dominating conversations, humor, and informality (Gudykunst & Ting-Toomey, 1988). Stated plainly, U.S. respondents prefer open communication with leaders. This is desirable and preferred over high-context cultures (collectivist leaning) such as the Philippines that restrain expressiveness.

Emotionality

Although RP respondents are not expressive, they place significant attention to emotionality as a negative leader communication style. While the regression model for the U.S. sample shows that emotionality explained a significant variance in LMX, the bivariate correlation is not significant. For the U.S. sample, it failed to follow the causal proposition of the current study, thus failing to explain any mediating role between leadership styles and LMX. The outcome, however, for the RP sample followed the causal proposition that transactional leadership is negatively related to leader communication style of emotionality, which is negatively related to the quality of LMX relationship, and that emotionality would mediate the relationship between transactional leadership and LMX such that it would lead to low LMX. As the results indicate, RP respondents find the facets of emotionality, which are (a) sentimentality or failing to control emotions, holding back tears, or easily be overcome by emotional memories or topics; (b) worrisomeness or the inability for the leader to talk about other important things, talks a lot about his or her worries, and overtly being anxious; (c) tension or inability to express himself or herself properly, being visibly tense in a

conversation, unable to address a large group in a calm manner, difficulty talking in a relaxed manner about an important topic; and (d) defensiveness or easily affected or bothered by negative remarks or comments from others, as an inability to cope with critical remarks, and become visibly hurt when criticized negatively, thus affecting the quality of the dyadic relationship.

Matsumoto, Yoo, and LeRoux (2010) suggested that emotion is a very powerful aspect of human behavior because it drives motivation. Matsumoto et al. stated, "When emotions are elicited, they affect our thinking, turn on a unique physiology, make us feel certain ways, and motivate us to engage in certain behavior" (p. 44). When negative emotions are involved, rational thinking could easily be subverted, and when individuals fail to engage in critical thinking or reasonable discourse as a result of the influence of negative emotions, they also fail to recognize differences or sources of misunderstandings in relationships (Matsumoto et al., 2010). These authors also suggested that when leaders are able to regulate negative emotions by holding them back or not acting on the feeling directly, the likelihood that they would be able to engage in productive relationships would be higher because they could engage in processes that facilitate understanding, which is particularly important in intercultural adjustment, because it aids in the "appraisal and attribution of the causes of the differences" (p. 45), thus leading to better understanding. The threat of failing to control negative emotions is the failure to think rationally and resistance to openness and flexibility to new ideas; more importantly, in interpersonal and intercultural relationships, it is the reinforcement of ethnocentric and stereotypic ways of thinking.

Anxiety is a component of lexical emotionality as defined by De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Siberg, et al. (2013) and is a negative feeling, thus making emotionality a negative communication style. The idea of negative emotionality indicates instability because of the risk of irrationality, and instability promotes uncertainty or unpredictability. In a collectivist-leaning culture such as the Philippines, the sense of instability and uncertainty are mitigated by acceptance of high power distance relationship. Power distance is the degree of inequality in power that exists between two individuals within a social system (Hofstede, 2001).

The Philippines is ranked number 4 among 53 nations in the power distance index, which means that power inequality is generally accepted and that there is a high preference for an autocratic or paternalistic type of leader (Hofstede, 2001), who stands as a figure or symbol of stability and certainty. This cultural dimension reflects several cultural values of Filipinos, where paternalism is a mindset and expected in leadership and management (Mujatba & Balboa, 2009). This is owing to a deep sense of deference to superiors and elders for guidance and leadership. Mujatba and Balboa (2009) also suggested that part of the cultural nuance of Filipinos is sensitivity, such that any demonstration of negative emotions may be perceived as confrontational, thus a threat to individual performance and productivity. It is no surprise that RP respondents regard emotionality as a leader communication style in a negative sense; that is, they would distance themselves from this type of leader because he or she would not be a reliable source of guidance and leadership. The threat of negative emotions and the uncertainty that leader instability creates because of negative emotionality makes close proximal relations with the leader difficult. The work environment becomes unpredictable under an emotional leader, and the uncertainty heightens follower anxieties. For RP respondents, when leader communication style is emotional, the less they prefer to develop quality relationship with that leader.

Cultural Differences

One of the objectives of the current study was to determine whether culture, as represented by nationality, would show significant differences in preference for leadership style, leader communication styles, and effect on the quality of LMX relationship. The results indicate significant differences on leadership styles and leader communication styles but not for the effect on the quality of LMX.

U.S. Respondents

On leadership style, U.S. respondents had a lower but significant preference for transformational leadership than RP respondents. One might find this uniquely surprising, that the U.S. sample group has a weaker preference considering that the whole idea of transformational leadership is a North American concept. The

emphasis of this leadership approach is the motivation of individuals to pursue higher order needs (Bass & Avolio, 1990) and has been widely linked to organizational transformation and to the innovative culture (Bass & Avolio, 1994, 1998; Bass & Riggio, 2006) of many technological organizations in the United States. Flynn (2010) suggested that the United States has been the preeminent and leading innovator among industrialized nations. The results of the current study do not suggest that U.S. respondents are less inclined toward transformational leadership but that RP respondents simply show a stronger or higher desire for transformational leadership, perhaps because it remains an ideal aspiration that has yet to be experienced by Filipinos (e.g., Carino, 2008; Nye, 2011). In contrast, Americans live in a culture of technological innovation. Thus, the strength of their preference for this leadership style may not be evident because it has become a typical expectation in the skill set of leaders and managers in U.S. organizations.

As far as leader communication styles are concerned, U.S. respondents have a significant difference with RP respondents on verbal aggressiveness, emotionality, and impression manipulativeness. For both sample groups, verbal aggressiveness has a negative effect, but the effect is stronger on the U.S. sample than it is for the RP sample. This difference indicates that U.S. respondents may be more sensitive and resistant to verbal aggressiveness. Verbal aggressiveness is a demeaning form of communication style and a face-threatening action (Cupach & Imahori, 1993; Fairhurst, 1993; Morand, 1996) to a person's individualism as much as respect is a necessary condition in maintaining a social group in a collectivist society such as the Philippines. Irani and Oswald (2009) suggested that workplace aggression, which manifests itself verbally, may be more accepted in individualistic societies as a form of defense to an individual's interests and less accepted in collectivist societies because it is a threat to the interest of the collective, thus verbal aggressiveness has a negative effect in both cultural dimension. As indicated by the results of the current study, the magnitude or effect may vary along cultural dimensions, particularly more toward the individual than the collective. Thus, individualistic societies would show a higher resistance to this form of communication style than collectivist societies.

The results of the *t* test also reveal that emotionality significantly differs along cultural dimensions, with the U.S. respondents showing a higher mean score than RP respondents, although the magnitude and effect are small in both sample groups. While the mediated regression models did not relate emotionality as explanatory to the relationship of both leadership styles and quality of LMX relationship, preference for emotionality differed along cultural dimensions. The results of the *t* test may indicate that the higher mean score of the U.S. sample shows a stronger reaction to the importance of emotionality as a leader communication style compared to RP respondents. Although the *t* value is positive, the magnitude and effect of nationality as predictor of preference for emotionality is small, because in individualistic cultures, there is high preference for emotional regulation. Some individualistic cultures, such as the United States, tend to be low in uncertainty avoidance, which represents the degree to which people experience stress relative to the unknown, uncertain, unpredictable, and ambiguous situations (Hofstede, 2001; Matsumoto et al., 2010). Cultures that are low in uncertainty avoidance tend to exhibit low neuroticism (Allik & McCrae, 2004). Neuroticism is "emotional lability" (Matsumoto et al., 2010, p. 51) or propensity to constantly change, which indicates some instability; thus cultures low in neuroticism would score high in emotional regulation. The United States is low in uncertainty avoidance, low in neuroticism, and high in emotional regulation (Matsumoto et al., 2010). Thus, the magnitude and effect on the *t* test is small or weak for the U.S. sample group. A similar observation could be made for the RP sample group. The Philippines score low in uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede, 2001) and nearly equal in emotional regulation with the United States (Matsumoto et al., 2010), thus the lower mean score indicates a lower preference on emotionality compared to the U.S. sample group.

The mean score of the U.S. sample group is also higher for impression manipulativeness than for the RP sample group. As in emotionality, impression manipulativeness was not a significant explanatory variable in the mediated regression models for both sample groups, but a comparison of differences indicate that the higher mean score of U.S. respondents shows a stronger preference for the

use of ingratiation, charm, inscrutability, and concealingness as leader communication styles. Ingratiation is specifically an impression management strategy (DuBrin, 2011; Gardner & Cleavenger, 1998), and charm is a form of exemplification within the impression management typology because it is a nonverbal demonstration to make an impression upon followers (Yukl, 2010) such as the use of seductive voice, flirting, and appearance to win somebody over or get others to do something (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Siberg, et al., 2013). Inscrutability and concealingness may not be specific approaches in the impression management typology (Jones & Pitman, 1982), but these facets of impression manipulativeness involve self-presentation, which is a matter of impression management (Metts & Grohskopf, 2003). The referent of self-presentation is the individual. When one talks about face or facework, it is a reference to the individual face, not the social group or collective. Hiding negative feelings about other people or concealing information to make oneself look good are examples of facework (Goffman, 1967) and politeness (P. Brown & Levinson, 1987).

Oetzel, Garcia, and Ting-Toomey (2008) suggested that face concerns and facework behaviors may be more pronounced in individualistic societies such as the United States and Germany than in collectivists societies such as China and Japan. These authors suggested that because confrontational and problem-solving communication are the norms in the United States and Germany and that there is a strong association between problem-solving and "other" (p. 398) or mutual face concerns, problem solving is an individual face concern rather than cultural. Thus, impression management and impression manipulativeness may be more of an individual decision to maintain own face or face of others, which is critical in intercultural relations (e.g., Rarick, Angriawan, & Nickerson, 2010). For U.S. respondents, the results indicate that they would expect leaders to manage or manipulate impressions to get things done and engage in facework that leads to problem-solving relationships.

R.P. Respondents

The RP sample group shows a higher mean score for transformational leadership than the U.S. sample and has a higher preference in only one leader

communication style—questioningness. The Philippines continue to lag behind in economic growth relative to other Southeast Asian countries and other "East Asian Tiger" (Nye, 2011, p. 5) economies in the region. The whole idea of transformation is an ideal that remains unrealized in the Philippines, given the transformative growth and prosperity of other countries in the region (Magtibay-Ramos, Estrada, & Felipe, 2011). Transformation of accountability at the national level remains an aspiration toward a strong republic (Carino, 2008). What is evident in these studies is the absence of any reference to transformative leadership that is necessary to lead and realize transformative change at the national level. The results of the current study seem to reflect a strong preference for transformational leadership in the face of current economic and social realities in the country. The aspirations for transformational leadership among Filipinos may be drawn out of expectations for moral leadership in governance.

Within Philippine bank organizations, the preference for paternalistic forms of leadership (Acuña, 2000) suggests a *family* type of culture where the head is considered a *parent* figure (Racelis, 2010). The idea of a *parent leader* holds tremendous influence on the moral formation of followers, thus the moral behavior of a leader is an important element in paternalistic leadership (Wu, 2012). Paternalistic leadership has been linked extensively to ethical behavior (Erben & Güneser, 2008; Öner, 2012; Ötken & Cenkci, 2012)—in a positive and negative sense. Ethical behavior is a central element of transformational leadership. To the extent that paternalistic leadership affects the moral development of followers suggests that leader have a transformative influence on followers such that there is mutual development of the leader and follower toward higher levels of morality and motivation (Burns, 1978). In transformational leadership, the relationship between leader and follower ultimately raises the level of human conduct and ethical aspirations (Burns, 1978). Thus, a paternalistic leader may stand as a transformative figure; and as the results suggest, Filipinos may have expectations or aspirations for transformative leadership from a paternalistic type of leader.

The results for the leader communication style of questioningness significantly differed between the U.S. and RP sample groups, with the RP sample

group showing a higher mean score but a negative *t*-test value. Questioningness partly explained the relationship between transactional leadership and LMX for both sample groups, but the *t* test indicates that the RP sample group has a higher negative preference for this leader communication style. The negative preference may be explained by Filipino values that promote "smooth interpersonal relations" (Arce & Poblador, 1977, p. 8) such as the concept of "pakikisama" (p. 8) or the conscious act of deferring to the decision of another person such as a leader or the majority to avoid confrontation and hostility andthe perception of being outside of the group. This value orientation is closely related to reciprocal norms among Filipinos such as *utang na loob* or debt of gratitude, which is a personal compulsion to return a favor; *hiya,* which literally means shame but in a social context refers to being mindful of one's behavior; and *amor propio* or self-esteem (Arce & Poblador, 1977), which is sensitivity to one's pride, self-respect, and face. Among RP respondents, questioningness, which includes being argumentative, may be perceived as intrusive, hostile, and confrontational and creates an atmosphere of conflict in the workplace. The results suggest that Filipinos would not prefer a leader who is argumentative but expect leaders to demonstrate deference to followers, debt of gratitude, mindfulness, and self-respect.

Implications of the Study

The results of the study offer theoretical and practical implications in leadership. Moving beyond the traditional definitions of leadership as trait based measured by trait behaviors within established leadership theories, the current study makes a major contribution to leadership as a relationship-building process. The process itself is enacted through communication. Communication is the mechanism by which relationships are built. Considering the objective of leadership—to influence followers and others to act in certain ways—the influence process can only be conveyed in a manner of communication. Scholars have generally defaulted to the idea that effective leadership requires good communication skills at the organizational and dyadic levels of interaction, and this point is beyond contestation. Regardless of the field of knowledge, whether it is from the physical

sciences, health and behavioral sciences, social sciences, culture and history, and politics and economics, communication in the form of language, symbols, rituals, values, and beliefs explains the phenomenon, dynamics, and behavior of human interaction from these different perspectives.

In general, leadership scholars and practitioners have a sense of what it means to communicate properly but do not give conscious attention to the manner itself. Human communication is a dynamic and immeasurably rich field of knowledge that connects and advances all other forms of knowledge, and yet leadership studies have lagged behind in placing communication at the center of understanding leadership behavior. The overarching implication or conclusion that could be drawn from this study is that leadership is all about communication, and effective relationship-building behaviors are dependent on the manner of conveyance. The relevance and implications of the findings of this study can be situated in several aspects of leadership studies such as proximal relations, power relations, conflict management, intercultural relations, organizational learning, and leader and follower development.

Proximal Relations

The current research supports the theory that the quality of dyadic relationship between a leader and follower is determined to a significant extent by the communication style of the leader, more specifically his or her manner of verbal expressions. Leader communication styles determine proximal relations in LMX relationships. The fundamental premise of LMX theory is that the quality of LMX depends on the distance of the leader and follower to each other in terms of relationship. When a follower is close to the leader, he or she gains access to social capital necessary to achieve his or her instrumental objective of career success (Seibert et al., 2001). The leader, however, initiates the proximal relationship in that he or she must convey to the follower that it is worth it to draw close to the leader. The conveyance comes in the form of advice, encouragement, task assistance, rewards, and mutual influence (Fairhurst & Chandler, 1989; Klein & Kim, 1998). In other words, close proximal relations depends on supportive communication (Eisenberg, Goodall, & Trethewey, 2007), while nonsupportive

communication such as verbal aggressiveness, questioningness, and emotionality may push followers to maintain some distance in interacting with the leader. Supportive communication creates a climate of reciprocal behavior, both in-role and out-role, because of the higher quality of LMX (Brandes et al., 2004) from the follower, but derogatoriness in verbal aggressiveness, argumentativeness in questioningness, and tension in emotionality (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Siberg, et al., 2013) creates the opposite condition. The extent to which followers will reciprocate behavior in a climate of fear, conflict, and tension restrain follower motivation, which in effect limit the extent of their performance to the formal requirements of their work (Yukl, 2010). These heavy-handed manners of communication lead to a heightened level of pressure, stress, and insecurity in the workplace, which undermines mutual dependence, loyalty, commitment, and support. The low-level mutual influence perpetuates a work climate where the quality of LMX would be low. Followers will continue to perform despite distant proximal relations, but productivity would correspond with low LMX.

If verbal aggressiveness, questioningness, and emotionality create distance, then preciseness and expressiveness could draw leader and follower toward a closer relationship because these manners of communication promote information exchange, which is essential to creating certainty. When followers know exactly what they need to do, which means they are not confused about responsibilities and priorities, then the probability of high-level performance would be greater (Yukl, 2010), and success at performance brings a sense of accomplishment that spills over toward a favorable view of work and the leader. The structure, thoughtfulness, substance, and conciseness that a leader expresses in communicating with followers creates conditions of reciprocal behavior because they know exactly what to expect, thus drawing leader and follower closer to each other. Expressiveness offers a similar implication on proximal relations. Expressiveness is a way of self-disclosure in the form of talkativeness, humor, conversation, and informality. Social penetration theory describes a means of increasing or escalating intimacy in a relationship (Roloff, 1981). Within the context of LMX, this manner of communicating would permit followers to gain a deeper familiarity with the leader,

and when the rewards of self-disclosure exceed the costs of being reserved or distant, they would move to a closer relationship. The information gained in expressiveness is used to predict reward and cost outcomes in the future (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). For as long as rewards exceed the cost in proximal relations, the relational interaction progresses toward a deeper relationship.

Power Relations

The current study supports the implication that leader communication styles are expressions of power in the form of compliance-gaining messages or strategies (Marwell & Schmidt, 1967). Compliance-gaining strategies includes making threats, promising rewards, displaying friendliness, calling in a debt, attributing positive and negative feelings, asking for favors, and showing positive esteem by saying to the person that he or she will be liked by others if he or she complies or hated when he or she does not comply (Marwell & Schmidt, 1967). In a power relationship such as LMX, these message strategies are typical communication goals that leaders pursue. The whole idea of compliance-gaining messaging is based on exchange theory. Recognizing that people will comply in exchange for something, individuals in positions of power and authority will attempt to influence compliance through three types of general power: (a) manipulating the consequences or the giving out of rewards and punishments, (b) taking advantage of relational position by being a supervisor, and (c) defining values and obligations or telling followers what is acceptable and not acceptable (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). When followers perceive any of these powers through any of the specific compliance-gaining messaging strategies such as threats or verbal aggressiveness, emotionality through moral appeals or calling in a debt, expressiveness or the attribution of positive and negative feelings, they would feel compelled to act or not to act. Thus, as an expression of power, the leader would typically use the verbal manner that invokes his or her power.

The results also support the theory that as an expression of power, the communication style or manner of linguistic form is different between a supervisor and a subordinate. Individuals in positions of power and authority tend to be less polite, and those under the authority tend to be more polite (Morand, 2000).

Politeness is a communication goal or a linguistic gesture or behavior that individuals pursue in order to meet the face needs of self and of others. Face is the image that individuals project in public. In dyadic interactions, face-threatening acts are a normal part of everyday interactions, such as requests or impositions. It is expected that face-threatening acts would flow between leader and follower in either direction, thus both would be sensitive to politeness gesture. Given the results, verbal aggressiveness, questioningness, expressiveness, and emotionality may be considered impolite because some facets of these communication styles are face-threatening acts. Face-threatening acts are serious considerations in intercultural relations because cultures determine the types of identities that are acceptable and unacceptable, thus manners of communication, or communication styles, become the most important element when culture is a factor in building relationships.

Intercultural Relations

The findings of the study support face-negotiation theory (Ting-Toomey, 1988, 2005). Face-negotiation theory predicts how individuals accomplish facework in different cultures. The emphasis on the autonomy of the individual, promotion of individual achievement, and placement of individual responsibility over the collective in an individualistic society focus facework on the individual. In individualistic societies, communication deals more with maintaining and protecting face. The emphasis on the values of the group or community in collectivist societies tends to be modest, polite, gracious, or generally self-effacing by not claiming attention for oneself, thus it is more deferential or respectful to others and the collective. In collectivist societies, it is expected that individuals would accept face loss by accepting blame or responsibility for norm infractions, thus apologizing is a primary form of linguistic gesture.

For example, in China if a junior person verbally attacks a senior person, the latter would not respond in a similar manner but instead would wait for an apology or may ask for an apology. When the apology is given, the senior person responds with a generous remark (C. Lin, 2010). C. Lin (2010) suggested that apology is a primary linguistic form of a face-saving or face-restoring act. In

collectivist societies such as China, an apology restores respect and balance within the group because the admission of wrongdoing is acknowledged and accepted with a generous remark that encourages and teaches individuals to be mindful of collective norms and to behave properly according to the norms in the future (C. Lin, 2010). Apologizing is a teaching moment in collectivist societies. It leads to the restoration, promotion, and preservation of quality relationships. The opposite may be inferred for verbal aggressiveness, argumentativeness, defensiveness, talkativeness, and dominating.

Although politeness is a culturally universal value (P. Brown & Levinson, 1987), manners of speaking, language, or communication styles would have varying levels of acceptance in different cultures. Verbal aggressiveness may be negatively related to quality of LMX in all cultures but may be tolerated more in individualistic societies such as the United States and less in collectivist societies such as the Philippines. Other forms, such as emotionality, may be unacceptable in the Philippines but may be accepted indifferently in the United States. In the same way that cultures are not purely individualistic or collectivist, the type of facework that people adapt in these cultures would depend on the importance or value they place on each communication style.

For example, both the U.S. and RP cultures value preciseness as evidenced by the positive value it brings on the quality of LMX, but being direct in communication may be considered thoughtless or lacking structure in negotiations among Filipinos, thus face threatening, but not for U.S. negotiators (Mintu-Wimsatt & Gassenheimer, 1996). Direct communication in negotiations may be in the form of a direct request or direct imposition on the other party. Request and impositions possess the nature of face threats (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). In cultures that rely on collective consultations before decisions are made (e.g., Kong, 2009; Mann et al., 1998; Schuster & Copeland, 2006; Smith, 1984, 2011), acute attention to communication styles would determine the kind of relationship that develops in intercultural relations because subtle differences in the acceptance or nonacceptance of certain styles such as questioningness, expressiveness, or

emotionality would vary across cultures and may, to some extent, be perceived as face threats.

Gender Communication

The demographics indicate that the preponderance of respondents substantially applies to female communication styles. Von Hippel, Wiryakusuma, Bowden, and Shochet (2011) argued that females in positions of leadership tend to adapt masculine communication styles in response to stereotype threats and stereotype reactance. Von Hippel et al. proceeded from the assumption that there is a prevailing negative stereotyping of females as inferior or less competent leaders, and to counteract this threat and the stigma it creates females react or behave in a manner that opposes the stereotype by adapting linguistic styles that are assertive and demonstrative such as being direct, succinct or concise, and instrumental (Mulac, Bradac, & Gibbons, 2001; Popp, Donovan, Crawford, Marsh, & Peele, 2003). The data and findings of the current study suggest that females may have implicit preference for certain leader communication styles that tend to be masculine in nature such as expressiveness. A facet of expressiveness includes dominating conversations. Conversational dominance may be a form of assertiveness and confidence and to a certain extent demonstrative of self-reliance. The masculine style of being direct, succinct, and instrumental may be reflected in preciseness, the facets of which are being concise, substantive, and structured.

Although not an objective of the study, differences were examined on preference for communication styles using gender as predictor. The results of the *t* test (see Appendix I) found no significant difference in five of the six leader communication styles, and that on the one that is significantly different, questioningness, males had a significantly higher mean score than females. These findings suggest two possible explanations. One is that there are no clear gender differences in communication styles (Ahmad & Rethinam, 2010), and the other is that females may be adapting male communication styles, as suggested by Von Hippel et al. (2011), in a way that makes the difference indiscernible. But a more plausible explanation relates to the theory that language is gendered (Foss, Foss, & Griffin, 1999). Referred to as Kramarae's theory, it advances the idea that language

systems have power relations embedded in it and that the "dominant linguistic system" (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011, p. 148) tend to influence all modes of expressions incorporated into language. According to Kramarae, the English language is dominated by and embodies masculine more than feminine forms and instruments. In organizational settings and many occupational terms, "men are the standard . . . and women are the aberrant category" (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011, p. 148). Von Hippel et al. confirmed the theory that perceptions of females as leaders are filtered through masculine language systems, not only in terms (e.g., Mr. & Mrs., Sir & Madam) but also in style (e.g., verbosity or conversationally dominant or directness). The power relations embedded in language tend to silence or mute females (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011), thus creating a stereotyping effect that females or women are less competent as leaders. In order to equalize and counter the effect of the imbalance in power relations, women would adapt the language and communication styles of the dominant language system.

In terms of culture, social power arrangements are not only embedded in language but that culture is observed from a masculine perspective. According to muted-group theory (Ardener & Ardener, 1978, as cited in Littlejohn & Foss, 2011), ethnographic studies are biased toward male observations and language, as an element of culture has an inherent male bias. One of the manifestations of silencing and muting is that in public discourses, women tend to be less expressive, confident, and comfortable (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011) such that they tend to use linguistic features such as hedging, hesitations, and tag questions (Von Hippel et al., 2011).

Limitations of the Study

Empirical research has several limitations. The recognition of these limitations provides caution to the users of the current study to interpret the results within the confines of the methodology used. Quantitative nonexperimental research is inherently weak in that it lacks direct control over the conditions that may cause a phenomenon to occur (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). The results cannot be determined as precisely as possible. The possible causes of the "truth" (Kerlinger &

Lee, 2000, p. 559) of the hypothesized relationships in nonexperimental designs can only be asserted with some degree of confidence. Any model that attempts to establish causality can only infer it from correlations and covariations because "causality is not present in the data of any piece of research" (Meyers et al., 2013a, p. 905), thus it cannot be observed or measured directly. As Patton (2002) stated, interpretations and judgments in quantitative research are based on "inadequate knowledge" (p. 14) such that depth and detail are constrained by the design.

Spurious Effects

The nature of the data derived from ex-post facto research is a major limitation in nonexperimental designs (Jarde et al., 2012). In ex-post facto research, independent variables cannot be manipulated, thus the data drawn from independent variables may not be sufficient to explain the phenomenon under investigation. The conditions or causes that the researcher assumes in the prediction model makes the plausibility of explanation dependent on uncontrolled information or spurious, which opens the possibility for other causal explanations outside of the model (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). The inherent presence of post hoc fallacy derived from ex-post facto data "can and often does, lead to erroneous and misleading interpretations of research data" (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000, p. 558). The current study sought to examine follower perceptions and attitudes based on observation, which could not be manipulated through a controlled environment. Thus, all possible extraneous variables or rival hypotheses that may explain the causal propositions of the current study were theoretically included as control variables. One of the control variables was used as a test variable to examine the effect of nationality or culture on the hypothesized relationships.

Random Assignment of Respondents

In addition to having no control over the manipulation of independent variables, the lack of power to randomize is a major limitation in nonexperimental designs owing to lack of control over the random assignment of respondents (Kerliner & Lee, 2000). Although it is possible to draw participants at random in nonexperimental research by way of probability sampling (Babbie, 1990, 2007), it is not possible in quantitative nonexperimental designs to assign respondents to a

group (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). In other words, respondents are already assigned to a sample on the basis of a trait, characteristic, or variable such as nationality. Although respondents from each nationality group were randomly solicited to participate, the nonrandom assignment on the basis of nationality may introduce a "loophole for other variables to crawl through" (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000, p. 561) that are extraneous to the study. For example, the Philippines have several ethnic subcultures that may influence managerial task activities. Using a sample of Philippine commercial bank branch managers, Pineda and Whitehead (1997) found significant differences between Chinese–Filipino managers and Ethnic–Filipino managers in making personal judgments relating to managerial tasks. In the current study, ethnic culture or subcultures within each nationality group may be correlated with nationality such that it confounds the effect of culture on the dependent variable.

Causal Propositions

In models of prediction, the predicted casual results may not always follow the direction of the causal propositions even when conceptually or theoretically supported. Hair et al. (2010) stated that even when the selection of independent and dependent variables are based on empirical evidence and theoretically relevant, the basic tenets of predictive model development might be violated. In the current study, some of the leader communication styles did not follow the direction of the causal predictions, but the bivariate relationships were significant. This may be due to weak theoretical support, measurement error, specification error (Hair et al., 2010), or statistical error in prediction (Meyers et al., 2013a). In regards to weak theoretical support, the current study relied heavily on ontological theories in relationship building. The current study also used summated scales to minimize measurement error. In addition, the current study did not exclude possibly irrelevant leader communication style variables to avoid specification error. Lastly, to reduce statistical error, the current study narrowed the target to a more homogenized group in order to make the prediction model apply to the target sample.

Suppression Effect

A surprising result, which limits the study, is the suppression effect in the regression model of the RP sample group on transactional leadership. In the unmediated model, the regression coefficient of transactional leadership was not significant but increased in relative contribution and became significant when leadership communication styles were added in the mediated model. This is a limitation in interpretation. As the results indicate, mediator variables may not always reduce the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable but increase it. Suppression effect is a mediation effect that leads to the strengthening of relationship to a significant level, which is an increase in R^2 (Meyers et al., 2013a). Suppression effect emerges when a suppressor variable correlates with error variance in another variable, thus purifying the predictor, which increases the predictive power of the predictor (Pedhazur, 1982), which in this case is transactional leadership. The result of the removal of the unwanted shared variance of transformational on transactional leadership in predicting LMX as a result of the effect of a suppressing variable increased the predictive power of transactional leadership significantly.

A suppressor variable has the effect of "eliminating, suppressing, or trimming irrelevant variance in the other independent variables" (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000, p. 779). A suppression effect occurs when (a) the correlation between the suppressor variable and the dependent variable is substantially smaller than its beta weight or (b) the correlation coefficient with the dependent variable and its beta weight have different signs (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2007). The results indicate that emotionality was the suppressor variable for the RP sample group. Hair et al. (2010) stated that suppression effect "denotes instances when the 'true' relationship between the dependent and independent variable has been hidden in the bivariate correlations" (p. 203) leading to a nonsignificant relationship or "reversed in sign" (p. 203); but by inducing multicollinearity through the addition of other independent variables, unwanted shared variance are accounted for and removed. As the results indicate, emotionality removed or purified the multicollinearity of transformational leadership from transactional leadership, which resulted in

revealing the true relationship of transactional leadership with LMX. As a result of the suppressing effect of emotionality and the recommendation of Hair et al. not to interpret the regression coefficient of transactional leadership in the overall model but use the bivariate correlation instead to examine individual independent–dependent variable relationship, the current study relied on bivariate correlations to examine individual mediator effects.

Generalizability

A final point on the limitations of the current study is the generalizability of the results to the population of domestic bank employees. The potential of the results to be applied to the target population is a criterion of research design (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Survey research is conducted to understand the population from which the sample was drawn by developing generalized propositions about the general behavior of the population (Babbie, 1990). More importantly, homogeneity is critical to the generalizability of the study, thus both sample groups were limited and drawn from domestic bank organizations in the United States and the Philippines. Interpretation of the results may be applied only to individuals who work in domestic bank organizations in both countries. In the current study, however, each sample group represents different cultural dimensions. By comparing differences by nationality, the current study attempted to extend the interpretation and the limits of generalizability beyond nationality to cultural differences. Whether the results of the current study can be generalized along cultural dimensions, interpretation of the findings should be taken with caution because of the close historical and cultural affiliation of the United States and the Philippines.

Future Research

The causal model investigated in the current study is a modification of the model investigated by De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, and Oostenveld (2010) in which they placed charismatic, human-oriented, and task-oriented leadership styles as mediators of leader communication styles with knowledge sharing and other leadership outcomes, perceived leader performance, satisfaction with leader, and

subordinate's team commitment. The results of that study showed full mediation of leadership styles on leader communication styles. In the current study, leader communication style appears to have mediated leadership style and quality of LMX. No implications should be drawn from this divergence in model findings because each study examined different predictors and outcomes, with leader communication style the common variable under investigation. Nevertheless, the divergence in findings suggests that the causal path needs further investigation. Given that leader communication styles correlate highly with personality traits (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Konings, et al., 2011), and leadership styles are influenced by personality traits (Judge & Bono, 2000; Kalshoven et al., 2011; Zopiatis & Constanti, 2012), estimating a structural model examining the relationships between personality, communication styles, and leadership styles could clarify the causal paths and make significant theoretical advances in leadership studies.

The findings of significant relationship between leadership styles and leader communication styles advances the role of leader communication styles on the construction of dyadic relationships but did not clearly differentiate communication styles between transformational and transactional leadership styles along cultural dimensions. For example, preciseness and verbal aggressiveness explained the relationship of transformational leadership with the quality of LMX, and preciseness and questioningness were common to transactional leadership both both nationalities. Although the U.S. and RP sample groups differed in expressiveness and emotionality, the magnitude of the difference are very small. Examining the differences in leader communication styles between two countries that have strong cultural similarities but fall into different cultural dimensions— individualistic versus collectivism—may have weakened or dilluted the effect of nationality on the differences. Cultural dimensions are attributed at the national level (Hofstede, 2001), which means that at the individual level cultural behavior may be contrary to the national orientation, thus no culture ever falls neatly into a cultural dimension (Littlejohn & Foss, 2001), such as the United States and the Philippines. The strong historical and cultural affiliation of the Philippines to the United States may have led to the commonalities in leader communication style

preferences and weak differences in expressivity and emotionality. Differences may be stronger where differences in culture that are more distinct, such as language spoken, are considered. Clear differentiation along cultural dimensions would be more relevant when examined using samples that do not share a common language.

The homogeneity of the population frame may have influenced the findings. Due to the high regulatory nature of banking organizations (Barth, Caprio, & Levine, 2008; Pasiouras, Gaganis, & Zopounidis, 2008), leadership styles may be more transactional than transformative. Bank regulatory environment continues to restrain development and improvements in efficiency (Barth et al., 2008). This seems to be particularly evident in the Philippines, where several domestic banks are owned and operated by oligarchs, clans, and official moguls (Johnston, 2008). The services and products that banks offer tend to be similar and common but may differ only on the interest they offer, the cost of using the services or products, and how these services and products are delivered. The current study could benefit by using a different population frame to validate the findings. Organizations that rely or depend more on transformational leadership, such as organizations in technology, manufacturing, or educational institutions, may provide more insights regarding transformational leadership.

In addition, there were twice as many female respondents in both sample groups. With language as gendered and the social power arrangements creating negative stereotypical impressions upon women, further investigation is needed to ascertain differences on the impact of feminine communication styles on the quality of dyadic relationships. The results suggest that female respondents convey masculine communication styles (Von Hippel et al., 2011); for example, females are more indirect, emotional, and elaborate but also tentative and lack authority. Von Hippel et al. (2011) suggested that this phenomenon is a way to counter the stereotype that females are less competent in leadership positions than men. The finding that preciseness, expressiveness, emotionality, and questioningness are consequential responses to counter the negative stereotype requires a deeper investigation through qualitative approaches and to validate prior studies and test femine theories of communication styles.

Leadership rhetoric remains a valuable area of investigation in the formation of individual perceptions. Leader performance and effectiveness are determined based on how followers and others within the work group perceive the leader. Perception has a direct influence on behavior because it helps people organize information into conceptual models or categories. Following a constructivism perspective (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011), personal construct theory (Kelly, 1955) provides a framework that could explain how similarities and differences are used to interpret events and things and how it may influence the choices of communication strategies and tactics to gain compliance. There is considerable value in probing deeper the importance of rhetoric in the formation of perceptions, because it influences how a person thinks, which influences how he or she communicates. Applying a different theoretical basis in understanding leader communication as a relationship-building mechanism would add depth and breadth to leader communication research.

Along the same lines of examining rhetoric and perception, examining further the relationship between impression management and compliance-gaining strategies contributes to how it affects the work environment and quality of dyadic relationships. The construction of social realities in the workplace is formed through a system of meaning and discourses that lead to a psychological state destructive to the work enviroment and employees (Lutgen-Sandvik & Tracy, 2012). Lutgen-Sandvik and Tracy (2012) referred to this as "workplace bullying" (p. 9), which is also referred to as mobbing, nonsexual harassment, generalized harassment, emotional abuse, and emerges from different types of negative communication such as abusive supervision, ethnic harassment, verbal abuse and aggressiveness, incivility, ostracism, and social undermining. To the extent that workplace environment has a lot to do with leader behavior, leader communication styles become a primary means of determining workplace environment, thus communication styles that could be intrusive (questioningness), tension creating (emotionality), derogatory (verbal aggressiveness), and dominating (expressiveness) fall within the category of workplace bullying. This deserves further investigation by extending the current study into the realm of qualitative

methods. Investigating negative communication and how it creates a toxic workplace environment may be difficult to investigate empirically. Given the very rich and dynamic nature of human communication, the harm that it does may be best investigated using case study approach.

Summary

The current research sought to examine and explain how leader communication styles construct quality LMX relationship. The findings indicate that certain leader communication styles—preciseness, verbal aggressiveness, emotionality, expressiveness, and questioningness—explain how leadership behavior of transformational and transactional leadership affect the quality of dyadic relationships. The findings also indicate that culture, as represented by nationality, determines preferential differences in leadership styles and leader communication styles. The findings also validate the instrument reliability and construct validity of the Leader CSI developed by De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Konings, et al. (2011) and De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Siberg, et al. (2013).

The current research provides a model that builds upon the concept of leadership as relational and contributes to the overall effort to shift the focus of leadership studies from trait-based to examining how leader–member dyadic relationships are built or constructed. The model provides a framework to guide in further investigating the importance of leader communication styles in creating social realities within the workplace that contribute to either productive work or workplace toxicity. The research model highlights the role that leader communication style plays in proximal relations, power relationships, and intercultural relationships. The model upholds the fundamental premise that relationships are built through communication. It affirmatively confirms that leadership is communication. Communication is the pathway and mechanism by which leadership is enacted.

Beyond the value that leader communication styles play in enacting leadership behaviors, the current study contributes to how cultural dimensions determine differences in preferences for transformational and transactional

leadership styles, as well as leader communication styles. While the study found no significant difference in how these variables affect the quality of the LMX relationship along cultural dimensions, the findings reveal varying degrees of effect, thus giving substantial validation to the importance of cultural dimensions as a starting framework in understanding leader communication styles across cultures. Given the implications and limitations of the current study, the importance and value of leader communication styles is a factor that merits considerable value in understanding how relations evolve in the workplace.

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Appendix A

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire-5X (Short Form)

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
Rater Form

Name of Leader: _____ Date: _____

Organization ID #: _____ Leader ID #: _____

This questionnaire is used to describe the leadership style of the above-mentioned individual as you perceive it. Answer all items on this answer sheet. **If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank.** Please answer this questionnaire anonymously.

Important (necessary for processing): Which best describes you?

___ I am at a higher organizational level than the person I am rating.
___ The person I am rating is at my organizational level.
___ I am at a lower organizational level than the person I am rating.
___ Other than the above.

Forty-five descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits the person you are describing. Use the following rating scale:

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

The Person I Am Rating. . .

1. Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts 0 1 2 3 4
2. *Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate 0 1 2 3 4
3. Fails to interfere until problems become serious 0 1 2 3 4
4. Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards 0 1 2 3 4
5. Avoids getting involved when important issues arise 0 1 2 3 4

Appendix B

Communication Style Inventory (Other English Version)

quest	Item	domain	facet	R	CSI (other)
29	1	Expressiveness	Talkativeness		He/she always has a lot to say.
53	2	Expressiveness	Talkativeness		He/she has a hard time keeping him-/herself silent when around other people.
77	3	Expressiveness	Talkativeness	R	He/she is never the one who breaks a silence by starting to talk.
101	4	Expressiveness	Talkativeness		He/she likes to talk a lot.
35	5	Expressiveness	Conversational Dominance		He/she often takes the lead in a conversation.
59	6	Expressiveness	Conversational Dominance	R	Most of the time, other people determine what the discussion is about, not him/her.
83	7	Expressiveness	Conversational Dominance		He/she often determines which topics are talked about during a conversation.
107	8	Expressiveness	Conversational Dominance		He/she often determines the direction of a conversation.
41	9	Expressiveness	Humor		Because of his/her humor, he/she is often the centre of attention among a group of people.
65	10	Expressiveness	Humor	R	He/she has a hard time being humorous in a group.
89	11	Expressiveness	Humor		His/her jokes always draw a lot of attention.
113	12	Expressiveness	Humor		He/she often manages to make others burst out laughing.
47	13	Expressiveness	Informality	R	He/she communicates with others in a distant manner.
71	14	Expressiveness	Informality	R	He/she behaves somewhat formally when he/she meets someone.
95	15	Expressiveness	Informality		He/she addresses others in a very casual way.
119	16	Expressiveness	Informality	R	He/she comes across as somewhat stiff when dealing with people.
30	17	Preciseness	Structuredness		When he/she tells a story, the different parts are always clearly related to each other.
54	18	Preciseness	Structuredness		He/she sometimes finds it hard to tell a story in an organized way.
78	19	Preciseness	Structuredness		He/she always expresses a clear chain of thoughts when he/she argues a point.
102	20	Preciseness	Structuredness		His/her stories always contain a logical structure.
36	21	Preciseness	Thoughtfulness		He/she thinks carefully before he/she says something.
60	22	Preciseness	Thoughtfulness		He/she weighs his/her answers carefully.
84	23	Preciseness	Thoughtfulness	R	The statements he/she makes are not always well thought out.
108	24	Preciseness	Thoughtfulness		He/she chooses his/her words with care.
42	25	Preciseness	Substantiveness		Conversations with him/her always involve some important topic.
66	26	Preciseness	Substantiveness		You won't hear him/her jabbering about superficial or shallow matters.
90	27	Preciseness	Substantiveness	R	He/she is someone who can often talk about trivial things.
114	28	Preciseness	Substantiveness		He/she rarely if ever just chatters away about something.
48	29	Preciseness	Conciseness		He/she doesn't need a lot of words to get his/her message across.
72	30	Preciseness	Conciseness		Most of the time, he/she only needs a few words to explain something.
96	31	Preciseness	Conciseness	R	He/she is somewhat long-winded when he/she needs to explain something.
120	32	Preciseness	Conciseness		With a few words he/she can usually clarify his/her point to everybody.
31	33	Verbal Aggressiveness	Angriness		If something displeases him/her, he/she sometimes explodes with anger.
55	34	Verbal Aggressiveness	Angriness	R	Even when he/she is angry, he/she won't take it out on someone else.
79	35	Verbal Aggressiveness	Angriness		He/she tends to snap at people when he/she gets annoyed.
103	36	Verbal Aggressiveness	Angriness		He/she can sometimes react somewhat irritably to people.
37	37	Verbal Aggressiveness	Authoritarianism	R	He/she is not very likely to tell someone what they should do.
61	38	Verbal Aggressiveness	Authoritarianism		He/she sometimes insists that others do what he/she says.
85	39	Verbal Aggressiveness	Authoritarianism		He/she expects people to obey when he/she asks them to do something.
109	40	Verbal Aggressiveness	Authoritarianism		When he/she feels others should do something for him/her, he/she asks for it in a demanding tone of voice.
43	41	Verbal Aggressiveness	Derogatoriness	R	He/she never makes fun of anyone in a way that might hurt their feelings.
67	42	Verbal Aggressiveness	Derogatoriness		He/she has at times made people look like fools.
91	43	Verbal Aggressiveness	Derogatoriness		He/she has been known to be able to laugh at people in their face.
115	44	Verbal Aggressiveness	Derogatoriness		He/she has humiliated someone in front of a crowd.
49	45	Verbal Aggressiveness	Nonsupportiveness	R	He/she can listen well.
73	46	Verbal Aggressiveness	Nonsupportiveness	R	He/she always shows a lot of understanding for other people's problems.
97	47	Verbal Aggressiveness	Nonsupportiveness	R	He/she always takes time for someone if they want to talk to him/her.
121	48	Verbal Aggressiveness	Nonsupportiveness	R	He/she always treats people with a lot of respect.
32	49	Questioningness	Unconventionality		He/she sometimes tosses bizarre ideas into a group discussion.
56	50	Questioningness	Unconventionality		He/she often says unexpected things.
80	51	Questioningness	Unconventionality		In discussions, he/she often puts forward unusual points of view.
104	52	Questioningness	Unconventionality		In conversations, he/she often toys with some very wild ideas.
38	53	Questioningness	Philosophicalness	R	He/she never enters into discussions about the future of the human race.
62	54	Questioningness	Philosophicalness		He/she likes to talk with others about the deeper aspects of our existence.
86	55	Questioningness	Philosophicalness	R	He/she never engages in so-called philosophical conversations.
110	56	Questioningness	Philosophicalness		He/she regularly has discussions with people about the meaning of life.
44	57	Questioningness	Inquisitiveness		During a conversation, he/she always tries to find out about the background of somebody's opinion.
68	58	Questioningness	Inquisitiveness	R	He/she doesn't bother asking a lot of questions just to find out why people feel the way they do about something.
92	59	Questioningness	Inquisitiveness		He/she asks a lot of questions to uncover someone's motives.
116	60	Questioningness	Inquisitiveness		He/she always asks how people arrive at their conclusions.
50	61	Questioningness	Argumentativeness		To stimulate discussion, he/she sometimes expresses a view different from that of his/her conversation partner.
74	62	Questioningness	Argumentativeness		He/she likes to provoke others by making bold statements.
98	63	Questioningness	Argumentativeness		He/she tries to find out what people think about a topic by getting them to debate with him/her about it.
122	64	Questioningness	Argumentativeness		By making controversial statements, he/she often forces people to express a clear opinion.
33	65	Emotionality	Sentimentality		When he/she sees others cry, he/she has difficulty holding back his/her tears.
57	66	Emotionality	Sentimentality	R	During a conversation, he/she is not easily overcome by emotions.
81	67	Emotionality	Sentimentality		When describing his/her memories, he/she sometimes gets visibly emotional.
105	68	Emotionality	Sentimentality		People can tell that he/she is emotionally touched by some topics of conversation.
39	69	Emotionality	Worrisomeness		When he/she is worried about something, he/she finds it hard to talk about anything else.
63	70	Emotionality	Worrisomeness		He/she tends to talk about his/her concerns a lot.
87	71	Emotionality	Worrisomeness		People can tell when he/she feels anxious.
111	72	Emotionality	Worrisomeness		When he/she worries, everybody notices.
45	73	Emotionality	Tension		Because of stress, he/she is sometimes unable to express him-/herself properly.
69	74	Emotionality	Tension		He/she can be visibly tense during a conversation.
93	75	Emotionality	Tension	R	He/she is able to address a large group of people very calmly.
117	76	Emotionality	Tension		He/she finds it hard to talk in a relaxed manner when what he/she has to say is valued highly.
51	77	Emotionality	Defensiveness		The comments of others have a noticeable effect on him/her.
75	78	Emotionality	Defensiveness	R	Nasty remarks from other people do not bother him/her too much.
99	79	Emotionality	Defensiveness		When people criticize him/her, he/she is visibly hurt.
123	80	Emotionality	Defensiveness		He/she is not always able to cope easily with critical remarks.
34	81	Impression Manipulativeness	Ingratiation		He/she sometimes praises somebody at great length, without being really genuine, in order to make them like him/her.
58	82	Impression Manipulativeness	Ingratiation		In discussions he/she sometimes expresses an opinion he/she does not support in order to make a good impression.
82	83	Impression Manipulativeness	Ingratiation		Sometimes he/she uses flattery to get someone in a favorable mood.
106	84	Impression Manipulativeness	Ingratiation		To be considered likeable, he/she sometimes says things his/her conversation partner likes to hear.
40	85	Impression Manipulativeness	Charm		He/she sometimes uses his/her charm to get something done.
64	86	Impression Manipulativeness	Charm		He/she sometimes flirts a little bit to win somebody over.
88	87	Impression Manipulativeness	Charm	R	He/she would not use his/her appearance to make people do things for him/her.
112	88	Impression Manipulativeness	Charm		He/she sometimes puts on a very seductive voice when he/she wants something.
46	89	Impression Manipulativeness	Inscrutableness		He/she makes sure that people cannot read it from his/her face when he/she doesn't appreciate them.
70	90	Impression Manipulativeness	Inscrutableness		Even when people ask for his/her thoughts on something, he/she seldom speaks his/her mind if those thoughts are unacceptable for
94	91	Impression Manipulativeness	Inscrutableness		He/she is able to hide negative feelings about other people well.
118	92	Impression Manipulativeness	Inscrutableness	R	Other people can easily tell when he/she thinks badly about them.
52	93	Impression Manipulativeness	Concealingness		He/she sometimes conceals information to make him/her look better.
76	94	Impression Manipulativeness	Concealingness		He/she sometimes 'forgets' to tell something when this is more convenient for him/her.
100	95	Impression Manipulativeness	Concealingness	R	He/she tells people the whole story, even when this is probably not good for him/her.
124	96	Impression Manipulativeness	Concealingness	R	Even if he/she would benefit from withholding information from someone, he/she would find it hard to do so.

Appendix C

LMX-7

LMX 7 QUESTIONNAIRE*

Instructions: This questionnaire contains items that ask you to describe your relationship with either your leader or one of your subordinates. For each of the items, indicate the degree to which you think the item is true for you by circling one of the responses that appear below the item.

1. Do you know where you stand with your leader (follower) ... [and] do you usually know how satisfied your leader (follower) is with what you do?

Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Fairly often	Very often
1	2	3	4	5

2. How well does your leader (follower) understand your job problems and needs?

Not a bit	A little	A fair amount	Quite a bit	A great deal
1	2	3	4	5

3. How well does your leader (follower) recognize your potential?

Not at all	A little	Moderately	Mostly	Fully
1	2	3	4	5

4. Regardless of how much formal authority your leader (follower) has built into his or her position, what are the chances that your leader (follower) would use his or her power to help you solve problems in your work?

None	Small	Moderate	High	Very high
1	2	3	4	5

5. Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your leader (follower) has, what are the chances that he or she would "bail you out" at his or her expense?

None	Small	Moderate	High	Very high
1	2	3	4	5

6. I have enough confidence in my leader (follower) that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

7. How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader (follower)?

Extremely ineffective	Worse than average	Average	Better than average	Extremely effective
1	2	3	4	5

By completing the LMX 7, you can gain a fuller understanding of how LMX theory works. The score you obtain on the questionnaire reflects the quality of your leader–member relationships, and indicates the degree to which your relationships are characteristic of partnerships, as described in the LMX model.

You can complete the questionnaire both as a leader and as a subordinate. In the leader role, you would complete the questionnaire multiple times, assessing the quality of the relationships you have with each of your subordinates. In the subordinate role, you would complete the questionnaire based on the leaders to whom you report.

Scoring Interpretation

Although the LMX 7 is most commonly used by researchers to explore theoretical questions, you can also use it to analyze your own leadership style. You can interpret your LMX 7 scores using the following guidelines: very high = 30–35, high = 25–29, moderate = 20–24, low = 15–19, and very low = 7–14. Scores in the upper ranges indicate stronger, higher-quality leader–member exchanges (e.g., in-group members), whereas scores in the lower ranges indicate exchanges of lesser quality (e.g., out-group members).

Appendix D

Sample Letter to Bank Associations

27 July 2013

American Bankers Association
1120 Connecticut Avenue, N.W.
Washington, DC 20036

Dear Sir or Madam:

My name is Theodore G. Pacleb. I am a Doctoral Candidate in Organizational Leadership and Entrepreneurship at Regent University, Virginia Beach, Virginia, United States. I am currently conducting a cross-cultural dissertation research that will examine the relationship between leadership style, leader communication styles, and the impact of these factors on the quality of the relationship between the leader and follower. Further, the study compares differences in these factors between participants from the United States and the Philippines.

Leadership is the single most important factor in developing a culture of productivity, good governance and compliance. Leadership is a single relationship process that begins with dyadic relationships. It is never a static phenomenon but a dynamic engagement that is created and re-created continuously through communicative interactions. Productive relationships that promote individual and organizational productivity are built upon effective leadership communication styles. This line of research makes a significant contribution and advancement in organizational leadership, communication, and organizational development.

This research is valuable in advancing global leadership communication research. Individuals who work in bank organizations are invited to participate in this research by completing an online survey.

   http://edu.surveygizmo.com/s3/1294083/Leader-Communication-and-Relationships

This study is significant and valuable to organizations in several ways:

- Assessment and identification of effective leadership and communication styles.
- Identification of deficiencies in communication skills necessary for effective leadership.
- Identification of deficiencies in leadership skills necessary for effective leadership.
- Importance of communication development in quality relationships.
- Importance of communication styles in improving supervisor-employee relationship.
- Use of communication styles as important determinants of relationships.

- Use of communication styles as measure of performance.
- Elevate leader communication styles as primary mechanism of the leadership process
- Establish leader communication styles as primary predictor of quality relationships.
- Contribute and advance the understanding of leadership as a relational phenomenon.
- Advance leadership as a communicative process.
- Establish an empirical basis to study the leadership process as a dialogic discourse.
- Incorporate leader communication styles in leadership development.

Participation is strictly confidential and anonymous. It is neither a reflection nor a representation of the bank and certainly not in reference to the bank. Any inferential conclusions made will be general to the entire banking sector. There is no risk that a completed survey will be identified to a particular bank organization. The survey will take approximately 15 - 30 minutes to complete.

I hope that I could be of service to ABA through this research as much as your assistance will help in advancing research in organizational leadership communication, and completion of this doctoral research.

Sincerely,

Theodore G. Pacleb

Theodore G. Pacleb
PhD Candidate in Organizational Leadership
Regent University
Virginia Beach, VA 23464
(757)201-8839
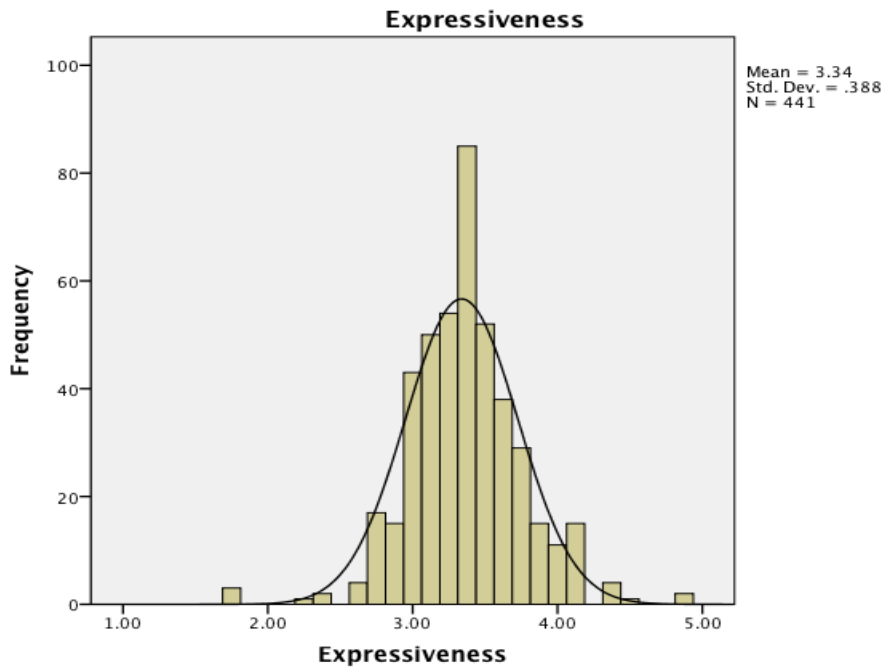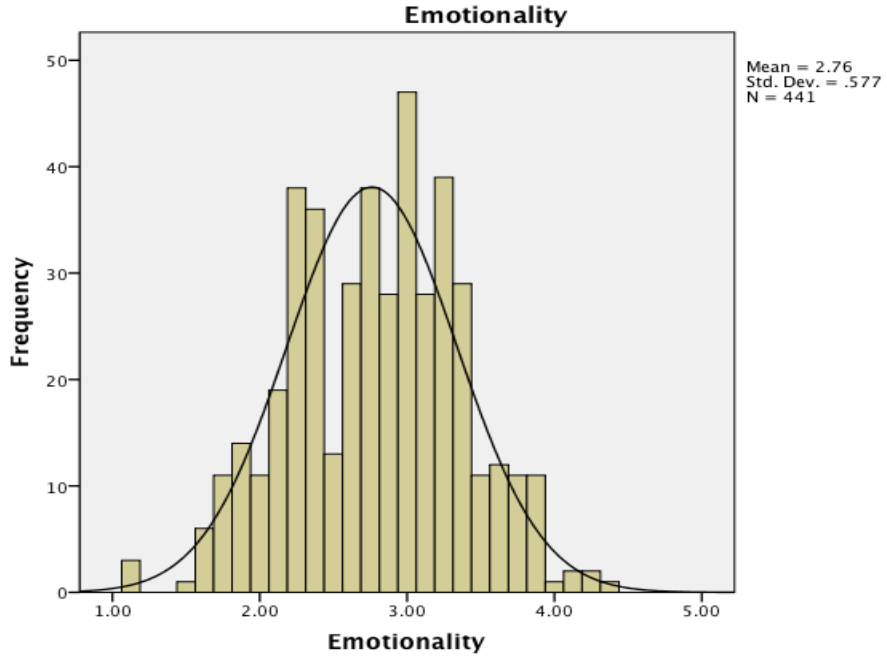theopac@regent.edu
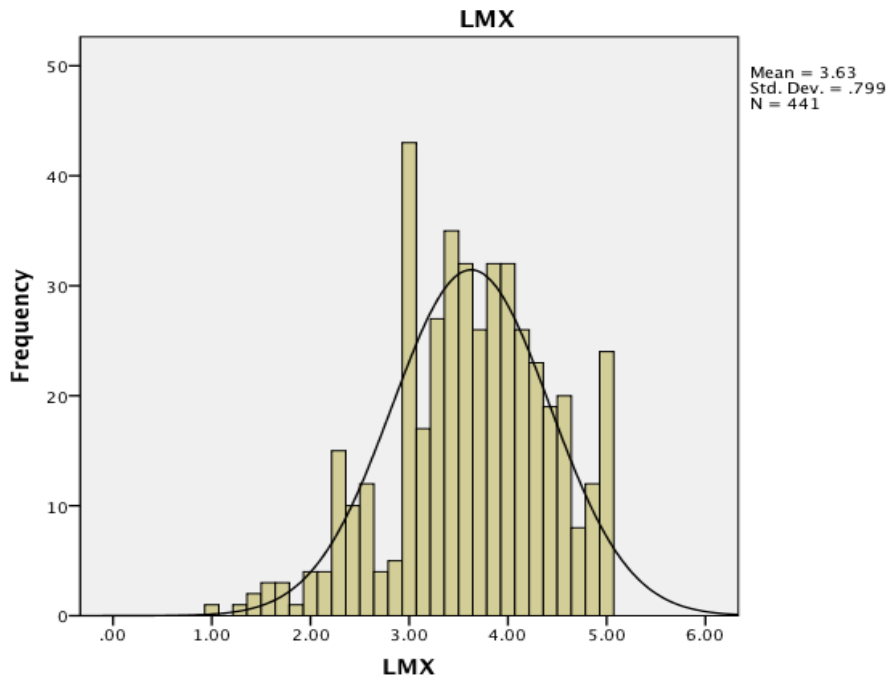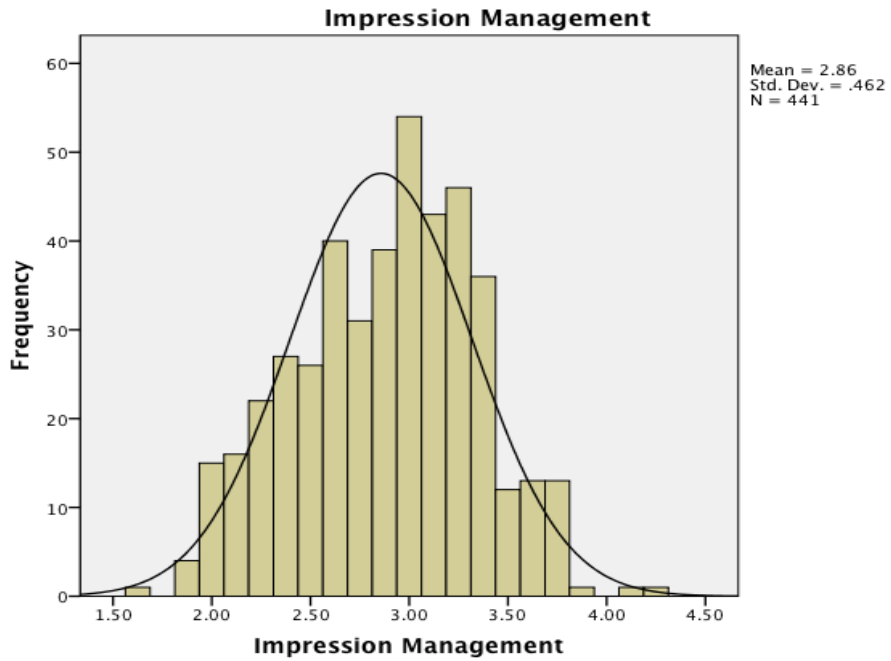
Appendix E

Collinearity Statistics

Table E1: Collinearity Statistics

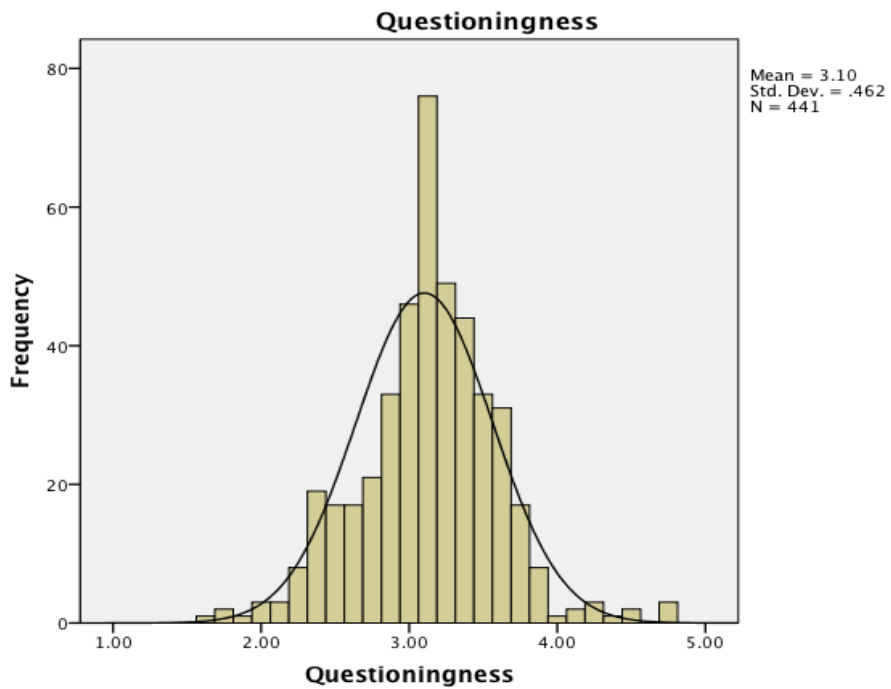| Variable	United States		RP	
	Tolerance	VIF	Tolerance	VIF
Age	.70	1.44	.32	3.17
Education	.89	1.12	.69	1.46
Employment	.71	1.41	.36	2.80
Gender	.82	1.21	.78	1.28
Position	.78	1.28	.79	1.26
Transactional	.50	1.99	.43	2.34
Transformational	.26	3.90	.36	2.79
Emotionality	.39	2.56	.28	3.57
Expressiveness	.75	1.33	.80	1.25
Impression manipulativeness	.45	2.24	.65	1.54
Preciseness	.37	2.68	.38	2.66
Questioningness	.48	2.09	.70	1.43
Verbal aggressiveness	.33	3.01	.29	3.49

Appendix F

Distribution of Variables

Emotionality

Mean = 2.76
Std. Dev. = .577
N = 441

Expressiveness

Mean = 3.34
Std. Dev. = .388
N = 441

Impression Management

Mean = 2.86
Std. Dev. = .462
N = 441

LMX

Mean = 3.63
Std. Dev. = .799
N = 441

Preciseness

Mean = 3.40
Std. Dev. = .56
N = 441

Questioningness

Mean = 3.10
Std. Dev. = .462
N = 441

Transformational

Mean = 2.67
Std. Dev. = .722
N = 441

Transactional

Mean = 2.25
Std. Dev. = .502
N = 441

Verbal Aggressiveness

Mean = 2.65
Std. Dev. = .673
N = 441

Appendix G

Normal Probability Plot (P-P) of the Regression Standardised Residuals
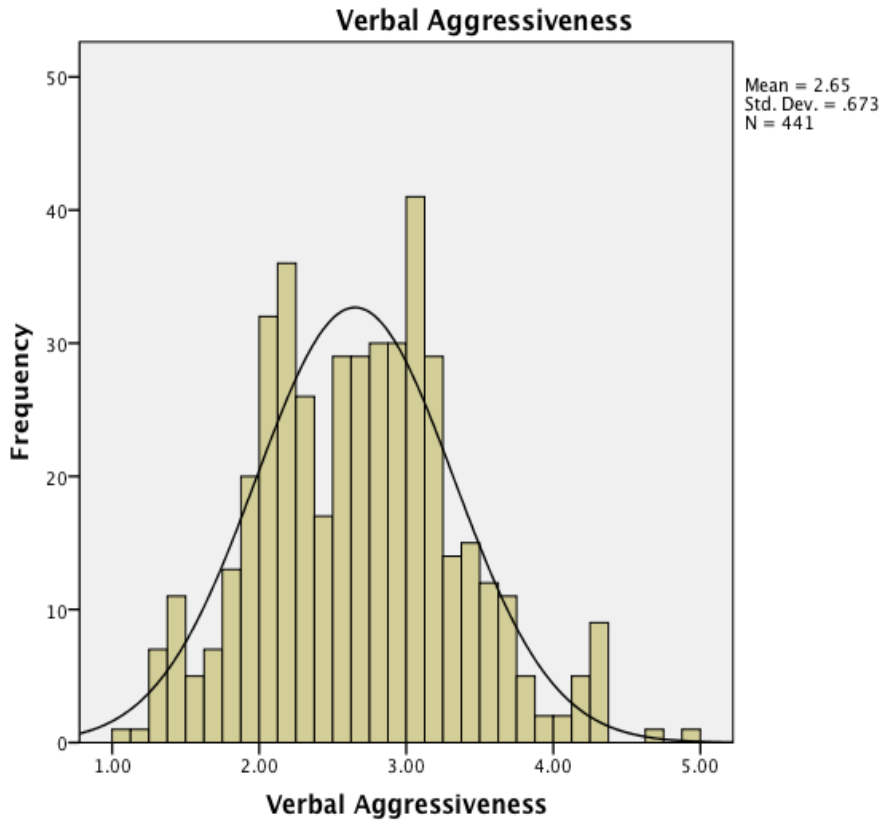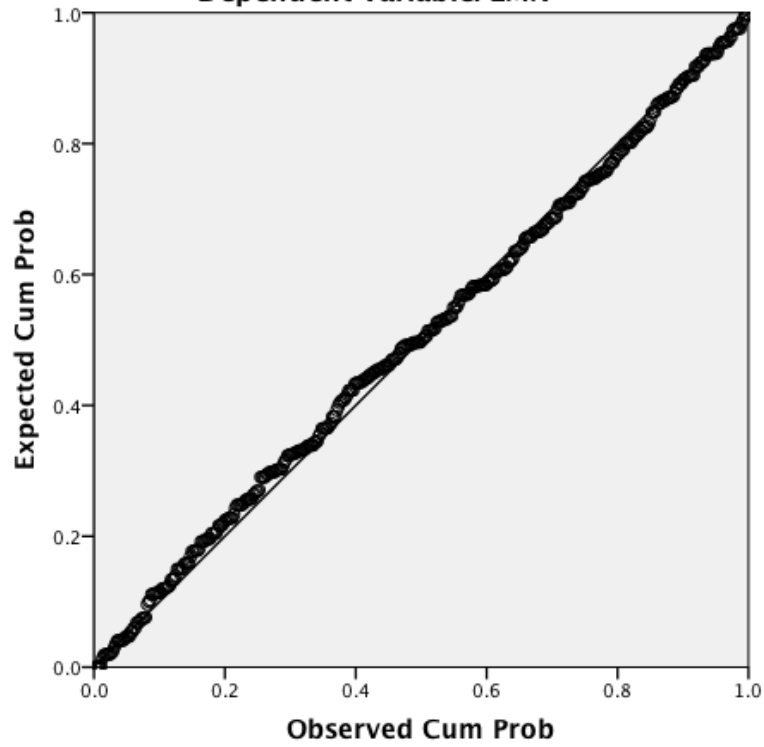

Normal P–P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: LMX

Appendix H

Independent-Samples *t* Test

Table G1: Independent-Samples *t* Test

Group Statistics

Nationality		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Transactional	United States	213	2.21	0.53	0.04
	Philippines	228	2.28	0.47	0.03
Transformational	United States	213	2.56	0.75	0.05
	Philippines	228	2.77	0.68	0.04
Expressiveness	United States	213	3.37	0.40	0.03
	Philippines	228	3.30	0.37	0.02
Preciseness	United States	213	3.36	0.60	0.04
	Philippines	228	3.44	0.52	0.03
Verbal Aggressiveness	United States	213	2.72	0.71	0.05
	Philippines	228	2.59	0.63	0.04
Questioningness	United States	213	3.00	0.52	0.04
	Philippines	228	3.19	0.38	0.03
Emotionality	United States	213	2.87	0.59	0.04
	Philippines	228	2.66	0.55	0.04
Impression Management	United States	213	2.90	0.48	0.03
	Philippines	228	2.81	0.44	0.03
LMX	United States	213	3.56	0.87	0.06
	Philippines	228	3.69	0.73	0.05

Table G2: Levene's Test for Homogeneity of Variance

Independent Samples Test

| | | Levene's Test | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Transactional	Equal variances assumed	2.68	0.10	-1.44	439.00	0.15	-0.07	0.05	-0.16	0.02
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.44	424.94	0.15	-0.07	0.05	-0.16	0.03
Transformational	Equal variances assumed	4.02	0.05	-3.06	439.00	0.00	-0.21	0.07	-0.34	-0.07
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.05	426.32	0.00	-0.21	0.07	-0.34	-0.07
Expressiveness	Equal variances assumed	3.13	0.08	1.89	439.00	0.06	0.07	0.04	0.00	0.14
	Equal variances not assumed			1.88	430.97	0.06	0.07	0.04	0.00	0.14
Preciseness	Equal variances assumed	2.64	0.11	-1.64	439.00	0.10	-0.09	0.05	-0.19	0.02
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.63	419.91	0.10	-0.09	0.05	-0.19	0.02
Verbal Aggressiveness	Equal variances assumed	3.93	0.05	2.13	439.00	0.03	0.14	0.06	0.01	0.26
	Equal variances not assumed			2.12	422.35	0.03	0.14	0.06	0.01	0.26
Questioningness	Equal variances assumed	21.73	0.00	-4.39	439.00	0.00	-0.19	0.04	-0.27	-0.10
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.35	391.37	0.00	-0.19	0.04	-0.28	-0.10
Emotionality	Equal variances assumed	0.20	0.66	3.75	439.00	0.00	0.20	0.05	0.10	0.31
	Equal variances not assumed			3.74	431.03	0.00	0.20	0.05	0.10	0.31
Impression Management	Equal variances assumed	0.44	0.51	1.99	439.00	0.05	0.09	0.04	0.00	0.17
	Equal variances not assumed			1.99	429.64	0.05	0.09	0.04	0.00	0.17
LMX	Equal variances assumed	4.74	0.03	-1.62	439.00	0.11	-0.12	0.08	-0.27	0.03
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.61	414.76	0.11	-0.12	0.08	-0.27	0.03

Appendix I

Independent-Samples *t* Test on Preference for Leader Communication Styles Based on Gender

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Emotionality	Equal variances assumed	4.750	.030	1.654	211	.100	.14050	.08494	-.02694	.30793
	Equal variances not assumed			1.750	166.685	.082	.14050	.08029	-.01802	.29901
Expressiveness	Equal variances assumed	.423	.516	-.526	211	.599	-.03057	.05811	-.14512	.08398
	Equal variances not assumed			-.507	129.509	.613	-.03057	.06031	-.14990	.08876
Impression Management	Equal variances assumed	1.526	.218	1.662	211	.098	.11482	.06908	-.02135	.25100
	Equal variances not assumed			1.707	153.898	.090	.11482	.06726	-.01805	.24770
Preciseness	Equal variances assumed	1.339	.249	-.710	211	.479	-.06171	.08692	-.23305	.10964
	Equal variances not assumed			-.734	156.578	.464	-.06171	.08410	-.22782	.10441
Questioningness	Equal variances assumed	.008	.930	2.907	211	.004	.21323	.07335	.06863	.35782
	Equal variances not assumed			2.858	136.668	.005	.21323	.07461	.06569	.36076
Verbal Aggressiveness	Equal variances assumed	3.850	.051	1.686	211	.093	.17368	.10302	-.02939	.37676
	Equal variances not assumed			1.754	159.353	.081	.17368	.09903	-.02190	.36927

Appendix J

Human Subjects Review Board Application

Please submit *one electronic* copy of this form and any supporting documents to your dissertation chair or to the SBL IRB representative, Dr. Emilyn Cabanda at ecabanda@regent.edu .

1. **PROJECT REVIEW**
   ☒New Project (The HSRB will assign an ID#) _____
   ☐ Revised Project (Enter ID#)   _____
   ☐ Renewal (Enter ID#)   _____

2. **PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR** THEODORE G. PACLEB

   Address1635 PINEDALE LN, CHESAPEAKE, VA 23322 Phone (757)201-8839

   E-Mail THEOPAC@MAIL.REGENT.EDU Date 13 July 2013

   List of all project personnel (including faculty, staff, outside individuals or agencies) _____

   If you are a **student**, please provide the following additional information:
   This research is for   ☒Dissertation ☐ Thesis   ☐ Independent Study
                ☐ Other _____

   Faculty Advisor's Name: DR. MIHAI C.BOCARNEA

3. **TRAINING:** The National Institutes of Health Office of Extramural Research offers free self-paced online training at phrp.nihtraining.com.

   ☒ I have completed human subjects research training. Training Date: 06/20/2013

4. **PROJECT TITLE**:

   A CROSS-CULTURAL EXAMINATION OF LEADER COMMUNICTION STYLE AS ENACTIVE MECHANISM OF THE LEADERSHIP PROCESS AND IMPACT ON QUALITY OF LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE RELATIONSHIP IN THE US AND THE PHILIPPINES

5. **IS THIS RESEARCH BEING SUBMITTED AS PART OF A FUNDED RESEARCH PROPOSAL?**   ☐ Yes   ☒ No

   If yes, please identify the funding source:
   _____

6. **ANTICIPATED LENGTH OF HUMAN SUBJECTS CONTACT**:

   Beginning Date 07/30/2013   Ending Date 08/31/2013

7.   **DESCRIPTION OF PARTICIPANTS**:

Number <u>400 (minimum n = 200 US & n = 200 Philippines)</u>   Age Range <u>18 – 50 +</u>

Briefly describe subject population: <u>The subject population will be drawn from employees within the financial sector, specifically domestic own banks in the US and the Philippines. The subject respondent will be nonsupervisors and middle-level supervisors.</u>

8.   **INDICATE THE REVIEW CATEGORY FOR WHICH YOU ARE APPLYING.**

□ I am applying for an **exempt review**, based on *one or more* of the following categories (check all that apply):
Note: Exempt review cannot be claimed for any research involving prisoners and most research involving children.

□ Research conducted in established or commonly accepted educational settings and involving normal educational practices such as (i) research on regular and special education instructional strategies, or (ii) research on the effectiveness of or the comparison among instructional techniques, curricula, or classroom management methods

□ Research involving the use of survey procedures, educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), interview procedures or observation of public behavior, if information from these sources is recorded in such a manner that participants cannot be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects; and (ii) any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research could not reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation
Note: This category cannot be used for research involving children

□ Research involving the use of survey procedures, educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), interview procedures, or observation of public behavior, if (i) the human subjects are elected or appointed public officials or candidates for public office; or (ii) federal statute(s) require(s) without exception that the confidentiality of the personally identifiable information will be maintained throughout the research and thereafter

□ Research involving the collection or study of existing data, documents, records, pathological specimens, or diagnostic specimens, if these sources are publicly available or if the information is recorded by the investigator in such a manner that subjects cannot be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects

□ Research and demonstration projects which are conducted by or subject to the approval of federal department or agency heads, and which are designed to study, evaluate, or otherwise examine (i) Public benefit or service programs; (ii) procedures for obtaining benefits or services under those programs; (iii) possible changes in or alternatives to those programs or procedures; or (iv) possible changes in methods or levels of payment for benefits or services under those programs

☒   I am applying for an **expedited review**, based on meeting *all* of the
following   conditions (check all that apply):
Note: Expedited review cannot be claimed for research involving prisoners.

☒   Research poses no more than minimal risk to subjects (defined as
"the probability and magnitude of harm or discomfort anticipated
in the research are not greater in and of themselves than those
ordinarily encountered in daily life or during the performance of
routine physical or psychological examinations or tests.")

☐   Research limited to one or more of the following data collection
procedures:

☐   Collection of data through noninvasive procedures
routinely employed in clinical practice

☐   Research involving materials (data, documents, records, or
specimens) that have been collected, or will be collected solely for
nonresearch purposes

☐   Collection of data from voice, video, digital, or image
recordings made for research purposes

☒   Research on individual or group characteristics or
behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception,
cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural
beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing
survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation,
human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies

*Note: Some research in this category may be classified as exempt; this
listing refers only to research that is not exempt.*

☐   Continuing review of research previously approved by the
convened HSRB as follows: (a) where (i) the research is
permanently closed to the enrollment of new subjects; (ii) all
subjects have completed all research-related interventions; and
(iii) the research remains active only for long-term follow-up of
subjects; or (b) where no subjects have been enrolled and no
additional risks have been identified; or (c) where the remaining
research activities are limited to data analysis.

☐   I am applying for **full board review**.

9.   PROJECT DESCRIPTION

Briefly describe (or attach) the methodology and objectives of your research
(including hypotheses and/or research questions), the data collection procedures,
and any features of the research design that involve procedures or special
conditions for participants, including the frequency, duration, and location of their
participation. The description should be no longer than 3 pages single space.
Attach addendums for materials and detailed descriptions of the research if more
space is needed. *Please note that complete chapters of thesis/dissertation
proposals will not be accepted.*

See Appendix A. In addition to the project description detailed in appendix A, inducement in the form of voluntary participation in a raffle of $500 will be offered to potential respondents who answer all the questions in the survey. The inducement is not coercive because it is voluntary and preserves the anonymity and confidentiality of the respondent by asking the respondent to email the principal investigator separately, thus will not be linked to the completed survey.

HSRB Project Description Checklist

	No	Yes
a) **Is your data completely anonymous, where there are no possible identifications of the participants.**	☐	☒
b) **Will you be using existing data or records? If yes, describe in project description (#9 above)**	☒	☐
c) **Will you be using surveys, questionnaires, interviews or focus groups with subjects? If yes, describe in #9 and include copies of all in application.**	☐	☒
d) **Will you be using videotape, audiotape, film? If yes, describe in #9**	☒	☐
e) **Do you plan to use any of the following populations? Regent students, Regent employees, Non-English speaking, cognitively impaired, patients/clients, prisoners, pregnant women? If yes, describe which ones in #9**	☒	☐
f) **Do you plan to use minors (under 18)? If yes, describe in #9 and give age ranges**	☒	☐
g) **Are sites outside of Regent engaged in the research? If yes, describe in #9 and give consent letter or their IRB information**	☐	☒
h) **Are you collecting sensitive information such as sexual behavior, HIV status, recreational drug use, illegal behaviors, child/elder/physical abuse, immigrations status, etc? If yes, describe in #9.**	☒	☐
i) **Are you using machines, software, internet devices? If so describe in #9**	☐	☒
j) **Are you collecting any biological specimens? If yes, describe in #9**	☒	☐
k) **Will any of the following identifying information be collected: names, telephone numbers, social security number, fax numbers, email addresses, medical records numbers, certificate/license numbers, Web universal resource locators (URLs), Internet protocol (IP) address numbers, fingerprint, voice recording, face photographic image, or any other unique identifying number, code or characteristic other than "dummy" identifiers? If yes, describe in #9**	☒	☐
l) **Will there be data sharing with any entity outside your research team? If so, describe who in #9**	☒	☐
m) **Does any member of the research team or their family members have a personal financial interest in the project (for commercialization of product, process or technology, or stand to gain personal financial income from the project)? If yes, describe in #9.**	☒	☐
n) **As applicable, do you plan to provide a debriefing to your participants? If written, include in application as addendum**	☒	☐
o) **Will there be any inducement to participate, either monetary or**	No	Yes

	No	Yes
nonmonetary? If there is inducement please describe how the amount is not coercive in #9.	☐	☒
p) **Will there be any costs that subjects will bear (travel expenses, parking fees, professional fees, etc. If no costs other than their time to participate, please indicate)? If yes describe in #9**	☒	☐
q) **Will subjects be studied on Regent University campus? If yes, please describe where the study will be done in #9**	☒	☐
r) **Will subjects be obtained by internet only? If yes, please describe what internet forums or venues will be used to obtain participants in #9**	☒	☐
s) **Are you using the Regent University consent form template? Whether using the template or requesting an alternate form, you must include a copy in your submission.**	☒	☐

10.   **PARTICIPANT RECRUITMENT**
Describe the sources of potential participants, how they will be selected and recruited, and how and where you will contact them. Describe all relevant characteristics of the participants with regard to age, ethnic background, sex, institutional status (e.g., patients or prisoners), and their general state of mental and physical health.

Potential participants/respondents will be solicited from employees of organizations within the financial sector, specifically domestic banks in the US and the Philippines. An email and letter (**Appendix B**) will be sent to the CEO or head of HR of banks in both the US and the Philippines. The principal investigator will also approach domestic banks in person to solicit respondents for the study. The link to the survey will be sent to the CEO or head of HR. They will be requested to randomly solicit voluntary participants by forwarding the link to the survey to all members of their organizations. The principal investigator may also solicit individual respondents by email through social networks. As necessary, the principal investigator may also use panel respondents through the online survey service.
Only potential respondents 18 years old and above will be solicited. The survey will collect demographic information on gender (Male or Female), and ethnic background by way of nationality (United States or Philippines). No potential respondent will be solicited from institutional organizations involving patients or prisoners. All potential respondents will be solicited strictly from domestic bank organizations. The study will solicit potential respondents who possess the mental or decisional capability to understand the information presented to them in order for them to make an informed decision. The general state of physical and mental health of the potential respondents drawn from bank organizations will be one of where the potential respondent could demonstrate autonomy, which is the capacity to consider the potential harm of the study by analyzing the risks and benefits of the study, and make an informed decision based on the information provided to them prior to the start of the survey.

11.   **INFORMED CONSENT**

Describe how you will inform participants of the nature of the study. Attach a copy of your cover letter, script, informed consent form and other information provided to potential participants.

See Appendix C. Potential respondents/participants will be informed of the nature of the study with an initial email description of the study through the bank managers, who will then distribute the link to the survey to employees of the bank. Potential respondents will also have an opportunity to know the nature of the study as described in the "informed consent" section before they begin the survey.

**EXEMPT APPLICATIONS SKIP TO QUESTION 17: ATTACHMENTS **

12.   WRITTEN CONSENT

☐   I am requesting permission to **waive written consent**, based on one or more of the following categories (check all that apply):

☐ The only record linking the subject and the research would be the consent document, and the principal risk would be potential harm resulting from a breach of confidentiality.
☐ The research presents no more than minimal risk of harm to subjects and involves no procedures for which written consent is normally required outside of the research context.

☒   I will be using a **written consent form**. Attach a copy of the written consent form with this application.

13.   CONFIDENTIALITY OF DATA
What procedures will be used to safeguard identifiable records of individuals and protect the confidentiality of participants?

To ensure data confidentiality, data will be stored electronically in SPSS and the online survey service. Both data files will be password protected. Only the principal investigator will have access to both files. The survey will not ask for personally identifiable information. All demographic variables will be coded and will be known only to the principal investigator.

**EXPEDITED APPLICATIONS SKIP TO QUESTION 17: ATTACHMENTS **

14.   RISKS AND BENEFITS

Describe in detail the immediate or long-range risks, if any, to participants that may arise from the procedures used in this study. Indicate any precautions that will be taken to minimize these risks. Also describe the anticipated benefits to participants and to society from the knowledge that may be reasonably expected to result from this study.

_____
_____
_____
_____

15.   DEBRIEFING STATEMENT
The two major goals of debriefing are dehoaxing and desensitizing. Participants should be debriefed about any deception that was used in the study. Participants also should be debriefed about their behavioral response(s) to the

study. Please describe your debriefing plans and include any statements that you will be providing to the participants.

_____
_____
_____
_____

16.   DISSEMINATION & STORAGE OF RESULTS

a) How and where do you plan on disseminating the results of your study?

b) For electronic data stored on a computer, how will it be stored and secured (password, encryption, other comparable safeguard)?

c) For hardcopy data, how will it be stored (locked office or suite, locked cabinet, data coded by team with master list secured separately, other)?

d) What are your plans for disposing of data once the study is ended (give method and time)?

_____
_____
_____

17. **ATTACHMENTS**:

Attach copies of all relevant project materials and documents, including (check all that apply):

☒ A copy of your training certificate (required for principal investigator) **(Appendix D)**
☒ Surveys, questionnaires, and/or interview instruments **(Appendix E, F, G)**
☒ Informed consent forms or statements
☐ Letters of approval from cooperative agencies, schools, or education boards
☐ Debriefing statements or explanation sheet

18. **AFFIRMATION OF COMPLIANCE**:

By submitting this application, I attest that I am aware of the applicable principles, policies, regulations, and laws governing the protection of human subjects in research and that I will be guided by them in the conduct of this research. I agree to follow the university policy as outlined in the Faculty & Academic Policy Handbook (available online at http://www.regent.edu/academics/academic_affairs/handbook.cfm) to ensure that the rights and welfare of human participants in my project are properly protected. I understand that the study will not commence until I have received approval of these procedures from the Human Subjects Review Board. I further understand that if data collection continues for more than one year from the approval date, a renewal application must be submitted.

I understand that failure to comply with Federal Regulations (45 CFR 46, available online at http://www.hhs.gov/ohrp/humansubjects/guidance/45cfr46.htm) can result in confiscation and possible destruction of data, suspension of all current and future research involving human subjects, or other institutional sanctions, until compliance is assured.

Theodore G. Pacleb
Digitally signed by Theodore G. Pacleb
DN: cn=Theodore G. Pacleb, c=US
Date: 2013.09.05 20:42:15 -04'00'

13 June 2013

Signature of Principal Investigator   **Date**

_____   _____
Signature of Co-Investigator (if applicable)   **Date**

cn=Mihai C. Bocarnea, Ph.D., o=Regent University,
ou, email=mihaboc@regent.edu, c=US
I am approving this document
2013.07.22 13:55:36 -04'00'

July 16, 2013

Signature of Faculty Advisor (if applicable)   **Date**

To Be Completed By HSRB
Assigned ID # _____
■ Approve _____

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☐ Recommend Revisions _____
☐ Reject

cn=Emilyn Cabanda, Ph.D., o=Regent University,
ou, email=ecabanda@regent.edu, c=US
I am approving this document
2013.07.22 13:54:31 -04'00'

July 16, 2013

HSRB Member   **Date**

_____   _____
HSRB Member (if applicable)   **Date**

_____   _____
HSRB Member (if applicable)   **Date**