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UNDERSTANDING LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

IN ORGANIZATIONAL SETTINGS:

AN INTEGRATIVE APPROACH

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RESUMO

Os líderes estão envolvidos no processo de influenciar pessoas para atingir metas que sustentam o elevado desempenho corporativo ao longo do tempo. Tradicionalmente, os investigadores têm estudado este fenómeno usando modelos teóricos não integrados (ou seja, considerando isoladamente traços de personalidade, competências ou comportamentos de liderança). Esta tese preenche esta lacuna na literatura, ao adotar uma perspetiva integradora da teoria da liderança. Para responder à questão de "como alguns líderes são mais eficazes do que outros?", este estudo utilizou uma metodologia mista com carácter exploratório, composta de um estudo qualitativo para o investigador obter informação relevante sobre o tema, e de um estudo quantitativo para confirmar as principais conclusões da fase exploratória.

Os resultados do estudo qualitativo revelam que a eficácia da liderança é um constructo multidimensional composto por quatro dimensões: (1) traços, (2) competências, (3) comportamentos, e (4) processos. Além disso, o modelo testado na fase quantitativa identifica fatores que explicam uma variância significativa da eficácia organizacional. Estes resultados sugerem que os líderes que são orientados para objetivos, bons comunicadores interpessoais, autoconfiantes, e que exibem certos comportamentos são mais propensos a serem altamente eficazes e têm um impacto maior sobre a eficácia organizacional. Em geral, os resultados suportam um modelo integrativo da eficácia da liderança, contribuem para o debate teórico sobre a forma como a eficácia da liderança pode contribuir para o desempenho organizacional, e ajuda os gestores a entenderem melhor o processo de liderança eficaz dentro das organizações.

Palavras-chave: liderança, a eficácia da liderança, o desempenho organizacional, a eficácia organizacional, modelo integrativo da eficácia da liderança, traços de personalidade, comportamentos de liderança, competências de liderança

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ABSTRACT

Leaders are involved in the process of influencing people to achieve corporate goals that sustain high-performance over time. Previous research addressing this phenomenon has traditionally adopted a single approach (i.e., traits, skills, or behaviors). This thesis fills this gap in the literature by adopting an integrative perspective of the leadership theory. To address the question of “how are some leaders more effective than others,” an exploratory mixed method approach was used, comprised of a qualitative study to provide the researcher with meaningful insights on the topic, and a quantitative study to confirm the main findings of the exploratory stage.

Qualitative findings reveal that leadership effectiveness is a multidimensional construct comprised of four dimensions: (1) traits, (2) skills, (3) behaviors, and (4) processes. Additionally, the model tested during the quantitative phase identifies key predictors, and explains a significant variance of organizational effectiveness. These findings suggest that leaders that are learning goal-oriented, good interpersonal communicators, self-confident, and exhibit certain behaviors are more likely to be highly effective and to have a greater impact on organizational effectiveness. Overall, the results give a substantive support for an integrative model of leadership effectiveness, contribute to the theoretical debate on how leadership effectiveness can sustain organizational performance, and help managers understand the effective leadership process inside organizations.

Keywords: leadership, leadership effectiveness, organizational performance, organizational effectiveness, integrative model of leadership effectiveness, personality traits, leadership behaviors, leadership skills

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*To my beloved daughters Joana, Filipa, Inês, and beloved husband Carlos,
May this thesis inspire you to live your dreams and a meaningful life.*

“Life isn’t about finding yourself. Life is about creating yourself.”
George Bernard Shaw

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AB	Adaptive Behavior
AG	Agreeableness
ALAS	Active Listening Attitude Scale
AMS	Ability to Modify Self-presentation
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CB-SEM	Covariance-based Structural Equation Model
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CO	Conscientiousness
CTE	Company Tenure
ELB	Effective Leadership Behaviors
EM	Empowerment
EX	Extraversion
GP	Group Performance
HR	Human Resources
ICS	Interpersonal Communication Skills
IOE	Impact on Organizational Effectiveness
IPIP	International Personality Item Pool
JTE	Job Tenure
LE	Leader Effectiveness
LHL	Leadership Hierarchical Level
LGO	Learning Goal Orientation
LSE	Leadership Self-Efficacy
MO	Motivation

NE	Neuroticism
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
OA	Organizational Alignment
OE	Openness to Experience
OEF	Organizational Effectiveness
PB	Proactive Behavior
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
PLS	Partial Least Squares
PLS-MGA	Partial Least Squares - Multigroup Analysis
PLS-SEM	Partial Least Squares - Structural Equation Model
PWR	Proximal Working Relationship
SD	Standard Deviation
SM	Self-monitoring
SEB	Sensitivity to Expressive Behavior of Others
SEM	Structural Equation Model
TMA	Team Member Adaptivity
TMP	Team Member Proactivity
VA	Vision Articulation
VAR	Vision Articulation & Realization
VC	Vision Communication
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor

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CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

1.1. INTRODUCTION

Current uncertainty and volatility in the markets have raised the challenges for any corporate leader to achieve goals that sustain high-performance over time. Whilst this adverse context is clearly a constraint to every leader, an in-depth understanding of how the leadership process unfolds in the organizations brings additional insights that might help improve the overall effectiveness process. As such, the identification of key factors like the individual characteristics of effective leaders, the mechanisms these leaders use to create alignment and enthusiasm, and the contextual factors are helpful to create an integrative framework for leadership effectiveness. Recent efforts to address this phenomenon have traditionally adopted a single approach (i.e., traits, skills or behaviors) without synthesizing all these different approaches into a unified field.

This thesis seeks to address these issues by adopting a new approach based on previous theoretical works (i.e., trait, skills, and behavioral leadership theories) to the investigation of leadership effectiveness in corporate settings. In this Chapter, we present an overview of the recent theoretical contributions in the field, followed by a clarification of the purpose statement for this study. Both rationales in terms of theoretical and practical justifications are discussed in order to bring the main motivation to conduct this research. Finally, this Chapter refers to the research questions that drive the methodological framework, which consists of mixed methods approach based on a sequential exploratory strategy, and lastly describes the structure of the thesis.

1.2. STATE OF THE ART

Over the last seventy years, the organizational leadership theory produced several approaches to explain leadership effectiveness: (1) up to 1940s the trait approach—“leadership ability is innate”; (2) between 1940s and 1960s the style or behavioral approach—“leadership effectiveness is to do with how the leader behaves,” (3) between 1960s and 1980s the contingency or situational approach—“effective leadership is affected by the situation”, and finally (4) after 1980s the new leadership approach—where leadership is regarded as a process of social influence (Bryman, 1992, p. 1).

From this new wave of perspectives emerging since the 1980s, the following are the most prominent ones based on the Boolean search conducted on October 2010, and referring to the number of articles published in scholarly journals (peer reviewed):

(1) Transformational leadership — this concept was presented as the leadership style most effective for higher performance. The transformational leader is the one who motivates the subordinates to do more than it is originally expected, by raising the level of awareness, by getting them to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the team, organization, or larger entity, and finally by altering the need level on expanding their portfolio of needs and wants — it was introduced by Burns in 1978, and further developed by Bass and associates (Bass, 1985, 1999; Bass et al., 1987, 2003; Hater and Bass, 1988; Bass and Avolio, 1992, 2008; Avolio et al., 1999; Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999).

(2) Shared, collective, distributed or team leadership — this concept was presented as opposed to focused leadership, which resides in a single individual, while distributed leadership occurs when two or more individuals share roles, responsibilities, and functions of leadership. Formally used by Gibb (1954), the concept has re-emerged

much more recently with several theoretical studies (Gronn, 2002; Bennett et al., 2003; Pearce and Conger, 2003; Day et al., 2004; Pearce et al., 2007) and just a few empirical studies (Sivasubramaniam et al., 2002; Ensley et al., 2006; Mehra et al., 2006; Carson et al., 2007).

(3) Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) — LMX has as principle that leaders develop different types of exchange relationships with their followers, while the quality of these relationships have an important effect on leader and members attitudes and behaviors (Graen et al., 1973; Graen, 1976). LMX benefited from the early works of Greene on the vertical dyad linkage (VDL) theory, evolving to a dyadic approach to understand leader-follower working relationships (Graen et al., 1973; Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen, 1976; Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1991, 1995; Bauer and Green, 1996; Sparrowe and Liden, 1997; Ilies et al., 2007).

(4) Charismatic leadership — the term charisma is mentioned in the scholarly literature, according to Weber (1947, p. 358) as ascribing a “certain quality of an individual personality by virtue of which he is set apart from ordinary men and treated as endowed with supernatural, superhuman, or at least specifically exceptional power or qualities.” This concept has been assigned mainly to political, religious and social leaders. More recently, charismatic attributes also invaded the business and organizational environment when referring to outstanding leaders. Several studies have considered charismatic effects, characteristics and behaviors of charismatic leaders, and situational factors associated with the emergence and effectiveness of charismatic leaders in organizational settings (House, 1977, 1999; Conger and Kanungo, 1987; Fiol et al., 1999; Jacobsen and House, 2001; Galvin et al., 2010).

(5) Servant leadership — this revolutionary concept in leadership rested in the personal belief of Greenleaf that “...among the legions of deprived and unsophisticated people are many true servants who will lead...” (Greenleaf, 2008, p. 16) — this approach benefited from the contribution of several scholars, who have defined several components for the concept of servant leadership, such as value and develop people, build community, practice authenticity, work for the common good, have a vision, capacity to influence, credibility, trust, assume the position of servant in relationships with fellow workers, personal transformation, values of empathy, integrity, and competence (Greenleaf, 1977; Farling et al., 1999; Laub, 1999; Page and Wong, 2000; Wong and Page, 2003; Washington et al., 2006).

(6) Authentic leadership — authentic leaders can be defined as persons who have achieved high levels of self-awareness, are true to their set of core values and beliefs, and act according to those values and beliefs, in a transparent way when interacting with others (Avolio et al., 2004b) — this concept which was introduced by Luthans and Avolio in 2003, was mainly based on the theoretical frameworks of transformational/charismatic leadership (House, 1977; Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985; Conger and Kanungo, 1987; Shamir et al., 1993; House and Aditya, 1997), and positive organizational behavior—POB (Luthans, 2002; Luthans and Avolio, 2003). Recent studies have associated authentic leadership with organizational outcomes such as team potency and employees’ creativity (e.g., Rego et al., 2012, 2013).

These approaches reflect the highly creative and dynamic atmosphere experienced by the leadership theorists in producing new leadership concepts in organizational environments to be used as frameworks for developing leaders to achieve high levels of effectiveness. For practitioners, business consultants, leadership development

consultants, and coaches a full range of leadership models is provided, although very few will offer a robust conceptual framework, and strong empirical analysis.

Despite this profusion of models, little effort was made to create an integrative perspective of the leadership theory, remaining some important gaps to fill, as for instance the identification of the causal and underlying mechanisms that link leadership to outcomes (George, 2000; Avolio et al., 2009). For example, establishing the link between personality traits, leadership skills and behaviors to performance measures is important to understand the entire process. Other important areas that require additional research are contextual factors and alternative dispositional predictors of leadership (Antonakis et al., 2004). Moreover, an extra effort to integrate diverse findings and associations between emotional and mental abilities is required to improve the understanding of the leadership process (Davies et al., 1998; Antonakis et al., 2004, 2009). Individual mechanisms like self-regulation have received little attention from the leadership scholars; however, these constructs may be relevant to explain why leaders are oriented to specific goals (Anderson et al., 2008; Hannah et al., 2008; Stewart et al., 2011). Finally, there is a lack of integrated measures of leadership effectiveness — subjective evaluations and objective organizational goals—in the leadership literature (Lowe et al., 1996; Reave, 2005; DeRue et al., 2011).

1.3. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Leaders are involved in the process of influencing people to achieve corporate goals that sustain high-performance over time. Some leaders are more effective than others are in this process. This reflects a combination of several factors as their own

individual characteristics, the mechanisms they use to create alignment and enthusiasm and the contextual environment of the organization. As such, the identification of these key factors is helpful to create a leadership frame that can improve the overall effectiveness of the leadership process. In light of the preceding considerations, the purpose of this study is to answer the compelling question:

Management Question: How are some leaders more effective than others?

To answer this question, this study investigates the leader's individual characteristics, skills, and behaviors, which form the basis of leadership effectiveness and provide the foundation for organizational performance (e.g., Bennis and Nanus, 1997; Alchian, 1986; Day and Lord, 1988; Hogan et al., 1994; Yukl, 1998). In particular, it contributes to the debate on how leadership effectiveness can attain group, and organizational performance.

1.4. JUSTIFICATION FOR THE RESEARCH

Scholars have already started to consider whether top-level leadership significantly induces organizational performance. For Day and Lord (1988), it is clear that executive leadership might explain as much as 45% of an organization's performance and proposed the development of a theory of executive leadership. Other researchers agree with the perspective that leadership influences group and organizational performance (Bennis and Nanus, 1997; Alchian, 1986; Hogan et al., 1994; Yukl, 1998). Apart from this perspective, there are several other researchers arguing that empirical

support to confirm the relationship between leadership and organizational performance is doubtful, and not supportive of those theories (Thomas, 1993; Jaffe, 2001; Andersen, 2002).

Hence, further research, addressing the link between leadership and outcomes, and the underlying mechanisms, is still a priority in this field. Especially, taking into consideration that the recent theoretical and empirical findings are evolving to a more holistic view of leadership, including new angles such as the follower, the context, the organizational levels, and the in-between dynamics (Avolio et al., 2009). For leadership researchers the “how and why leaders have (or fail to have) positive influences on their followers and organizations is still a compelling question” (George, 2000, p. 1028). In order to fully understand the process of leadership and obtain better insights into leadership effectiveness, additional research is needed to create a more comprehensive framework, which includes antecedents of leadership, self-regulatory mechanisms, leadership behaviors and processes, and contextual factors.

Recent studies have introduced new areas that require additional research, such as emotional intelligence and emotional elements of leadership (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995; Fitness, 2000; Humphrey, 2002; Lewis, 2000; Van Rooy and Viswesvaran, 2004; Antonakis et al., 2009), as well as the need to focus on examining each of the abilities (mental vs. emotional) separately to determine their unique contribution to leadership effectiveness. Furthermore, other areas, exploring the linkages between personality traits and leadership are also required (Davies et al., 1998; Antonakis, 2003, 2004; Antonakis et al., 2004, 2009). Other authors have mentioned the emerging importance of contextual factors in the workplace as one of the most prominent gaps in our understanding of

organizational behavior and leadership (Fineman, 1993; Muchinsky, 2000; Ashkanasy et al., 2002; Caruso et al., 2002; Pirola-Merlo et al., 2002).

The field of leadership research is also very important for practitioners to understand the reasons for effective leadership. The overall process of leadership is similar to a black box that requires detailed investigation in order to reveal why leadership is important and how leaders can influence followers to achieve organizational goals. This phenomenon permeates the whole organization, top-down and bottom-up, as we have different levels of leadership. As such, leadership is a key factor at every level and has considerably distinct impacts on the organization global performance. Studying these leadership processes requires a comprehensive study of situational variables.

Uncertainty and rapidly changing environments make the leadership challenges more demanding, and are likely to affect the overall effective process. In the words of Indra Nooyi, Chairperson and CEO of PepsiCo Inc., the world is living a crisis of leadership and expectations: “This complex world feels out of control... Consumer demand changes in a heartbeat, trust in established brands and institutions has diminished, and this is the era of negative uncertainty.” At Davos 2012, several leaders raised the question: “What kind of leadership is demanded in these challenging times?” The current feeling among participants is that “our political leaders do not seem fit to lead and that global corporations are often filling the vacuum of political leadership” (Keller, 2012). As our paradigms of leadership have been challenged, a new definition of leadership has emerged during the summit as “the ability to mobilize and facilitate various resources toward progress”, which requires skills to synthesize, to listen and to be inclusive, all characteristics identified as essential for the current contexts (Keller, 2012). Josette Sheeran, UN World Food Program Executive Director and new Board Member of the

World Economic Forum, explicitly referred that “we need leaders who can offer flexibility of thought, facilitate creative new solutions in a fast-changing world, rally resources and think in new ways”. As posited by Valerie Germain, Heidrick and Struggles Managing Partner, Head of Strategy and Business Development, the kind of diversity that is most critically needed is “diversity of thought”.

Effectively, this leadership crisis is quite common in the corporate world where corporations strive for long-term above average performance and sustainability in a highly competitive environment. Managers focus on the short term and fail to see beyond the financial constraints of the crisis. Some even lose great business opportunities, as they are not able to articulate a common vision for the future and involve the whole organization and stakeholders in it. People in the organization feel demotivated and unhappy, as their work is not valued and recognized. They are simply financial figures, part of the budget that goes up and down influenced by the upward and downward economic trend.

Those comments state well the current dissatisfaction with those leadership practices. On the other hand, corporations at the top of lists like “Best Places to Work” tend to be very successful businesses, often outperforming their competitors with higher growth rates, and lower employee turnover. Those corporations nurture and reward their staff with thriving workplace culture, as well as pay and benefits commensurate with their achievements. Leaders in those organizations are regarded as role models, leading by example and communicating a clear idea of the organization’s values, mission, expectations, as well as the direction where they are headed. They also create a healthy exchange where employees are considered by their opinions, and feedback is acted upon and appreciated. As such, those leaders motivate their workforce, inspire confidence and

trust in the organization.

In sum, this study will help managers understand the effective leadership process inside organizations. Through the identification of the main causal variables in this process, managers will learn to focus on the most important skills, attitudes and behaviors to produce higher outcomes.

1.5. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This research assumes a pragmatism philosophy combining the perspectives of both positivism and constructivism paradigms in terms of methods of inquiry. Explicitly, this investigation aims to understand complex phenomena, such as the leadership process inside organizations to generate and test new ideas. Table 1-1 exhibits the main problem addressed by the research, the five research questions that drive the inquiry, and the respective objectives for each one of the studies.

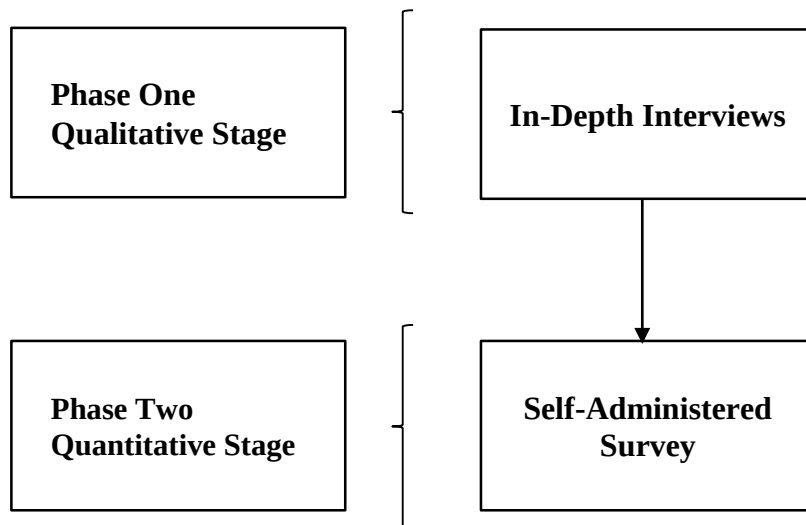
Table 1-1 Problem Statement and Research Questions

	Research Questions	Objectives	
		Qualitative	Quantitative
How are some leaders more effective than others?	What are the main components of leadership effectiveness?	1. To identify the main characteristics of effective leaders.	1. To develop a model of leadership effectiveness.
	What is the impact of the organizational context on leadership effectiveness?	2. To explore the factors that drive leadership effectiveness (i.e., to identify the mechanisms that leaders use to achieve corporate goals).	2. To test the relationship between the main characteristics of effective leaders identified in the exploratory stage and organizational effectiveness.
	What are the measures used to assess leadership effectiveness?	3. To explore the effect that organizational context has on leadership effectiveness.	3. To test the relationship between the main factors that drive leadership effectiveness identified in the exploratory stage and organizational effectiveness.
	What is the model of leadership effectiveness that can be used to explain organizational effectiveness?	4. To collect information on the most relevant measures to assess leadership effectiveness.	4. To test the moderating role of contextual factors on organizational effectiveness.
	What is the relationship between contextual factors and organizational effectiveness?	5. To offer a definition and a hierarchical taxonomy for leadership effectiveness.	

Leadership scholars claim an increasing importance of mixed methods research approach to improve the knowledge of this process inside organizations (Gordon and Yukl, 2004; Avolio et al., 2009; Gardner et al., 2010). Hence, this study will use mixed methods approach with a sequential exploratory strategy in two steps (Figure 1.1). First, a qualitative study will be conducted to provide the researcher with meaningful insights

on the topic, and enhance the understanding of the leadership process. Then, a quantitative study will be held to confirm the main findings of the exploratory stage.

Figure 1-1 Research Design



The use of mixed methodologies in this study allows for triangulation, which is a methodological form commonly used to avoid the problem in leadership research that come from single-source and single-method (Strauss and Corbin, 1998; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003). Furthermore, the findings of the qualitative research are important in refining the scope of the research, as well as the development of the questionnaire. Thus, the quantitative study builds on the findings from the previous stage and examines a number of hypotheses.

1.6. STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

As previously mentioned, this thesis aims to develop the necessary conceptual and empirical groundwork that might advance knowledge on leadership effectiveness in a highly dynamic context. Specifically, the following steps will be undertaken:

- (1) Review related literature.
- (2) Propose the integration of leadership theories, such as trait, behavioral, skills, and new theories of leadership.
- (3) Offer a formal definition and taxonomy for leadership effectiveness.
- (4) Develop a nomological network that specifies and explains its associations to other variables.
- (5) Integrate subjective and objective measures for the construct of leadership effectiveness.
- (6) Demonstrate the ability of several causal variables to predict organizational effectiveness.

This thesis is organized as follows. In the first section, it begins with a review of the relevant literature, providing a discussion that weaves together leadership effectiveness, antecedents of leadership, self-regulatory mechanisms, behaviors and processes of leadership, and contextual variables. Then, the methodological approach is presented describing the two-step procedure for a sequential exploratory strategy. After, it describes the empirical study that forms the basis of the qualitative analysis. Here, data are examined, and the main findings are reviewed in light of the theoretical framework considered. Next, qualitative findings are depicted in a model of hypothesized

relationships for leadership effectiveness based on the integration of trait, skills and behavioral approaches. Here, empirical data are analyzed and the main findings are disclosed. The final section presents a summary of findings and elicits the discussion that leads to the preliminary conclusions, reemphasizes the theoretical contributions, draws practical implications, brings strengths and limitations of the study, and proposes future research areas.

CHAPTER 2 – LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. INTRODUCTION

This literature review is organized into six sections. First, an overview of the most prominent theoretical approaches for leadership effectiveness is presented, and then based on a comprehensive literature review the main components are identified to create a conceptual framework. Second, antecedent conditions that foster the emergence of leadership and impact leadership outcomes are discussed. Third, self-regulatory mechanisms are described and associated with leadership effectiveness. The following two sections discuss leadership behaviors and processes, and the respective impact on leadership effectiveness. Finally, the last section describes the organizational context that most likely affects leadership behaviors, processes, and effectiveness.

2.2. THEORETICAL APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

According to the new leadership approach, leadership is regarded as a process of social influence toward a common goal (Bass, 1990b; Locke 1991; Bryman, 1992; Northouse, 2010). According to this definition, leadership emerges as a three-dimensional concept: (1) relational – leadership exists in relation to a group of followers; (2) influential – leadership requires influencing others to take action to achieve a common goal, and (3) directional – leadership is directed to a group goal that has to be accomplished. In order to explore and fully understand the effective leadership process and its implications, it is necessary to deepen the fundamental nature of effective leadership expressed in those three dimensions.

Several theoretical approaches have proposed frameworks to explain leadership

effectiveness (Table 2-1). Based on a literature review on this topic, the most relevant approaches were identified as follows (Bass, 1990b; Bryman, 1992; Northouse, 2010):

(1) Trait Approach — this theoretical perspective was called “great man” theories focusing on identifying innate qualities and characteristics possessed by great leaders from religious, political, and social fields. Researchers believed that people were born with those traits and only great people possessed them. Therefore, research concentrated on determining the specific traits that clearly distinguished leaders from followers (e.g., Stogdill, 1948, 1974; Mann, 1959; Lord et al., 1986; Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991; Zaccaro et al., 2004). Studies examined traits related to demography (e.g., gender, age, height, education), and to personal abilities (e.g., intelligence, personality).

(2) Skills Approach — researchers shifted the attention from personality characteristics to the skills and abilities that leaders can learn and developed through their life span. Although personality traits certainly play an important role in leadership, the skills approach suggests that knowledge and abilities are required for effective leadership (Mumford et al., 2000c). Multiple studies have been published claiming that a leader’s effectiveness depends on the leader’s ability to solve complex organizational problems (e.g., Katz, 1955; Mumford et al., 2000c; Zaccaro et al., 2000).

(3) Behavioral Approach — this approach emphasized the behavior of the leader, focusing on the leader’s actions. This view expanded the study of leadership to include the actions of leaders towards their followers in various contexts. Research has determined that leadership is composed of four categories: task-oriented behaviors, relational-oriented behaviors, change-oriented behaviors and passive leadership (non-leadership). The purpose of this approach is to explain how leaders combine these different types of behaviors to influence followers in their efforts to reach a goal (e.g.,

House, 1977; Bass, 1985; Blake and Mouton, 1985; Conger and Kanungo, 1994; Conger, 1999).

(4) Situational Approach — this approach focusing on leadership in situations, and is based on the assumption that effective leaders have to adapt their styles according to the demands of different situations (Hersey and Blanchard, 1969). Situational leadership claims that leadership is composed of both directive and supportive dimensions and that each has to be applied according to a given situation (Blanchard et al., 1985). For this purpose, a leader must evaluate first his followers and assess their level of competence and commitment when they perform a specific task. As the followers' skills and motivation vary over time, leaders should change the degree of directiveness or support to meet those changing needs (Blanchard et al., 1985). In sum, the essence of situational leadership demands that leaders match their style to the competence and commitment of the followers in a dynamic fashion (e.g., Hersey and Blanchard, 1969; Blanchard et al., 1985, 1993).

(5) Contingency Approach — this approach tries to match leaders to appropriate situations (Fiedler, 1964). It suggests that a leader's effectiveness depends on how well the leader's style fits the context (Fiedler, 1964). In order to understand the performance of leaders, it is essential to understand the situations in which they lead (Fiedler, 1971). In short, effective leadership is contingent on matching a leader's style to the right setting (e.g., Fiedler, 1964, 1971; Fiedler and Garcia, 1987).

Table 2-1 summarizes the existing body of empirical studies on the different approaches referred in relation to leadership effectiveness. It has provided a description of the aspects examined in the empirical research, the methods utilized, and the major findings relevant to the leadership effectiveness domain.

Table 2-1 Empirical Studies on the most Prominent Theoretical Approaches to Leadership Effectiveness.

Target	Methods	Results
Trait approach		
Judge et al. (2002a)	Five-factor model as an organizing framework to analyze correlates of leadership effectiveness.	Qualitative review and meta-analysis of 222 correlations from 73 samples. Perceived measures of leadership effectiveness (superiors and subordinates ratings of leader's effectiveness).
Judge et al. (2004)	Studies examining the relationship between intelligence and leadership effectiveness.	Meta-analysis of 151 independent samples in 96 sources. Perceived and objective measures were used for leadership effectiveness.
Skills approach		
Connelly et al. (2000)	Problem-solving skills, social judgment skills, and leader knowledge were examined with respect to leadership effectiveness.	Two samples of Army officers were analyzed. Measures of leadership effectiveness were a self-reported career achievement and ratings of solutions to leadership problems.
Zaccaro et al. (2000)	Describe the development of a set of five constructed response measures designed to assess complex problem-solving skills and knowledge expected to influence leadership.	A sample of 1,807 Army officers was analyzed. Measures to assess leadership effectiveness used self-description items.

UNDERSTANDING LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS IN ORGANIZATIONAL SETTINGS

Hirst et al. (2004)	Drawing upon an action learning perspective, the authors analyzed the relationship of a leader's learning of project leadership skills and facilitative leadership, team reflexivity, and team performance.	A 1-year longitudinal study of 50 R&D teams, with 313 team members and 22 project customers, collecting both quantitative and qualitative data. Two subjective measures of effective performance were used: customer ratings of team performance and of project quality.	Found evidence of a significant impact of the leader learning on subsequent facilitative leadership and team performance 8 and 12 months later. Leadership learning was significantly correlated with customer ratings of team performance ($r = .36$). Learning was significantly correlated with customer ratings of project quality ($r = .42$).

Behavioral approach

Lowe et al. (1996)	This study tested the effects of five behaviors identified in the transformational/transactional literature: charisma, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, contingent-reward and management-by-exception.	A meta-analysis of 39 published and unpublished studies was conducted to assess the leadership style-effectiveness relationship. Mixed measures were used: subordinate perceptions and organizational measures of effectiveness.	Findings presented the following correlations: a) to subjective measures – charisma ($r_c = .81$), individualized consideration ($r_c = .69$), intellectual stimulation ($r_c = .68$), contingent-reward ($r_c = .56$), and management-by-exception ($r_c = .10$); b) to objective measures – charisma ($r_c = .35$), individualized consideration ($r_c = .28$), intellectual stimulation ($r_c = .26$), contingent-reward ($r_c = .08$), and management-by-exception ($r_c = -.04$).
Dumdum et al. (2002)	Analyzed transformational and transactional leadership correlates of effectiveness.	Meta-analysis of transformational and transactional leadership.	Leadership behaviors correlate to effectiveness: transformational ($r = .43$), contingent-reward ($r = .45$), management-by-exception ($r = -.23$), and laissez-faire ($r = -.29$).
Judge and Piccolo (2004)	This study provided an examination of the full range of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership.	Meta-analytic method of 87 studies to estimate the correlations. Subjective and organizational measures were used.	Results show that transformational leadership correlates with (a) follower satisfaction with the leader ($r = .71$), (b) follower motivation ($r = .53$), (c) leader job performance ($r = .27$) and group or organization performance ($r = .26$), and (d) leader effectiveness ($r = .64$); contingent reward (a) follower satisfaction with the leader ($r = .55$), (b) follower motivation ($r = .59$), (c) leader job performance ($r = .45$) and group or organization performance ($r = .16$), and (d) leader effectiveness ($r = .55$). Regression results show that the full range model predict all leadership effectiveness measures (respectively, (a) $R^2 = .44$, (b) $R^2 = .28$, (c) $R^2 = .18$, and (d) $R^2 = .35$).

Situational approach

Fernandez and Vecchio (1997)	The primary goals of the analyses were a replication of prior tests of a within-jobs view of the situational leadership theory, and an across-jobs test of the theory wherein the job level was used as a predictor of optimal leadership style.	Data from 332 university employees and 32 supervisors were collected on the dimensions of leader behavior and follower maturity in order to test predictions for the outcomes of employee performance, satisfaction, and quality of leader-member exchange.	Evidence demonstrated that the theory, as originally formulated, has little descriptive utility. However, further analyses suggested that supervisory monitoring and consideration may interact with job level such that monitoring has a positive impact for lower level employees, while consideration has a more positive impact for higher level employees. The interaction suggests that some of the intuitively appealing aspects of the theory may be correct, but that couching these processes in terms of readiness/maturity and the dimensions of initiation structure and consideration is incorrect.
Vecchio et al. (2006)	The study replicated prior comprehensive tests of situational leadership theory.	Survey conducted for members of 86 squads of U.S. Military Academy cadets (860 participants). Measures used for leader consideration, leader structuring, follower readiness/maturity, follower satisfaction, follower performance, and leader-member exchange.	Results of regression analyses and tests for mean differences within follower readiness/maturity level did not yield clear evidence of a predicted interaction among leader style and follower attributes. These results are in alignment with prior findings and suggest the theory may have little practical utility.
Thompson and Vecchio (2009)	Three versions of the situational leadership theory were analyzed in this study to assess for predicted interactions with performance measures: (1) the original in 1972, (2) the revised in 2007, and (3) an alternative statement of the theory's essential principle of differential follower response to "autonomy afforded be the leader" in conjunction with "follower developmental level.	Survey data was collected from 357 banking employees and 80 supervisors from 10 Norwegian financial institutions sample.	Findings did not provide clear support for the situational leadership theory, in any of its versions. Results indicate that the 2007 version was a poorer predictor of subordinate performance and attitudes than the original one. The third version offered promise for further exploration of the theory's essential principle that employee outcomes are associated with prescribed leader behaviors in combination with a follower developmental level, although this version also did not add substantially to accounting for criterion variance.

Contingency approach

Peters et al. (1985)	Drawing on Fiedler's Contingency Theory, this study quantified the variance in correlations between leader style and performance that can be explained by sampling error, and thus other moderator variables, including the situational favorability, would be unnecessary theoretical constructions.	A total of 11 developmental studies and 24 validation studies (field and laboratory studies) were identified. More than one performance measure was used; consequently, the correlations were averaged.	Results suggest that sampling error cannot account for the observed variance around the mean correlation of $-.07$, and therefore, meaningful moderators might exist. However, only partial support for situational favorableness as the relevant moderator is suggested by the data. Such results suggest that one or more additional moderator variables might be needed to account fully for the variance.
Schriesheim et al. (1994)	The study used across-octant comparisons drawn from Fiedler's contingency model of leadership.	Data from 1.282 groups used in previous research was analyzed using meta-analytic procedures.	Higher performance predictions made by the contingency model were largely supported for both high and low-LPC leaders (respectively, relationship-motivated and task-motivated). However, the equal-performance predictions of the contingency model were largely not supported. In sum, the findings are encouraging, but should be viewed as providing cautious support for the contingency model overall.

Trait & Behavioral approach

Derue et al.
(2011)

Developed an integrated trait-behavioral model of leadership effectiveness. Leader traits considered gender, intelligence, personality. Behaviors: transformational-transactional, initiating structure-consideration.

Meta-analysis of 59 published studies. Mixed measures of leadership effectiveness were considered: leader effectiveness, group performance, follower job satisfaction, satisfaction with the leader.

Traits correlate to (a) leader effectiveness: Extraversion ($r_c = .31$), Conscientiousness ($r_c = .28$), Emotional Stability ($r_c = .24$), and Openness to Experience ($r_c = .24$); (b) group performance: Conscientiousness ($r_c = .31$), and Agreeableness ($r_c = .20$); (c) satisfaction with the leader: Agreeableness ($r_c = .24$). Behaviors correlate to (a) leader effectiveness: transformational ($r_c = .64$), consideration ($r_c = .52$), contingent-reward ($r_c = .51$), and initiation structure ($r_c = .39$); (b) group performance: transformational ($r_c = .38$), initiation structure ($r_c = .35$), consideration ($r_c = .28$), and contingent-reward ($r_c = .24$); (c) follower job satisfaction: contingent-reward ($r_c = .64$), transformational ($r_c = .58$), consideration ($r_c = .46$), and initiation structure ($r_c = .22$); (d) satisfaction with leader: consideration ($r_c = .78$), transformational ($r_c = .71$), contingent-reward ($r_c = .55$), and initiation structure ($r_c = .33$). For overall (a) leader effectiveness: leader traits and behaviors explain 58% of variance (traits account for 22% and behaviors for 47%); (b) group performance: leader traits and behaviors explain 31% of variance (traits account for 14% and behaviors for 20%); (c) follower job satisfaction: leader traits and behaviors explain 56% of variance (traits account for 2% and behaviors for 51%), and finally (d) satisfaction with leader: leader traits and behaviors explain 92% of variance (traits account for 6% and behaviors for 70%).

As shown in Table 2-1, trait, skills, and behavioral approaches have shown empirical evidence supporting an association with leadership effectiveness measures. Such support is not obvious concerning situational and contingency approaches. In addition, the situational approach lacks empirical studies and meta-analysis, which present serious limitations to support the theory. Nevertheless, situational factors may have an important moderating effect to consider between the leadership style and performance, as uncovered by Peters et al. (1985) analysis.

Although empirical research has supported the claim that leadership effectiveness is influenced by traits, skills, and behaviors, it is not clear how those elements complement or supplement each other and how can be incorporated into an integrative model of leadership effectiveness. Recently, leadership researchers acknowledging that models and theories of leadership still suffer from a lack of integration and convergence, made a call to the academic community to develop an integrative understanding of leadership in organizations (Gordon and Yukl, 2004; Avolio, 2007; DeRue et al., 2011).

To understand the main components examined in the leadership theories, the author has conducted a revision of the most prominent works comprising leadership determinants of organizational outcomes. For this purpose, the main concepts were organized according with their relative causal distance to the endogenous variable. Thus, the distal predictors are concepts such as personality traits, general and emotional intelligence, and learning experiences. On the other hand, the more proximal predictors reviewed were leadership behaviors and processes. Finally, this study revisits the key role of organizational context in influencing and being influenced by the leadership process.

2.3. ANTECEDENTS OF LEADERSHIP

Previous researchers have suggested several antecedents of leadership. These antecedents have been related to measures of leadership emergence (i.e., when someone is perceived as leader like — Hogan et al., 1994), leadership effectiveness, and are important predictors of those outcomes as well. Hereafter, those antecedents will be presented according to the following structure: (1) personal abilities (e.g., personality, cognitive abilities, and emotional intelligence), and (2) learning experiences (e.g., personal history, value, and leadership skills).

2.3.1. PERSONAL ABILITIES

2.3.1.1. PERSONALITY AND LEADERSHIP TRAITS

The association between personality and leadership has a long and controversial history. Since trait leadership theory (e.g., Terman, 1904; Kohs and Irle, 1920; Bowden, 1926; Cowley, 1931), researchers assumed that leadership depended on the personal qualities of a leader. However, the later critics from Stogdill (1948) and Bass (1990b) showed that leadership is not a matter of the mere possession of certain traits, but rather situation-related, as a trait's effect on leadership behavior depends on the specific context. Indeed, most skepticisms came from inconsistent and often disappointing results, lacking a universal structure to describe personality, and lead to a variety of leadership traits being studied under different labels such as drive, motivation, honesty and integrity, self-confidence, cognitive ability, knowledge of the business, creativity and flexibility, (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991; Locke, 1991; Hughes et al., 1996; House and Aditya, 1997).

Nevertheless, this deep controversy between leadership theorists, all the research conducted revealed some traits that seemed to be related to leadership outcomes (e.g., Lord et al., 1986; Costa and McCrae, 1988; Goldberg, 1990; Hogan et al., 1994). These studies benefited from a taxonomic structure widely accepted by modern personality psychologists termed the five-factor model or, simply, the Big Five (Costa and McCrae, 1988; Digman, 1990; Goldberg, 1990; Hogan et al., 1994). Several researchers based on the early work of Cattell (1945) reported the five factors. In these studies, at least dozen oblique factors were repeatedly identified; however, in later works only five factors were replicated using orthogonal rotational methods (e.g., Norman, 1963; Tupes and Christal, 1992). Other researchers such as Borgatta (1964), McCrae and Costa (1985, 1987) that refer to the most salient aspects of personality reported similar five-factor structures. The five-factor structure has been subject of research in several countries pointing to a cross-cultural generalizability (McCrae and Costa, 1997), and also evidence shows that these traits are heritable and stable over time, after the age of 30 (Costa and McCrae, 1988; Digman, 1990).

These Big Five traits are described and labeled as follows: (1) Surgency or Extraversion represents a tendency to be sociable, assertive, active, and to experience excitement and positive emotions; (2) Agreeableness is the tendency to be warm, gentle, caring, trusting and trustworthy; (3) Conscientiousness is comprised by two related facets of achievement and dependability; (4) Neuroticism (vs. Emotional Stability) represents the tendency to exhibit poor emotional adjustment and experience negative emotions, like anxiety, fear, and depression; and finally (5) Openness to Experience (Intellect or Culture) is a disposition to be creative, imaginative, thoughtful, nonconforming and autonomous (Judge and Bono, 2000).

Research using the five-factor structure or equivalent constructs has found an association between those personality traits and leadership outcomes. For example, meta-analysis from Stogdill (1948) and Mann (1959) found a relation between leadership emergence in small groups with the personality traits of Conscientiousness, Emotional Stability and Agreeableness. Recent studies on leadership emergence reached similar results showing that it is significantly correlated with Surgency, Emotional Stability, and Agreeableness (Gough, 1990; Snyder, 1974); and with Surgency, Emotional Stability, and Conscientiousness (Lord et al., 1986). As reported, between 49% and 82% of the variance in leadership emergence can be explained by personality (Kenny and Zaccaro, 1983). As such, the Big Five model can be used to predict the likelihood of a stranger to emerge as a leader in unstructured groups (Hogan et al., 1994). Other studies found that some personality traits were associated with perceived leadership effectiveness. For instance, Stogdill (1974) found Surgency, Emotional Stability, Conscientiousness, and Agreeableness to be positively related to leadership effectiveness, while Bentz (1990) reported similar traits such as Surgency, Emotional Stability, and Conscientiousness as the salient qualities of executives promoted at Sears. Bray and Howard (1983) indicated the same personality traits as the best predictors of managerial advancement. A meta-analysis found that all the traits from the five-factor were correlated with leadership criteria (leader emergence and leadership effectiveness), with the exception of Agreeableness. An overall measure of the five-factor model had a correlation of 0.48 with leadership (Judge et al., 2002b). Another meta-analysis on the relationship between the Big Five personality traits and job satisfaction found that Emotional Stability and Surgency were significantly correlated, while the full set had a correlation of 0.41 with job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2002a).

In sum, studies focusing on the five-factor personality structure showed evidence that in the case of leadership emergence and perceived effectiveness, leaders exhibit distinguishable key qualities, although these are not enough to guarantee leadership success (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991; Locke, 1991). Researchers agree that individual characteristics are important — even beyond specific domains of personality — asking to enlarge the spectrum to include other dimensions like self-efficacy, self-management, self-motivation, and personal values and beliefs (Hogan and Kaiser, 2005; Roberts et al., 2006; Hoffman et al., 2011).

2.3.1.2. COGNITIVE ABILITIES

The psychological construct of general mental ability, general cognitive ability, or general intelligence, introduced by Spearman (1904), refers to a general descriptive term, including a hierarchy of mental abilities. These mental abilities comprise basic abilities, such as verbal recognition and spatial understanding, to a broader group of abilities like verbal-comprehension intelligence and perceptual-organizational intelligence. At the highest level of the hierarchy, general intelligence involves abstract reasoning across all such domains (Mayer et al., 2008).

Several studies have associated general mental ability with leadership, showing high correlation coefficients of 0.50 (Stogdill, 1948, 1974; Mann, 1959; Cornwell, 1983; Lord et al., 1986; House and Aditya, 1997). Indeed, empirical studies showed that leaders exhibit “above average intelligence”, though rather than being genius they are conceptually skilled, because they must gather, integrate, and interpret enormous amounts of information, are responsible for developing strategies, solving problems, motivating employees and scanning the environment (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991; Locke, 1991).

Thus, intelligent leaders are better problem solvers, are likely to be more creative and to foster the creativity of their followers (Guilford, 1950; Rushton, 1990; Jung, 2000). Other reviewers of this literature found this relationship between intelligence and leadership to be considerably lower. For example, Judge et al. (2004) conducted a meta-analysis indicating that the correlation was 0.27, if corrected for range restriction in intelligence (i.e., the ratio of the sample standard deviation of the intelligence scores to the population standard deviation), and 0.21 if not. These authors found evidence that perceptual measures of intelligence showed stronger correlations than paper-and-pencil measures.

Previous research has highlighted the cognitive ability as a stronger predictor of leadership emergence, even more than personality attributes (Atwater et al., 1999; Taggar et al., 1999). Individuals seem to share a common understanding about the traits that leaders possesses, and these traits are used as benchmarks for deciding emergent leadership (Rubin et al., 2002). Indeed, Lord et al. (1986) meta-analysis found that the individual's intelligence and the perception of his intelligence are highly related factors and that intelligence is a key characteristic in predicting leadership perceptions. Social cognitive theory reveals that cognitive processes underlie the behavioral strategies an emergent leader chooses and the skill with which they are executed as such behavior is dependent upon a cognitive interpretation of a specific situation (Bandura, 1982; Lazarus, 1991).

In addition, other studies indicate that cognitive ability predicts leadership effectiveness (e.g., Avolio et al., 1996; Atwater et al., 1999). Effective leaders have been shown to display greater ability to reason both inductively and deductively than ineffective leaders (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991). Cognitive resource theory has proposed that intelligence is more strongly related to leadership effectiveness when

leaders experience low levels of stress. Higher levels of stress affect the leaders' ability to focus on his task, as he or she faces worries over possible failure, crises of self-efficacy, and evaluation anxiety (Fiedler, 1986; Fiedler and Garcia, 1987). According to this stream of research, leaders who communicate using directive behavior are more likely to be effective, as they are more likely to possess the knowledge necessary to help their followers (Fiedler and House, 1994). Prior research also found intelligence to predict job performance, and this ability is stronger for complex tasks (Ree and Earles, 1992; Schmidt and Hunter, 1998).

Beyond the overall interest in this topic, recent research points new directions concerning multiple intelligences, interaction between cognitive and emotional abilities, and situational factors. According to Mumford et al. (2000a), leaders also need crystallized cognitive abilities (i.e., intellectual ability that is learned over time), fluid abilities (i.e., the capacity to think logically and solve problems in novel situations, independent of acquired knowledge), and divergent thinking ability (i.e., thought process or method used to generate creative ideas to solve problems and increase performance). However, this concept of multiple intelligences (Sternberg, 1985; Gardner, 1993) is still very controversial among researchers — for further insight see Antonakis versus Ashkanasy and Dasborough debate regarding this topic without reaching any substantial conclusion (Antonakis et al., 2009) — as researchers claim for the lack of empirical support for this concept (Waterhouse, 2006). Côté and Miners (2006) found that emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence are compensatory with respect to job performance. The association between emotional intelligence and job performance become stronger when cognitive intelligence decreases. In addition, according to Fiedler (2002) the relevance of situational factors — those that affect the leader's deployment of

intellectual resources, and might influence the acquisition of specific skills, and explain subsequent leader performance — has been discounted. Even if a leader possesses intelligence, it may not be utilized effectively due to situational factors. According to this author, effective leadership is a complex interaction of the leader's characteristics, the leader's experience, and elements of the situation.

Cognitive ability has been considered as a unitary construct related to academic ability, which may not consider other important abilities or new conceptions of intelligence, such as creativity and the ability to solve problems (Sternberg, 1985, 2005; Marshall-Mies et al., 2000; Mumford et al., 2000a). Researchers agree that using a broader lens concerning these alternative conceptualizations of intelligence is crucial to understand how they are linked to leadership emergence or effectiveness (Hedlund et al., 2003; Antonakis et al., 2004).

2.3.1.3. EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Salovey and Mayer (1990) introduced the concept of emotional intelligence, influenced by earlier theories of social intelligence (Thorndike, 1920) and multiple intelligences (Gardner, 1983). For Mayer et al. (2008) emotional intelligence involves the ability to carry out accurate reasoning about emotions and the ability to use emotions and emotional knowledge to enhance thought. For Mayer and Salovey (1997), there are four main components of emotional intelligence: (1) perception of emotion (in self and others); (2) assimilation of emotion to facilitate thought; (3) understanding of emotion; and (4) managing and regulating emotion in self and others. These authors have operationalized their model as an “abilities measure” of emotional intelligence, following the tradition of measures of intellectual intelligence, which is regarded as the best operationalization of

emotional intelligence (Daus, 2006). For the sake of conceptual clarity, a definition is required in terms like emotion, mood, and affect. An emotion is a discrete affective state that is perceived by the individual, and has an external identifiable cause (Forgas, 1995). While mood is a diffuse affective state that lacks a clear reference or cause, and affect is used as a generic label comprising both emotion and mood (Forgas, 1995).

Until recently, research had neglected the impact of emotions in organizational life (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995), despite the concurrence of these normal human reactions (positive or negative) to events or persons. Emotionally intelligent individuals are aware of their emotions, understand the causes and effects of such emotions on cognitive processes and decision making (Salovey and Mayer, 1990; George, 2000; Salovey et al., 2002). Empathy defined as “the ability to comprehend another’s feelings and to re-experience them oneself” (Salovey and Mayer, 1990, p. 194) may be a central characteristic of emotional intelligent behavior. For example, Yukl (1998) indicates empathy as an important leader behavior for managing relations.

Despite all these emergent studies on emotional intelligence, a great antagonism persists between cognitive and emotional abilities, following a long-term debate about the relative importance and primacy of each. For the cognitive paradigm of psychology, affect was considered as noise, or error variance (Forgas, 1992). De Souza (1987) has argued that reason and emotion were not natural antagonists, on the contrary. As such, recent research has already recognized that affect and cognition are part of a universal, integrated system (e.g., Bower, 1981; Bower and Cohen, 1982; Salovey and Rodin, 1985; Mayer, 1986; Forgas, 1992).

Therefore, the scholarly attention is shifting toward an integration system between cognition and emotional abilities. This trend might be explained by newly published

studies on this subject whereby general intelligence is regarded as important, but not sufficient to account for many facets of leadership, such as social relationships and stressful situations (e.g., Mayer, 2000; Mayer et al., 2000; Matthews et al., 2002; Oatley, 2004). For example, Michie and Gooty (2005) have included affective, as well as cognitive, psychological capacities in the study of leadership. Kellett et al. (2002) found that the perception of someone as a leader is affected by his emotional abilities such as empathy and by his mental abilities such as complex task performance. Additional research showed the relevance of emotion to problem solving, as emotion precedes or at least accompanies cognition and thus emotion, and affective information provides a unique source of information that can improve cognition (Salovey et al., 2000; Dickman and Stanford-Blair, 2002).

Other studies have considered the influence of emotions in cognitive processes. For instance, Forgas' (1995) Affect Infusion Model (AIM) provides a useful conceptual framework to understand the conditions under which, affect is most likely to influence cognition, judgment, and decision-making (George, 2000). Also from mood research, Daus (2006) argues that emotion serves cognition and cognition serves emotion. In the literature, it has been mentioned that emotions can be used to facilitate cognition. While positive moods foster creativity, integrative thinking, and inductive reasoning, negative moods raise attention to more detail, and focus on problems (Isen et al., 1985, 1987). In addition, emotions' transitions might lead to more flexible planning, to the generation of multiple alternatives, and a broadened perspective on problems (Mayer, 1986; Salovey and Mayer, 1990; Sinclair and Mark, 1992; Salovey et al., 1993). Thus, research exploring the relationship between overall measures of emotional intelligence and general intelligence has now established beyond doubt that emotional and mental ability is

related, but differentiable and independent concepts (Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Bar-On, 2000; Ciarrochi et al., 2000; Mayer et al., 2000).

New theories of leadership emphasized the emotional attachment of followers to the leader (Bass, 1985; Gardner and Avolio, 1998; Emrich et al., 2001). George (2000) suggested that transformational leadership behaviors may be associated with higher levels of emotional intelligence, and Walter and Bruch (2007) found that leader's emotional intelligence and positive mood were positively related to the followers' ratings of charismatic leadership behaviors. Additional theoretical approaches, on leader emergence in self-managing teams, argue that empathy precedes and enables cognitive processes and skills by providing an accurate understanding of team members' emotions and needs (Wolff et al., 2002). Empirical support identified empathy, a key component of emotional intelligence, as a significant predictor of leadership emergence (Kellett et al., 2002, 2006; Walter and Bruch, 2007). Indeed, leaders must be able to anticipate how followers will react to different circumstances and effectively manage these reactions, as leadership is an emotion-laden process (George, 2000). A leader who can manage his own emotions (emotional self-awareness) and has empathy for others will be more effective (Caruso et al., 2002; Salovey et al., 2002; Avolio, 2003).

Emotional intelligence influence both the emotions experienced by leaders and their effectiveness in selecting and executing emotional displays that promote positive follower impressions (Gardner et al., 2009). Current theorizing regarding emotions and transformational leadership suggest that the ability to understand others' emotions enables a leader to empathize and results in leadership effectiveness (Ashkanasy and Tse, 2000; Bass and Avolio, 1990a). However, leader emotional intelligence may be more important in some situations than in others. For example, emotional intelligence is

required in situations where cognitive resources are constrained, such as highly stressful work situations (Salas et al., 1996; Antonakis et al., 2009).

Recent research raised the importance of considering the study of emotions along with cognitive abilities in the leadership process. However, a consensus has not been reached yet as some persistent criticisms remain. Antonakis et al. (2009, p. 255) argue that emotions are important for decision-making and leadership, as we have “one integrated brain, one mind that decides, and one intelligence; this mind requires both emotional and non-emotional processes and feedback systems to function.” For this author, the question is still a theoretical one, as there are not enough empirical studies to support this claim. For example, Van Rooy and Viswesvaran (2004) had very disappointing meta-analytic correlation between the ability scale of emotional intelligence and performance outcomes. Other studies have failed to provide support, using emotional intelligence measures, demonstrating that emotional intelligence matters much for leadership, after controlling for individual-characteristics (Murphy, 2006; Antonakis et al. 2009). Even, the relationship between emotional intelligence and other concepts, including general intelligence, social skills, and personality, is not adequately understood (Murphy, 2006).

2.3.2. LEARNING EXPERIENCES

2.3.2.1. PERSONAL HISTORY AND TRIGGER EVENTS

The leader’s personal history includes critical elements such as one’s family and role models, early life challenges, education and work experiences, cultural and contextual influences, and leadership experiences (Gardner et al., 2005). Trigger events

constitute dramatic and sometimes subtle changes in the individual's circumstances that facilitate self-awareness, personal growth and development (Gardner et al., 2005). Accumulated life experiences and on-going interpretation of trigger events are part of the self-development process (Avolio, 2003, 2005; Luthans and Avolio, 2003). Crucibles and defining moments in leaders' lives are important to understand the meanings that lead to new definitions and self-concepts. Crucibles are places where people usually ask essential questions such as: Who am I? Who could I be? Who should I be? How should I relate to the world? (Bennis and Thomas, 2002; Bennis, 2003). One's personal history of life-experiences are stored in memory as self-knowledge (self-schemata) and serve to shape one's identity "Who am I?" (Hoyle et al., 1999).

The life stories approach provides insights into the meanings leaders' attach to life events, and therefore are an important tool to develop themselves over time through reflection. As such, leader's life story reflects: (1) the degree of self-knowledge, (2) self-concept clarity, (3) person-role merger that he experiences, and (4) provides followers with cues for assessing leader authenticity (Avolio and Gardner, 2005). The life-story gives the leader a "meaning system" to analyze and understand the reality, which models how the leader feels, thinks and acts (Kegan, 1982). In addition, life-stories provide the leader with knowledge and clarity about their values and beliefs, because leaders experienced those values to be true (Pearce, 2003). Thus, identity is a result of a life-story, which was created, shared, and reviewed throughout life (Pallus et al., 1991). Through a narrative process whereby a leader's authentic self emerges — individuals interpret actions, events, and motives, to construct a unifying life story for themselves (Avolio and Gardner, 2005).

Social learning theory suggests that experience can play an important role, as in

essence the theory is based on the notion that individuals learn from observation (social learning), and future behaviors are guided by the consequences of past behavior (experience) and social learning (Bandura, 1977; Ilies et al., 2005). Through life experiences and their expression in life-stories, leaders can develop a self-concept that supports and embraces their leadership role, because the life-story not only retells but also explains, “how have I become a leader?” and “why have I become a leader?” (Simmons, 2002). In this case, the leader’s claim for leadership is based on personally held deep values and beliefs rather than on formal appointments or personal power pursuit, as such the leader’s behaviors and actions are consistent with his beliefs and convictions (Shamir and Eilam, 2005).

Shamir et al. (2005) argue that the leader’s life story has an important role in the study of leadership development, providing the leader with a self-concept from which he or she can lead. The authors found leadership development themes that surpass particular contexts. Thus, leadership development is regarded: (1) as a natural process, (2) out of struggle and hardship, (3) finding a cause and (4) a learning process. This includes learning from role models: historical or public figures, literary figures, parents, siblings and other family members, teachers, mentors, superiors and peers (Shamir and Eilam, 2005; Shamir et al., 2005). Leaders do not imitate these models; instead, they construct their self-concept with reference to these models, and the leader’s story and the collective story should be similar in some aspects in order to improve his or her effectiveness (Gardner, 1995; Shamir and Eilam, 2005). The leader’s story should capture not only the leader’s self-concept, but also the follower’s values, identities and desires. It should be embedded in a collective story of which followers are a part – “what are we here for?” (Shamir and Eilam, 2005).

In short, recent research has raised the importance of a leader's personal history and trigger events on the development of the self-concept and how this self-concept impact followers by influencing their own self-concept. These learning experiences shape the leader's behavior, which in turn affects his effectiveness in the organization.

2.3.2.2. PERSONAL VALUES

For Rokeach (1973), values and value systems are fundamental in determining an individual's character and can be defined as a belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally and socially preferable to alternative modes of conduct or end-states of existence. More recently, Schwartz (1994) defined these human values as trans-situational varying in importance and serving as guiding principles in the life of a person or group. This author categorized values as a bipolar dimension of self-enhancement/self-transcendence. Self-enhancement is associated with the values of achievement (pursuit of personal success), power (dominance over others), and hedonism (personal gratification); and self-transcendence with the values of benevolence (concern for immediate others) and Universalism (concern for the welfare of all people). Values categorized under benevolence include honesty, responsibility, and loyalty. Values associated with Universalism include equality, social justice, and broad-mindedness or tolerance of different ideas and opinions.

Values are learned through socialization processes and internalized, becoming integral components of the self (Erickson, 1995). They also provide a basis for eliciting actions that conform to the needs of other individuals and the community at large (Lord and Brown, 2001). According to cognitive dissonance theory, individuals seek a stable state in which there is a minimum of dissonance between values, attitudes and behaviors

(Festinger, 1959). Recent empirical research demonstrates that values result in attitudes that in turn affect behavior by encouraging individuals to act in accordance with their values (e.g., McNeely and Meglino, 1994; Malphurs, 1996; Egri and Herman, 2000; Lönnqvist et al., 2009). Values also serve as foundational blueprints for making decisions and solving problems (Russell, 2001).

Leadership scholars have analyzed the importance of personal values as desirable modes of behavior in the study of charismatic and authentic leadership. Specially, their role in influencing followers' behavior and attitudes toward performing above and beyond the call of duty, and toward doing what's right and fair to all stakeholders (House, 1977; Bass, 1985; Gardner and Avolio, 1998; Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999; Burns, 2003; Luthans and Avolio, 2003; May et al., 2003). According to England and Lee (1974), values can affect leaders in several ways: (1) leaders' perceptions of situations, individual and organizational successes, and ethical and unethical behavior; (2) solutions leaders generate to solve problems; (3) leaders' interpersonal relationships; (4) the extent to which leaders accept or reject organizational goals and pressures; and (5) leadership performance.

Hence, leadership values are major determinants of strategic choices, which can be used to define a motivating vision for the organization, and to communicate ethical norms for behavior (Andrews, 1980; Senge, 1990; Slater and Narver, 1995). For Clawson (1999), the moral foundation of effective leadership incorporates integrity resulting from four essential values: (1) truth-telling; (2) promise-keeping; (3) fairness, and (4) respect for the individual. As such, leadership values, beliefs, knowledge, and experience shape their strategic decisions, eventually influencing the firm's performance (Finkelstein and Hambrick, 1996; Chattopadhyay et al., 1999).

Thus, leadership is intrinsically a value-based process where the leader's strong convictions serve as guiding principles for his behavior and vision that motivates followers to perform beyond expectations (Bass, 1985; House, 1977). However, values and their priority may vary from leader to leader based on their personality, the organizational context, and the followers (Michie and Gooty, 2005).

2.3.2.3. LEADERSHIP SKILLS

Several skills have been appointed in the literature as important requirements for leadership development. These requirements vary by organizational level according to the Stratified Systems Theory (SST), which means that jobs at higher levels of the organization require higher levels of all leadership skills (Jaques, 1996). An important theoretical contribute came from Mumford et al. (2007), with the Strataplex Model where the focus shifted from the person holding the job to the job itself. In this model, the authors introduce four skills that are more or less important depending on the organizational level: (1) cognitive skills (the foundation of the leadership skill requirements) — comprising skills related to basic cognitive capacities and learning, including oral communication skills, active listening, written communication skills, active learning skills, and skills in the area of critical thinking; (2) interpersonal skills — interpersonal and social skills requirements related to interacting with and influencing others, social capacities, social judgment, social complexity and differentiation and human relations skills, also includes skills required for coordination of actions of oneself and other, and negotiation skills to reconcile differences among employee perspective and establish mutually satisfying relationships, and persuasion skills to influence others to accomplish organizational goals; (3) business skills — involves skills related to specific functional areas that create

the context in which most leaders work, they involve management of material resources, operations analysis and management of personnel and financial resources of the organizational unit; and (4) strategic skills (certain strategic skills only full emerge at the highest levels in the organization) — highly conceptual skills needed to take a systems perspective to understand complexity, deal with ambiguity, and to exert influence in the organization, they include skills of visioning, systems perceptions, scanning skills, the creation of a causal map that allows leaders to recognize relationships among problems and opportunities and then choose appropriate strategies to deal with them, also solution appraisal and objective evaluation skills. His findings corroborate that the nature of leadership changes both quantitatively (increasing in complexity) and qualitatively (greater interaction with environment) as one moves up in job level. This view is supported by empirical research (Boyatzis, 1982; Flanders et al., 1983; Mumford et al., 2000b).

Other skills have also been mentioned in the literature, such as political skills — the ability to effectively understand others at work, and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways, that enhance one's personal and/or organizational objectives (Ferris et al., 2005). Politically skilled individuals combine social astuteness, with the capacity to adjust their behavior to different and changing situational demands in a manner that appears sincere, inspires support and trust, and effectively influence and controls the responses of others (Liu et al., 2007). Politically skilled leaders comprehend social cues, influence and control people and situations with ease, and build the networks and social capital necessary to both elevate their reputation status, enhancing their job performance (Ferris et al., 2005; Liu et al., 2007).

Other authors (Riggio and Lee, 2007; Bass and Bass, 2008; Riggio and Reichard,

2008) reinforced the role of social skills in leadership processes and outcomes — behaviors like social expressiveness (one's skill in verbal expression and the ability to engage others in conversation) and social control (one's skill in role-playing and social self-presentation). Guerin et al. (2011) predicted that social skills would mediate the relationships between extraversion and IQ in adolescence and leadership potential at age of 29 years. Thus, leadership involves a complex mix of behavioral, cognitive, and social skills that may develop at different rates and require different learning experiences (Mumford et al., 2000a; Zaccaro and Klimoski, 2001; Day and Halpin, 2004).

Chan and Drasgow (2001) raised an additional critical requirement for leadership development. In order to develop leadership skills, proactive attitude may be required from a potential leader, making his own motivation and interest in leadership a critical driver for the subsequent development. In order to sustain this interest for the period required to develop and practice complex leadership skills, it is likely that the leadership role needs to become part of one's self-identity (Lord and Hall, 2005). Drawing on research related to social identity and values and on the comprehensive theory of learning, Lord and Hall (2005) proposed a model of leadership skills addressing changes at one's self-identity. The authors suggested that at all stages of the development, as leaders' progress from novice to expert, the acquisition and advance of leadership skills will be influenced by individual differences in personality and temperament, cognitive and emotional abilities, identities and values.

Several researchers have associated leadership skills to underlying variables of leadership effectiveness and organizational performance. Mumford et al. (2000a) found that managers at higher organizational levels possessed higher leadership skills, and increases in leadership skills were related to criterion measures of leadership

performance. Connelly et al. (2000) found that complex problem-solving skills, social judgment skills and leader knowledge account for significant variance in leader effectiveness beyond that accounted for by cognitive abilities, motivations, and personality, and mediate the relationship of cognitive abilities, motivation and personality to leader effectiveness. Some researchers have argued that overall leadership effectiveness depends upon developing sufficient communication skills, as the effective leader must articulate the mission of the organization, in a convincing and inspiring way (Bass, 1990a; Hackman and Johnson, 1996; Melrose, 1997; Neuschel, 1998). Drawing upon action learning perspective, Hirst et al. (2004) found evidence that the leader's learning has a significant impact on subsequent facilitate leadership and team performance eight and twelve months later, suggesting a lag between learning leadership skills and translating these skills into leadership behavior.

Indeed, Mumford et al. (2000b) have even argued that leadership can be understood in terms of knowledge, problem-solving skills, solution construction skills, and social judgment needed to solve organizational problems, instead in terms of specific behaviors like the ones referred by the new leadership theories. As such, a skill-based model developed by these authors may provide a viable new perspective for understanding leader performance. In this model, skills are seen as developing as a function of the interaction between traits and experience. However, within this model, the developed capabilities referred to as knowledge and skills are seen as having a more direct and immediate impact on leader performance than traits as they have traditionally been conceptualized. The model proposes that leader performance is based on three key types of skills: (1) complex problem-solving skills, (2) solution construction skills, and (3) social judgment skills. Thus, the authors argue that effective leaders must exercise

influence, considering the right problems in the right way within the context of other organizational activities. This dynamic interaction, between the environment and the leader, as it gives rise to the development, acquisition, and application of requisite organizational problem-solving skills, is seen as the key to understand leader performance.

This completely different perspective about leadership based on the skills model of Mumford et al. (2000a), and the other theoretical contributions, sheds some light on the importance of developing specific skills in order to be an effective leader. However, as some studies reveal, these skills require some time until they actually affect team and organizational performance. Even, after a leader acquires and develops those skills, a behavioral change has to occur in order to implement the learning skills in the organizational setting. Therefore, this raises the need to integrate the behavioral and skills based models of leader emergence and performance as a future foundation for the leadership theory (Marta et al., 2005).

2.4. LEADER SELF-REGULATION PROCESS

Self-regulation focus has emerged from the social learning theory literature and related studies in self-control (Bandura, 1969, 1977; Mahoney and Arnkoff, 1978). In the organizational literature, this process has been mentioned as self-management (e.g., Luthans and Davis, 1979; Manz and Sims, 1980; Manz, 1986). According to Bandura (1991), self-regulatory mechanisms mediate the effects of external influences and provide a basis for purposeful action, whereby people form beliefs about what they can do, anticipate the consequences of their actions, set goals for themselves, and plan courses of

action that are likely to produce the desirable outcomes. Thus, self-regulation operates through a set of cognitive processes, including self-monitoring of one's behaviors, its determinants and effects, standard setting, evaluative judgment, self-appraisal, and affective self-reaction.

Another important self-regulation process referred by Bandura (1991) is the self-efficacy mechanism. People's beliefs in their efficacy influence the choices they make, their aspirations, the effort they put in a certain course of action, and their perseverance in facing obstacles (Bandura, 1991). For Bandura and Locke (2003), efficacy beliefs affect whether individuals think in self-enhancing or self-debilitating ways, their own motivation and perseverance when facing obstacles, their well-being and vulnerability to stress and depression, and the choices made at important decision points. Meta-analysis supports self-efficacy as a significant, positive correlate of job performance (Stajkovic and Luthans, 1998). Recent research suggests that leaders self-efficacy enact key leadership behaviors in different environmental settings and can impact leadership outcomes, such as leadership emergence and effectiveness (e.g., Chemers et al., 2000; Luthans and Peterson, 2002; Anderson et al., 2008; Hannah et al., 2008).

This recent attention to self-regulation has challenged the current thinking regarding organizational research, placing people's self-control mechanisms as a central element of organizational processes. More comprehensively, Manz (1986) introduced the concept of self-leadership to address the reasons why employees exert self-influence and which strategies allow the intrinsic value of work and enhance individual performance. As such, self-leadership involves a process of self-influence to achieve the levels of self-motivation and self-direction required to behave in desirable ways (Manz, 1992). There are three different and yet complementary categories of self-leadership: (1) behavior-

focused strategies (focus on self-assessment, self-reward, and self-discipline), (2) natural reward strategies (refer to positive perceptions and experiences associated with task performance), and (3) constructive thought pattern strategies (focus on establishing and altering thoughts in desirable ways). The use of self-leadership strategies is an important influence on people's behavior, which positively induces performance outcomes (Manz, 1983, 1992; Prussia et al., 1998; Konradt et al., 2009; Stewart et al., 2011).

Self-regulatory mechanisms (e.g., self-efficacy and self-leadership) have received little attention in the leadership literature. Despite the emergent studies that give support to the claim that leaders who are oriented to specific goals, and strongly believe in their capabilities to achieve them are more likely to engage their followers, and the groups they lead to produce those same outcomes (Anderson et al., 2008; Hannah et al., 2008; Stewart et al., 2011). Further insights are necessary to understand how these constructs at the individual level interact with the team and organizational level, and can affect overall organizational performance.

2.5. LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS

Several leadership behaviors were identified in the literature based on the charismatic and transformational leadership theories (House, 1977; Bass, 1985; Conger and Kanungo, 1987). Yukl (2008) presented a hierarchical taxonomy for leadership behaviors that are regarded as determinants of organizational performance, based on earlier works of behavioral leadership theorists (e.g., Fleishman, 1953; Blake and Mouton, 1985; Yukl et al., 2002):

- (1) Change-oriented behaviors.

(2) Relational-oriented behaviors.

(3) Task-oriented behaviors.

2.5.1. CHANGE-ORIENTED BEHAVIORS

Leader's behaviors oriented to change in organizations comprehend actions like establishing and communicating a vision, involving followers in the transformation process, encouraging creative thinking and innovation. For example, transformational leaders play a key role for organizational change when they communicate a compelling vision for the future, and influence followers to accomplish more than what is expected of them (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985). Charismatic leaders develop processes of followers' identification with the leader and with the organizational goals to increase their confidence and self-efficacy. Through these identification processes, charismatic leaders are able to drive change in organizations (House, 1977; Conger, 1999). As such, the leader's ability to articulate a highly desirable future state facilitates organizational change and transformation. For this purpose, a leader establishes a strategic vision, a common purpose, a mission statement, group goals and an agenda for the organization (e.g., Kouzes and Posner, 1995; Bennis and Nanus, 1997; Manz, 1998).

The vision must be inspiring and motivating to action (Bennis, 1997), and personified by the leader's own behavior in a visible and consistent way (Nanus, 1992; Snyder et al., 1994). However, as referred by Nanus (1992), the vision process is not complete until all the stakeholders (employees, customers, suppliers, partners, government) understand where the organization is headed, and have a high degree of shared commitment to the vision. In order to implement a collective vision for the

organization, it requires strategic activities such as planning, organizing and controlling which are also components of the effective leadership process (Locke, 1991).

According to George (2000), leaders need also to communicate the vision to the organization's members in order to capture their emotional commitment in such a way that it becomes a shared vision. For Stam et al. (2010), a further step besides vision communication is required in order to influence followers effectively. According to their study based on two experiments, they found out that visions focusing on followers are more likely to lead to the creation of an ideal self and thus to higher follower performance than visions that do not focus on followers. The authors argue that this effect was particularly strong for followers with a promotion self-regulatory focus (reaching ideals and ideal selves), because promotion focus causes sensitivity to the presence or absence of ideals.

In addition, envisioning process in order to be effective require leaders to integrate personal aspects in their speech content (Shamir et al., 1994). In a study, Sosik and Dinger (2007) found that the relationship between leadership style and themes contained in vision statements was moderated by three personal attributes of leaders: (1) need for social approval, (2) self-monitoring, and (3) need for social power. These attributes are referred as the core personal attributes that influence social processes (House, 1977; Bryman, 1992).

Research on visionary leadership, a component of the new leadership theories, found empirical evidence of a positive relationship with employees' extra effort, which in turn relates to firm performance (House et al., 1997; Dorfman et al., 2004; Sully de Luque et al., 2008). However, only a few studies have examined the direct association between the leader's articulation of a shared vision and leadership effectiveness and

organizational performance. Bart et al. (2001) concluded that organizational alignment of mission and policies is positively associated with employee behavior and leadership excellence. In a laboratory simulation, Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996) manipulated three core components of new leadership theories: (1) vision, (2) vision implementation through task cues, and (3) communication style. Vision implementation affected both performance quality, and quantity, while vision articulation only affected slightly performance quality. Another study from Awamleh and Gardner (1999) examined the effects of vision content, delivery and organizational performance on perceptions of leader charisma and effectiveness. Results indicate significant effects of delivery, content, and organizational performance on both leader charisma and effectiveness, but the strength of the delivery was especially important as a determinant sometimes offsetting the results of speech content and organizational performance.

Research seems to support the relationship between vision and leadership effectiveness. Nevertheless, a full understanding of the underlying mechanisms that link the leader's vision articulation to effective outcomes is required. Especially, considering that vision itself or a visionary leader do not insure desirable outcomes, nor avoid financial disaster (Collins, 2001; Yukl, 2008).

2.5.2. RELATIONAL-ORIENTED BEHAVIORS

Effective leaders need to influence followers to identify with and commit to the collective vision for the organization, in a meaningful way (Bass, 1985; Locke, 1991). For this purpose, leaders use mechanisms like empowerment that involve the process of entrusting others (give the power and authority) through a "pull" style of influence by

attracting and energizing people, motivating them by identification with the leaders' behavior (Bennis and Nanus, 1997). This ability to change behavior in order to obtain cooperation from followers with the purpose of achieving personal and professional goals was referred by Pfeffer (1992) as interpersonal influence. When leaders define the collective vision and direction, they delegate decisions about how to achieve the group goals. Empowerment emphasizes teamwork, and involves trust and accountability. Thus, in this process, they are creating many leaders at all levels of the organization (Miller, 1995; Bennis and Nanus, 1997; Manz, 1998).

The individual focus is paramount of one of the most prominent theories in the leadership literature — the transformational leadership approach. Indeed, Bass (1985) conceptualized transformational leadership into four dimensions, whereby one of them, individualized consideration represents the leader's attempt to recognize, satisfy, expand and elevate the followers' current needs, in order to develop their full potential, providing empowerment for followers while turning them into potential leaders. Another dimension, intellectual stimulation considers the focus on the development of the followers' capacity to solve future problems, enhancing their creativity and innovation. In addition, as referred by Locke (1991), leaders exert their influence on followers in such a way to convince them that the organizational vision is important and attainable, as well as their role in this process. For that purpose, leaders challenge followers with goals, projects, tasks, and responsibilities, allowing them to have a personal feeling of accomplishment that is rewarded with recognition, money, and promotions (Locke, 1991).

Over the past few years, a new stream of research has surged using complexity science to explore the dynamics in an organization. This approach of leadership links

individual behavior with organizational contexts, which suggests that influence processes tend to occur continuously, at different levels, throughout the system revealing the richer dynamics of interdependence and influence (Marion and Uhl-Bien, 2001; Uhl-Bien et al., 2007). Rather than focusing on the leader's behavior, or merely on dyadic relationships like LMX theory, research has started to explore leadership behavior in context — which is referred as the meso space (the space between the individual and the context) — unfolding leadership as a dynamic process (Yukl and Chavez, 2002; Lichtenstein and Plowman, 2009). From a complexity perspective, the role of leadership is shifted from controlling organizations and futures to influence organizational behavior in ways that enhance the odds of productive futures (Marion and Uhl-Bien, 2001). In addition, according to this view, effective leaders learn to manage and develop networks and serve as catalysts for network building as well to ensure the generation of effective work relationships, which are associated with organizational outcomes (Marion and Uhl-Bien, 2001).

Empirical studies were conducted using the LMX theoretical framework. For instance, the identification of important variables in understanding the role assimilation process from the members, and longitudinal studies that found the degree of latitude that a leader grants to the member in negotiating his role was a predictor of subsequent behavior on both leader and member (Dansereau et al., 1975). LMX relationships of high-quality are rated as having a positive impact on performance, affectivity similarity, delegation, agreement on members' obligations, citizenship behavior from the part of the members, job satisfaction (moderated by empowerment), and lower turnover intentions (e.g., Duarte et al., 1994; Bauer and Green, 1996; Kamdar and Van Dyne, 2007; Harris et al., 2009; Markham et al., 2010). In addition, Moss and Barbuto (2010) found that a

leader's interpersonal influence significantly affects the ratings of effectiveness. This study also found support for the notion that those that are skilled at networking within an organization are more successful.

Emerging research has raised the importance of the leader's relational behaviors in explaining organizational performance. As the interpersonal influence is a dynamic process, leaders and followers interact over time. Therefore, most likely leaders influence followers, as are influenced by them. To understand how this process evolves, which direction does it take (leader → follower or follower → leader), and its intensity, will bring additional insights on how the interpersonal influence unfolds inside organizations.

2.5.3. TASK-ORIENTED BEHAVIORS

Another important key role of a leader is to clearly define expectations and standards for performance, and use those standards to influence followers' commitment, motivation, behavior and performance (e.g., Blanchard and Johnson, 1982; Bass, 1985; Hollander, 1986). This perspective is transactional between the leader and followers in regard, for example to the completion of a task. In order to be an effective process Blanchard and Johnson (1982) have identified several steps: (1) obtain the follower's concordance with the goal, including the correspondent behavior; (2) provide appraisal (contingent reward or punishment) — if the task is successfully accomplished, there's a material or psychological award; instead, a follower's failure to comply may take the leader to a corrective action; and (3) setting a new goal if the follower was successful or a review and clarification of the previous goal in case of failure. Bass (1985) concept of transactional leadership is an example of task-oriented behaviors, namely the two

components, contingent award and management-by-exception. Transactional leaders are agents of reinforcement for the followers, while the follower's compliance or noncompliance makes them agents of reinforcement to the leader.

Empirical studies examined a positive association between the leader's reinforcement effort and the successful completion of tasks, and the followers' satisfaction (e.g., Klimoski and Hayes, 1980; Peters and Waterman, 1982). Thus, leaders' behaviors in the contingent-reward process affect the followers' efforts and performance by clarifying those expectations that payoff. In addition, Podsakoff and Schriesheim (1985) found followers to be more satisfied with their situation if their leaders provided them with positive feedback on their performance, and dissatisfying to followers with negative feedback. Other studies have examined the contribution of contingent rewards to measures of effectiveness. For instance, Hunt and Schuler (1976) observed that praise and recognition, as well as material awards, that were contingent on acceptable performance standards improved followers' performance and effectiveness. Sims (1977) and Greene (1976) demonstrated that contingent rewarding by supervisors resulted in improved subsequent followers' performance and effectiveness.

The above review suggests an association between task-oriented leader's behaviors and performance. However, based on the idea that other behaviors like change and relational-oriented behaviors of transformational leaders have an augmentation effect and induce a higher effort from followers, we require additional insights that account for that effect. Especially, if we take into consideration a meta-analysis from DeRue et al. (2011) that found different results depending on the measure used for leadership effectiveness. For example, for measures like ratings of leader effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader, and group performance, transformational leadership was

highly correlated (respectively, $r_c = .64$, $r_c = .71$, $r_c = .38$), while for the measure of follower job satisfaction, contingent-reward was highly correlated ($r_c = .64$). Thus, the comparison of the most effective leader's behaviors depends to a great extent on the measures chosen.

2.6. LEADERSHIP PROCESSES

Emerging research has highlighted other leadership processes that go beyond what the literature regards as leadership behaviors. Among the most relevant for leadership effectiveness, several authors have identified the following processes: (1) affection and management of emotions, (2) social identification, and (3) collective efficacy.

2.6.1. AFFECTION AND THE MANAGEMENT OF EMOTIONS

Emerging research examining leadership processes has pointed the management of the emotions of group members as one of the key duties of leaders (George, 2000; Humphrey, 2002). This key role, which has been described as the fourth element of emotional intelligence, is the ability to manage other's emotions (Salovey and Mayer, 1990; Mayer and Salovey, 1997). For some authors, leadership is intrinsically an emotional process, where leaders display emotion, and attempt to evoke emotion in their members to generate excitement, enthusiasm, confidence, and optimism (e.g., George, 2000; Dasborough and Ashkanasy, 2002). Thus, social interaction between leaders and followers cannot be sustained without trust and affective commitment (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986).

Several authors, such as Fredrickson (2003) posit that leaders' positive emotions may contaminate other members' emotions in such a way that enables organizational learning and transformation refer this emotional contagion. Sy et al. (2005) also found a link between leaders' moods, the moods of their group members, and the affective tone of the group. When leaders influence their followers' positive emotions, and these followers experience positive affect, a reciprocal effect occurs through emotional contagion, and leaders' emotions are influenced, enhancing a mutual hedonic well-being (Ilies et al., 2005). Johnson (2008) examined the effects of emotional contagion on follower affect at work, and found that leader positive and negative affect at work was related to follower positive affect via emotional contagion, and to perceptions of charismatic leadership.

Leaders need to understand and influence the followers' emotions in such a way that affects their future behaviors. For example, leaders can manage followers' emotions to improve their creativity and their own confidence in solving problems successfully (Isen et al., 1987; George, 2000). In this process, leaders start by empathizing and identifying with the collective emotional state of group members, understand the factors that cause the emotional state, and then manage the situation that fostered the emotional reaction, communicating their responses both verbally and by taking action (Pescosolido, 2002). Thus, the leader takes into consideration the situation, sets the emotional tone and context for the group members to arouse their own emotional responses.

Researchers have examined the role of positive and negative emotions or moods in leadership processes. According to the evolutionary approach, negative moods act as a signal that something is wrong while positive moods signal a state of satisfaction (Ashkanasy et al., 2002). Likewise, Barsade (2002) examined the role of group emotion

contagion in an experimental design, and found that group members exposed to emotional contagion reported positive moods, improved task cooperation, decreased conflict, and had a higher perceived task performance. Both positive and negative moods exhibited by the leader through the working group via contagion influenced people's moods in the group. For example, positive moods seem to improve significantly the group outcomes (Barsade, 2002).

Additional research has examined the association between the management of emotions and leadership outcomes like effectiveness and performance. Thus far, theoretical approach is paramount of the idea that leader positive moods foster favorable outcomes for all parties, whereas leader negative moods seem to be detrimental (Gooty et al., 2010). Recent empirical studies corroborate this perspective. For example, Gaddis et al. (2004) found that negative leader affect displayed during feedback was related to lower perceptions of leader effectiveness and lower group task performance. Newcombe and Ashkanasy (2002) demonstrate the effects of affective congruence/incongruence in perceived effectiveness. The authors found a positive relationship between a leader's positive feedback and exhibited congruent positive affect and followers' perception of leader effectiveness, while leaders displaying negative affect and giving positive feedback were perceived as least effective.

Lewis (2000) in a laboratory experiment found that people who viewed a leader displaying negative emotions reported less "positive arousal" (enthusiasm), when compared to those who viewed a more neutral emotional leader. According to this author, a leader's negative emotional display when compared to neutrality had a significant and negative effect on perceived leader effectiveness. Madera and Smith (2009) examined the effect of leader emotion on evaluations of leadership effectiveness in the context of a

failed product. Results revealed that a leader expressing sadness was evaluated more favorably than a leader expressing anger. Participants' emotion mediated the relationship between leaders' emotion and the evaluation of leaders. Van Kleef et al. (2009) demonstrated that effects of leader displays of happiness versus anger on team performance depend thoroughly on the followers' desire to understand a situation. In another study from McColl-Kennedy and Anderson (2002), frustration and optimism were found to have a direct and an opposite influence on performance measured as an objective individual's actual performance.

Finally, Bono and Ilies (2006) examining the association between the leaders' positive emotional expressions and the mood states of simulated followers found that mood contagion may be one of the psychological mechanisms by which charismatic leaders influence followers. In their study, there was found a positive link between leader emotions and followers' mood, while the leaders' positive emotional expressions and followers' mood influenced the ratings of leader effectiveness and attraction to the leader.

In summary, the understanding of affect, moods and emotions in the process of leadership has raised interesting and compelling findings. As Gooty et al. (2010) suggests further research in this area is necessary to clarify the role of emotion regulation, as leaders may not always display the emotions they actually feel. In addition, the association between individual characteristics, such as personality traits, emotional abilities, and self-regulation mechanisms may play an important role in understanding how leaders can manage other's emotions in a more effective way.

2.6.2. SOCIAL IDENTIFICATION

Hogg (2001) introduced the social identity theory of leadership, based on previous works of Tajfel (1974) on social identity. Social identity is regarded as a process by which people conceptualize themselves as belonging to a social group (i.e., a work team, organization or larger community), and this membership in the group becomes an important aspect of their identity. Social identities provide a “we-feeling” and a sense of belongingness with other members of the group (Hoyle et al., 1999). According to this theory, an individual identifies with a group when he perceives the similarities shared with the other group members, more than the differences (Lord et al., 1999; Ilies et al., 2005).

For Hogg (2001), social identity theory of leadership views leadership as a group process that is a function of increasing social identity through: (1) prototypicality (mental schemas of groups which are classified by their similarities or differences), (2) social attraction (followers agree and comply with the leader’s ideas and suggestions), and (3) identity salience (most influential member in the group emerges or endures as a leader). In this process, the social world is segmented into in-groups and out-groups that are stored in memory as prototypes. As group members are evaluated based on their similarity to the in-group prototype, they start to think and act more like the most prototypical member, who appears to be more influential in the group. Along with this process of increasing influence, the other members make internal attributions of leadership ability to the most salient member (Hogg, 2001).

Drawing on social identity theory and early works of Hogg (2001), Van Knippenberg and Hogg (2003) advanced with a social identity model of organizational leadership. In their model, leadership effectiveness is analyzed as a result of the leader’s

prototypicality concerning the group (i.e., the leader represents the group's identity), and the leader's engagement in group-oriented behavior (i.e., behavior perceived as benefiting the group as a whole). This model emphasizes the characteristics of the leader as a group member, and the leader's ability to speak to followers as group members as key aspects of leadership effectiveness (Van Knippenberg and Hogg, 2003). Therefore, the model identifies four processes through which more prototypical group members emerge as leaders and are perceived as more effective: (1) influence; (2) consensual social attraction; (3) attribution (e.g., charisma); and (4) trust.

Other research highlighted the importance of leader and follower identification processes as an important component of the leadership influence process in the new theories of leadership (e.g., Bass, 1985; Howell, 1988; Conger and Kanungo, 1994). Bono and Judge (2003) and Shamir and associates (Shamir et al., 1993, 2000; Kark and Shamir, 2002; Kark et al., 2003) have shown the importance of social and personal identification in the leadership process. Leaders affect the identities of followers in such a way, that they incorporate the role of the leader into their interpersonal identities, and hence follower identification process emerges when individuals become followers of a leader (Gardner and Avolio, 1998; Day, 2000; Lord and Brown, 2001). For example, Kark and colleagues (Kark and Shamir, 2002; Kark et al., 2003) found that transformational leaders are able to influence their followers by connecting with followers' self-concepts (self-identity) so that their values and beliefs become more similar to those of the leader. As posited by Van Knippenberg and Hogg (2003), group members identify the leader as prototypical of the group, which means that the leader embodies and represents the group's identity and values. This process enhances organizational identification, as the

follower's feelings of belongingness to the organization increases, and he or she acts according to the leader's expectation (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Van Knippenberg, 2000).

Van Knippenberg and Hogg's (2003) theory has been supported by experimental and survey research. Hains et al. (1997), in a study about the perceived leader effectiveness, found that when group membership was salient, people identified more strongly with the group and regarded the prototypical leader as more effective than the nonprototypical leader. Platow and Van Knippenberg (2001) have successfully replicated the findings that prototypicality becomes an increasingly influential basis for leadership as group membership becomes more salient. Also in a laboratory study, Duck and Fielding (1999) found prototypical leaders more strongly supported than nonprototypical leaders, and this effect was more pronounced as participants identified strongly with their own in-group. Finally, van Vugt and de Cremer (1999) in an experimental design found that when people strongly identify with a group that faced a social dilemma they prefer a leader who is prototypical, and perceive this leader as more effective.

Social identity theory of leadership seems promising in explaining how leaders can become prototypical members in a group, modeling the core values of the group, and being viewed as socially attractive and thus exerting influence in other group members. However, empirical support came primarily from laboratory groups or non-business environments and perceived measures of leadership effectiveness, instead of real groups in organizational settings and task-performance criteria. Thus, perceptions of leadership effectiveness should not be equated with evidence that the leader performed well in terms of objective measures (Lord and Maher, 1990). Still, there is a potential contribute which lies in the: (1) focus on group membership characteristics of the leader, and (2) focus on group identification and identity salience as moderators of leadership effectiveness

processes (Van Knippenberg and Hogg, 2003). In addition, the authors have called to integrate, not only with other perspectives on leadership effectiveness in organizations, but also with future development in leadership research, such as the role of values and emotions along the effectiveness process.

2.6.3. LEADERSHIP AND COLLECTIVE EFFICACY

Research based on leader self-efficacy has developed with a broader sense, suggesting that as leaders and followers interact they reciprocally influence each other's sense of efficacy (Hannah et al., 2008). For example, a follower's efficacy at critical times may encourage the leader to move forward, which in turn will foster the follower's efficacy, resulting in a spiral effect on the leader-follower dynamic (Hannah et al., 2008). This twofold effect serves as role modeling and source of social influence for the leader, and raises the collective efficacy of the group (Bandura, 1997, 2000). For Bandura (1997) collective efficacy is defined as a group's shared belief in its conjoint capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce specific levels of accomplishments. Collective efficacy develops through successful group interaction, but requires self-efficacy processes at the individual level (Bandura, 2000). Leaders and followers with high levels of self-efficacy display efficacious behaviors during group interactions, which will signal to each other that they will successfully accomplish group tasks. Thus, findings suggest that both leader and follower self-efficacies predict collective efficacy (Taggar and Seijts, 2003).

Leadership efficacy is a special case of collective efficacy inside the domain of leadership (Hannah et al., 2008). As this is a recent research stream, there is no consensual

definition among authors. Some have defined leadership efficacy as the leader's confidence judgment in his ability to carry out effectively the behaviors that are required by the leadership role (Chemers et al., 2000; Kane et al., 2002). For Paglis and Green (2002) the concept is defined as leaders' behaviors of setting a direction for the work group, building relationships with followers to gain their commitment to achieve goals, and overcome obstacles. Besides the lack of consensus, researchers also seemed to overlap the two different concepts of leader self-efficacy and leadership efficacy as clarified by Hannah et al. (2008). The first refers to the individual level, whereby leaders' belief in their perceived capabilities to organize their motivation, means, collective resources, and courses of action required to attain effective and sustainable performance. The second is a multi-level concept, which links leader, follower, collective efficacies, and all the interactions in-between.

Despite these constraints, Bandura's (1997) original concept of self-efficacy is intrinsically related to a task-specific capability judgment, and thus influenced by the performance context. Hence, an efficacious organizational climate or/and culture will enhance the development of leadership efficacy at the individual (micro) and collective (meso) levels, and finally will sustain higher organizational (macro) level of efficacy (Hannah et al., 2008). This influential process, where leaders and followers share a positive view of their capabilities to perform well, fosters an organizational culture that shapes and is shaped by the leadership efficacy over time (Hannah et al., 2008). Leaders can develop followers' learning efficacy through: (1) enacted mastery experiences; (2) vicarious learning/role modeling; (3) social persuasion; and (4) feedback (Hannah and Lester, 2009). In addition, self-regulating mechanisms interact with change-related sense making, interpretation, readiness and subsequent behavioral action towards change

management in organizations (Kuntz and Gomes, 2012).

Research has shown that leaders high in leadership efficacy achieve superior results both in terms of individual performance and in their ability to inspire followers to achieve higher levels of collective efficacy and performance (Paglis, 2010). For example, Hoyt et al. (2003) found that leadership efficacy was positively related to task efficacy and perceptions of collective efficacy by the leader. Leadership efficacy predicted collective efficacy judgments of leaders, which in turn predicted follower collective efficacy judgments. Finally, follower collective efficacy judgments were positively related to group performance. Taggar and Seijts (2003) in a laboratory study found that leadership efficacy was significantly correlated with both leader behaviors and collective efficacy, and collective efficacy was significantly related to team performance outcomes. Leader and follower efficacies interact to predict collective efficacy. Watson et al. (2001) found that leadership efficacy and the average efficacy of the team were correlated with collective efficacy. Individual self-efficacy was significantly related to objective individual performance while collective efficacy was significantly related to objective group performance. Anderson et al. (2008) using a taxonomic structure of leadership efficacy, found this construct to be related to the multi-dimensional measure of leadership effectiveness. Other literature also successfully linked collective efficacy with group performance outcomes (Peterson et al., 2000; Chen et al., 2002; Gully et al., 2002; Katz-Navon and Erez, 2005).

Other studies examined the mediator role of leadership efficacy. Chan and Drasgow (2001) found that leadership efficacy was a mediator between individual differences, including the Big Five traits, and managers' motivation to lead. Another study from Hendricks and Payne (2007) found that leadership efficacy partly mediated

the relationship between individuals' learning goal orientation and their motivation to lead. In addition, Ng et al. (2008) found support for the mediating role of leadership efficacy between traits like extraversion, conscientiousness and neuroticism, and leadership effectiveness. In addition, research has shown that collective efficacy is a mediator between leadership style and performance (Sivasubramaniam et al., 2002; Walumbwa et al., 2004; Ross and Gray, 2006).

The concept of leadership and collective efficacy has a great potential for the leadership theory, especially considering that effective leadership requires high levels of agency (i.e., deliberately exerts positive influence) and confidence (Hannah et al., 2008). Leadership efficacy may be regarded as a cycle of positive development, which will create an upward spiral of collective efficacy and sustainable performance impact in organizational settings (Hannah et al., 2008).

2.7. ORGANIZATIONAL CONTEXT

Researchers have considerably underestimated context in studies of leadership. Several authors have overemphasized dispositional causes such as traits and behavior over situational causes (Johns, 2006). It seems that scholars have the tendency to forget that leadership interactions occur in a dynamic and evolving context, and thus should incorporate situational or contextual factors in their predictions of leadership effectiveness (House and Aditya, 1997; Day, 2000; Avolio, 2005). As well stated by Perrow (1970, p. 6) "leadership style is a dependent variable which depends on something else", and by J. W. Gardner (1993, p. 1) "[leaders] are an integral part of the system, subject to the forces that affect the system... In the process leaders shape and are shaped".

Other authors have referred to the interaction between leadership and context. For example, Pettigrew and Whipp (1991, p. 6) posit that “leadership is acutely context sensitive... The zones of *manœuvre* open to the new leader in deciding what to change and how to go about it are bounded by the context within and outside the firm”. In addition, Leavy and Wilson (1994) explicitly draw out the importance of contextual factors for leaders and the exercise of leadership, and Antonakis et al. (2004) believe that it is crucial to understand the contextual factors in which leadership is embedded before it can be obtained a more general understanding of leadership. Hence, Johns (2006) has called for additional studies to report how context affects organizational behavior for a number of reasons, for instance: (1) researchers need to understand the situation first, if they want to understand person-situation interactions, and (2) there are still no taxonomies developed for situational or contextual factors.

Cappelli and Sherer (1991, p. 56) defined context as “the surroundings associated with phenomena which help to illuminate that phenomena, typically factors associated with units of analysis above those expressly under investigation”. Thus, they describe organizational characteristics as providing context for individual members and the external environment as providing context for organizations. Mowday and Sutton (1993, p. 198) characterize context as “stimuli and phenomena that surround and thus exist in the environment external to the individual, most often at a different level of analysis”. For Antonakis et al. (2004), contextual factors can include leader hierarchical level, national culture, leader-follower gender, and organizational characteristics, among others.

Johns (2006, p. 386) proposed a more comprehensive definition of context “as situational opportunities and constraints that affect the occurrence and meaning of organizational behavior as well as the functional relationships between variables. Context

can serve as a main effect or interaction with personal variables such as the disposition to affect organizational behavior”. The author proposes two levels of analysis for thinking about context — one grounded in journalistic practice and the other in classic social psychology — the omnibus context (the context broadly considered), and the discrete context or situation (particular contextual variables that shape behavior or attitudes). Discrete context is included within the omnibus context, and may apply to any level of analysis, from individuals to industries. Omnibus context has four dimensions: occupation (who?), location (where?), time (when?) and rationale (why?). Discrete context has three dimensions: task (e.g., autonomy, uncertainty, resources), social (e.g., social density, social structure, social influence), and physical (e.g., temperature, light, built environment, décor).

One of the first models in leadership research that has included situational factors was Fiedler’s (1964, 1971) contingency model of leadership effectiveness. This is an interactionist model where leadership effectiveness is based on two main factors: (1) a leader’s attribute, referring to task or relationship motivational orientation—formerly referred to as style; and (2) a leader’s situational control—formerly referred to as situational favorability (Fiedler, 1964, 1971). The model provides evidence that leaders who have a task motivational orientation compared to those who have a relationship orientation will be more successful in high and low-control situations, while relationship oriented leaders when compared to task-oriented leaders will be more effective in moderate control situations (Fiedler, 1978). Most studies based on the contingency model classify leadership situations into three dimensions: (1) leader-member relations – leaders will have more power and influence if they have a good relationship with members, and are liked, respected, and trusted than if they do not; (2) task structure – tasks or

assignments that are highly structured, explicit, or programmed give the leader more influence than tasks that are vague, nebulous, and unstructured; and (3) position power – leaders will have more power and influence if their position allows them to reward and punish, hire and fire, than if they do not have this power (Fiedler, 1972). Despite the criticisms since its inception (e.g., Graen et al., 1971; Schriesheim and Kerr, 1977; Vecchio, 1977; Strube and Garcia, 1981; Peters et al., 1985), this model was used in more than 200 empirical studies, and was well supported by the overall results (Ayman et al., 1995).

A few other studies on leadership have included contextual factors, such as the GLOBE study (Den Hartog et al., 1999; Javidan and House, 2001), which has associated national culture with leadership. The GLOBE study indicates that considerable variance in leader prototypes exists across cultures. Based on this study, Gardner et al. (2009) posited that leaders from cultures that score high versus low on the humanistic orientation would be expected to display greater concern for the well-being of the employees. Similarly, leaders from cultures that rank high on assertiveness will be expected to be forceful and competitive during negotiations, whereas cultures that rank low on assertiveness would expect leaders to show a higher propensity to cooperate. As such, components of the omnibus context relevant to leader emotional labor include national culture, organizational culture, industry and occupation, organizational structure, and time.

Osborn et al. (2002) analyzed leadership in four contexts: stability, crisis, dynamic equilibrium, and the edge of chaos. They assume that volatility and complexity are keys to characterize the context. Many leadership studies consider a relative stability context. Crisis is a situation that threatens high priority goals, which suddenly occurs with little

and no response time available. The demands are intense with multiple time and resource constraints where the leaders need to isolate and capitalize on opportunities. Osborn et al. (2002) analysis reinforces a key point — a change in the context changes leaders, leadership and leadership effectiveness. Some organizations competing in rapidly changing environments, the so-called high tech industries, do not look like their bureaucratic counterparts in more stable traditional industries. Therefore, the authors look at these systems at “the edge of chaos”. As the boundary conditions for contexts change, the authors suggest that the important aspects of leadership change—leadership shifts as the context shifts.

These findings encourage researchers to reconsider causal relations, units of analysis, and dependent variables compatible with the social construction of human action within a given context, to develop models that are more robust, and improve leadership understanding. In this study, it will be conducted an analysis of contextual factors on leadership effectiveness categorized in: (1) internal context — organizational culture, and (2) external context — national culture, and industry considering a crisis.

2.7.1. INTERNAL CONTEXT — ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

Schein (1984) defined organizational culture as a pattern of basic assumptions and beliefs that are shared by members of an organization to cope with its changing demands of the external environment (adaptation), as well as the maintenance of processes that ensure functional relationships within the organization (integration). Culture can be seen as the accumulated shared learning of a given group, covering behavioral, emotional, and cognitive elements of the group members. For this process to occur, there must be a

history of shared experience, stability of membership in the group, consistency, and meaning to form a pattern (Schein, 2010).

According to Schein and other authors (Gudykunst and Ting-Toomey, 1988; Hatch, 1993; Trice and Beyer, 1993), several categories are used to describe culture: (1) observed behavioral regularities when people interact (language, customs, traditions, and rituals), (2) group norms (standards and values), (3) espoused values (the publicly announced principles and values that the group claims to be trying to achieve), (4) formal philosophy (policies and ideological principles that guide a group's action toward stakeholders), (5) rules of the game (the implicit rules for getting along in the organization), (6) climate (the feeling conveyed in a group by the physical layout, and way in which members of the organization interact with each other and with others), (7) embedded skills (the special competencies displayed by group members in accomplishing certain tasks, that are passed on from generation to generation), (8) habits of thinking, mental models, and linguistic paradigms (shared cognitive frames that guide the perceptions, thought and language used by the group members), (9) shared meanings (the emergent understandings created by group members as they interact with each other), (10) "root metaphors" or integrating symbols (the ways in which groups evolve to characterize themselves, that become embodied in buildings, office layout, and other material artifacts of the group), and (11) formal rituals and celebrations (the ways in which a group celebrates key events that reflect important values).

All these elements are common to a group of people, and distinguishable from other groups. Hence, there is ample variance in organizational cultures within industries as these unique and shared elements emerge and become dominant (Schein, 1991; Martin, 2002). Industry-level variables including the competitive environment, customer

requirements, and societal expectations also serve as important determinants of organizational culture, including the emotional display rules associated with certain occupations and roles (Gordon, 1991).

Research has examined organizational culture as a dynamic process. For example, Hatch (1993) drawing from the symbolic-interpretative perspectives, described culture as a process of manifestation, realization, symbolization and interpretation, providing a framework within which to discuss the dynamism of organizational cultures. Other researchers have examined the relationship between leadership and culture. For example, Cunha (2002) using a case study examined how the interplay between culture, structure, and leadership is managed in order to build control and employee loyalty.

On one hand, researchers claim that leadership creates an environment in which fundamental organizational change is more or less likely to occur (e.g., Brooks, 1996; Hennessey, 1998). Leadership involves the management of people and the development of a sense of community within the organization (Brown, 1992; Conger, 1993). As such, leaders have a major impact on cultural development, through the reinforcement of norms and modeling behaviors, guiding others by the same values and beliefs, which create the basis for concerted collective action and a predominant mode of control in the organization (Kunda, 1982; Bass and Avolio, 1993; Shamir and Howell, 1999). In addition, the founders of a company have an important role in shaping the culture of the organization, as it reflects its own values and beliefs. Thus, founders and leaders are the primary source, transmitters, and maintainers of organizational culture (Davies, 1984). For example, transformational leaders change their culture by first understanding it and then realign the organization's culture with a new vision and a revision of its shared assumptions, values and norms (Bass, 1985; Bass and Avolio, 1993). On the other hand,

researchers posit that cultural context conditions the group members' actions, beliefs and values, and has an impact on the emergence of specific leadership styles (e.g., Biggart and Hamilton, 1987; Pillai and Meindl, 1998). Contextual factors, such as norms, legitimating principles, and historical legacies have an important influence on the leadership setting (Bryman, 1996). For example, transactional leaders work within their organizational cultures following existing rules, procedures, and norms (Bass, 1985; Bass and Avolio, 1993). The perspective of adaptive and non-adaptive cultures introduced by Kotter and Heskett (1992) suggests another example. Adaptive cultures that are characterized by common values and ways of behaving that emphasize innovation, risk taking, transparent communication, integrity, teamwork, and enthusiasm, will tend to allow for the emergence of charismatic leadership more than non-adaptive cultures that stress order and efficiency, and are averse to risk-taking, innovation, and change (Kotter and Heskett, 1992; Waldman and Yammarino, 1999). In short, organizational culture and leadership are two sides of the same coin, and neither can be really understood by itself, as there is a constant interplay between them (Bass and Avolio, 1993; Schein, 2004).

The importance of organizational culture has also been emphasized among practitioners. Goldman Sachs' executive director Greg Smith, when resigned alleged that the trajectory of Goldman's culture has taken a catastrophic nosedive with serious implications on business:

The culture was the secret sauce that made this place great and allowed us to earn our clients' trust for 143 years. It was not just about making money; this alone will not sustain a firm for so long. It had something to do with pride and belief in the organization. I am sad to say that I look around today and see virtually no trace of the culture that made me love working for this

firm for many years. I no longer have the pride, or the belief.

In Financial Times (2012)

Besides this relationship between organizational culture and leadership, researchers have also examined the importance of culture for leadership effectiveness. Some authors have argued that organizational culture works as a mediating variable between leadership and firm performance (e.g., Ogbonna and Harris, 2000). Others refer to their moderating impact on leadership behaviors and processes, ultimately affecting leadership outcomes (e.g., Kim et al., 2004). Either way, the development and expression of culture and organizational identity is likely to increase in importance for effective leadership (Bass and Avolio, 1993; George, 2000). For example, Avolio and Gardner (2005) propose that culture environments that provide open access to information, resources, support, and equal opportunity for everyone to learn and develop will empower and enable leaders and their associates to accomplish their work more effectively. Organizational cultures more inclusive enable the learning and development process of the group members, and increase their effectiveness (Luthans and Avolio, 2003; Gardner et al., 2005). Thus, leadership and organizational culture are central explanatory constructs for organizational performance (Burke and Litwin, 1992; Schein, 1996).

2.7.2. EXTERNAL CONTEXT — NATIONAL CULTURE AND ECONOMIC CRISIS

According to the GLOBE study of national culture and leadership, Portugal is included in the Latin Europe cluster along with other countries such as Israel, Italy,

Switzerland, Spain and France (House et al., 2004). These countries exhibit scores more moderate on the cultural dimensions of: (1) assertiveness orientation, (2) future orientation, (3) gender egalitarianism, (4) in-group orientation, (5) performance orientation, (6) power distance, and (7) uncertainty avoidance; and lower scores on (8) humane orientation, and (9) institutional collectivism. Thus, these countries are characterized by valuing individual autonomy, and putting less value on the greater social collective. Individuals are encouraged to take care of themselves, and to pursue individual rather than collective goals. In respect to leadership, this cultural orientation appreciates charismatic, value-based, team oriented, participative, and self-protective, but not highly compassionate style of leadership.

Along with national culture, environmental volatility and complexity are also important determinants of the leadership style. In a global marketplace featured by uncertainty, turbulent environments, technological complexity, geopolitical instability, and social diversity, organizations find their competitive edge in the development of more flexible, high involvement work cultures, and in the creation of a new kind of leadership that can cope with ongoing innovation and adaptation (Schein, 1984; Shamir and Howell, 1999; Vandenberg et al., 1999).

Research studies suggest that crisis itself provides the leaders with a powerful, often dominating causal mechanism, as they must convince others that change is necessary to deal with the crisis, as the aura of impending doom and the immediate pressure to improve or perish is real (Hunt and Ropo, 1997; Pettigrew and Fenton, 2000; Pettigrew et al., 2001). These studies describe the leaders' actions that take considerable time and energy to be devoted to what needs to be done and who should be involved. These actions are not always steady, smooth and consistently directed toward a clear

objective, sometimes they may appear erratic, halting, and incomplete as leaders stumble toward what they hope is at least a slightly better future, but patterns do seem to emerge (Osborn et al., 2002). According to Mischel's (1973) classification, uncertainty or a crisis is a weak situation due to the lack of a clear understanding of the meaning and its implication. In this context, leaders can rise to the occasion, exercise discretion and provide guidance to the organization. In contrast, strong situations where members of the organization share a common understanding about appropriate behavior, patterns of reward and punishments, the actions of leaders are likely to be accepted (Davis-Blake and Pfeffer, 1989).

As explained by Davis-Blake and Pfeffer (1989), in a crisis, leaders may select inappropriate outcomes, processes or influence patterns. These choices do not appear to have an immediate and direct effect on the criteria, but instead seem to be part of a cycle that allows the system to cope. If continued over time, a successful combination of processes and leadership may induce a virtuous cycle yielding improvement. Conversely, inconsistency or an unsuccessful combination seems to yield a vicious cycle where problems mount and accomplishment on the very criteria specified by the crisis itself deteriorates over time. The gaps between actual and desired conditions are partially defined by leaders. Consistency among leaders at any time and across time may be particularly critical as they attempt to manage the context. Above all, it is the leadership patterning across time, not at any one time, which seems to alter the trajectory of the system. Besides this choice of patterns, other important aspects of leadership in a crisis are the leader's affect, emotional support, patterning of attention and network development.

For example, Shamir and Howell (1999) argue that charismatic leaders are more

likely to emerge and be effective in organizational environments characterized by a high degree of change or by greater opportunities for change than in stable environments that offer few opportunities for change. In a crisis, special conditions arise, such as a strong orientation need on the part of the follower and organizational requirements for additional effort and commitment from their members. Followers require new interpretations, novel responses, and different levels of effort and investment. The charismatic leader's vision often brings to the followers' attention the existence of new opportunities for change, infuses them with hope and faith regarding that change, and mobilizes their energy to single minded devoted themselves to the vision. Such followers' commitment may enable organizations to respond quickly and effectively to environmental shifts and changes. In addition, Bass and Avolio (1990a) suggested that transformational leaders are more likely to find acceptance in organizations facing rapidly changing technologies and markets than in organizations operating under routine and stable conditions.

2.8. CONCLUSION

This Chapter has presented the background to the current study by firstly identifying the key concepts under investigation. In essence, the understanding of the main components of leadership effectiveness advocated in this thesis elicit the main dimensions to be covered on the subsequent research studies. Furthermore, the historical review of the key literature on leadership demonstrates the existence of several components and their association to leadership outcomes. Notably, components highlighted in this literature review include personal abilities and learning experiences as major antecedents of leadership, self-regulation mechanisms, effective leadership behavioral orientations, leadership processes based on affection, social identification, and

efficacy, and organizational contextual variables.

CHAPTER 3 – RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

Differences in paradigm assumptions have important consequences at the practical level, namely for the selection of the methodology to follow in a particular study, as well as for the interpretation of findings. So far, quantitative methodologies have been predominant in leadership research following the main influence of management, psychology, and marketing research fields. However, recent recommendations from the academic community encourage leadership researchers to draw on mixed methodologies to improve significantly the understanding and explanation factors of this complex social process.

This Chapter starts with an overview of the research paradigms in the social sciences with a special focus on mixed methods research. Then, the researcher's pragmatic philosophical stance is introduced to support the use of mixed methods in this study. The section on research strategy and design details the main steps followed in mixed methods research, specifying the goal, objectives, rationale, purpose, and research questions that drive the qualitative and quantitative studies. The Chapter finishes with a description and visual model of the sequential exploratory design employed.

3.2. RESEARCH PARADIGMS IN SOCIAL SCIENCES

Research paradigms can be interpreted as worldviews or as a set of beliefs that underpin an individual's understanding of the world and their place and relationship within in (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). As such, a paradigm represents a consensus across the relevant scientific community about the theoretical and methodological rules to be

followed, the instruments to be used, and the problems to be investigated, and the standards by which research is to be judged (Marshall and Rossman, 2006). Inquiry paradigms can be revealed by the researcher's responses to the following three questions. First, the ontological question—what is the form and nature of reality, and therefore what can be known about it? Second, the epistemological question—what is the nature of the relationship between the inquirer, and what can be known? Third, the methodological question—how can the inquirer go about finding whatever he or she believes can be known? (Guba and Lincoln, 1994).

According to Guba and Lincoln (1994), there are four main paradigms of knowledge: (1) positivism, (2) postpositivism, (3) critical theory, and (4) constructivism. For these authors, positivism denotes the “received view” that has dominated research in the physical and social sciences for the last 400 years. Specifically, the positivist approach seeks large quantities of data with the intent to make generalizations. While maintaining the same core beliefs, postpositivism represents the efforts in the last years to respond to the main criticisms of positivism (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Critical theory represents a set of several alternative paradigms with a value-determined nature of inquiry. Finally, constructivism denotes an alternative paradigm whose basic assumption is the shift from ontological realism to relativism, with the purpose to get inside individuals and institutions to understand situations and people. Hereby, we will focus on the two main paradigms, which are the positivism and the constructivism. These two approaches are compared in Table 3-1 in terms of: (1) ontology, (2) epistemology, (3) methodology, (4) axiology, and (5) purpose.

Table 3-1 Research Paradigms in Social Sciences

	Positivism	Constructivism
Ontology	Naïve realism – “real” reality, but apprehensible Causal relationships	Relativism – local and specific constructed realities Phenomenological, multiple realities
Epistemology	Dualist/Objectivist Findings True	Transactional/Subjectivist Created Findings
Methodology	Experimental/Manipulative Verification of Hypotheses Quantitative Methods	Hermeneutical/Dialectical Qualitative Methods
Axiology	Extrinsic, Value-free	Intrinsic, Value-laden
Purpose	Scientific Explanation, Prediction and Control	Understanding the Meaning, Reconstruction

Source: Adopted from Guba and Lincoln (1994), Phillimore and Goodson (2004), Zahra and Ryan (2005).

Both views are at opposite ends of the research paradigm spectrum. The dominant approach during the first half of the 20th century was quantitative methods and the positivist paradigm. During the 1950-1970 period, post positivism emerged, sharing the same ontological view, but also recognizes some of the criticisms leveled at positivism (e.g., being context-less), and address them by conducting research in more naturalistic settings, often combining quantitative with qualitative methods. Qualitative research movement (e.g., Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Phillimore and Goodson, 2004) raise fierce criticisms to the positivism orientation (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003). For example,

Guba and Lincoln (1994, p. 106) believe that “human behavior, unlike that of physical objects, cannot be understood without reference to the meanings and purposes attached by human actors to their activities”. Moreover, Phillimore and Goodson (2004) raise the necessity to embrace a more creative and artistic approach to research, acknowledging the interactive and cooperative nature of the relationship between the interviewer and the subjects being investigated.

According to Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003), the field of mixed methodology also called the “third methodological movement” evolved because of these controversial discussions as a pragmatic way to use the strengths of both approaches. Thus, pragmatists: (1) accept external reality and choose explanations that best produce desirable outcomes as the ontological perspective; (2) may be both subjective and objective in epistemological view; (3) use qualitative or/and quantitative methods depending on the research questions; (4) consider that values play an important role in interpreting results; and (5) embrace plurality of methods based on the assumption that knowledge claims cannot be totally separated from contingent beliefs, interests and projects.

3.3. MIXED METHODS RESEARCH AND DESIGN

Pragmatism has been proposed as the foundation for justifying the use of mixed methods research (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003). A broad definition of mixed methods research is presented:

Mixed methods research is the type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g., use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints,

data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the purpose of breadth of understanding or corroboration.

In Johnson et al. (2007), p. 123.

According to Newman et al. (2003), mixed methods research enables social science researchers to approach questions of interest using multiple ways. These authors labeled this model as the qualitative-quantitative interactive continuum, whereby a researcher's initial entry point is based on whether they are primarily interested in confirming the theory (QUAN-oriented), generating theory (QUAL-oriented), or both (MM-oriented).

Recently, Tashakkori and Teddlie (2010) summarized some of the most relevant characteristics of mixed methods research: (1) methodological eclecticism—select and integrate the most appropriate techniques from a myriad of QUAL, QUAN and mixed method to more thoroughly investigate a phenomenon of interest; (2) paradigm pluralism—based on the belief that a variety of paradigms may serve as the underlying philosophy for the use of mixed methods; (3) emphasis on diversity at all levels of the research enterprise from the broader, more conceptual dimensions to the narrower, more empirical ones; and (4) emphasis on continua rather than a set of dichotomies—a range of options from across the methodological spectrum; (5) iterative, cyclical approach to research—includes both deductive and inductive logic in the same study; (6) focus on the research question (research problem) in determining the methods employed within any given study; (7) a set of basic “signature” research designs and analytical processes which are commonly agreed upon, although they go by different names and diagrammatic

illustrations; (8) tendency toward balance and compromise that is implicit within the “third methodological community”; and (9) reliance on visual representations (e.g., figures, diagrams) and a common notational system—mixed methods designs, data collection procedures, and analytical techniques lend themselves to visual representations.

Hence, mixed methods design represents the incorporation of various qualitative or quantitative strategies within a single project that may have an inductive or deductive theoretical drive (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003). The most common combinations are represented in Table 3-2.

Table 3-2 Types of Mixed Methods Design

Theoretical drive	Combinations	Explanation
Inductive	QUAL + qual	Two qualitative methods used simultaneously, one of which is dominant.
	QUAL → qual	Two qualitative methods used sequentially, one of which is dominant.
	QUAL + quan	Qualitative and quantitative method used simultaneously with an inductive thrust.
	QUAL → quan	Qualitative and a quantitative method used sequentially with an inductive thrust.
Deductive	QUAN + quan	Two quantitative methods used simultaneously, one of which is dominant.
	QUAN → quan	Two quantitative methods used sequentially, one of which is dominant.
	QUAN + qual	Quantitative and a qualitative method used simultaneously with a deductive thrust.
	QUAN → qual	Quantitative and a qualitative method used sequentially with a deductive thrust.

The combination of the above research methods, acts as a form of triangulation for mixed methods design. The results of two rigorous scientific studies provide a more comprehensive picture of the overall results than either study could do alone (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003).

3.4. RESEARCH DESIGN APPROACHES

3.4.1. QUALITATIVE RESEARCH APPROACH

Qualitative research has been used as a broad category that covers a wide range of approaches and diversity of methods (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003). Due to this vast nature of qualitative research, some researchers have defined it as a general term for non-quantitative research methods referring to “any type of research that produces findings not arrived at by any statistical procedures or other means of quantification” (Strauss and Corbin, 1998, p. 10-11). Others tried to capture the true essence of qualitative research, providing a more comprehensive definition:

Qualitative research is a situated activity that locates the observer in the world. It consists of a set of interpretative, material practices that makes the world visible. These practices transform the world. They turn the world into a series of representations, including field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings, and memos to the self. At this level, qualitative research involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them.

In Denzin and Lincoln (2005), p. 3.

Some researchers have focused on key elements that characterize qualitative research, such as: (1) takes place in the natural setting (home, office) of the participant; (2) uses multiple methods that are interactive and humane; (3) is emergent rather than

tightly prefigured; (4) is fundamentally interpretive; (5) the researcher views social phenomena holistically; and (6) the researcher develops introspective practice (Creswell, 2003; Rossman and Rallis, 2011).

According to Maxwell (2008), qualitative studies are best suitable for researchers aiming to: (1) understand the participants' perspective of the events, situations, experiences, and actions where they are involved with or engaged in; (2) understand the particular context within which the participants act, and the influence that this context has on their actions; (3) identify unanticipated phenomena and influences, and generating newly grounded theories; (4) understand the process by which events and actions take place; and (5) develop causal explanations as argued by Miles and Huberman (1984, p. 132) "much recent research supports a claim that we wish to make here: that field research is far better than solely quantified approaches at developing explanations of what we call local causality—the actual events and processes that led to specific outcomes."

There are five traditions or strategies of inquiry that can be followed by qualitative researchers such as narrative, phenomenology, ethnography, case study, and grounded theory (Creswell, 2003). The data collection instruments can be unstructured or semi-structured observations, documents and interviews, and audiovisual materials. Creswell (2003) recommends the following procedures for data collection: (1) identify the purposefully selected participants or sites; (2) indicate the type of data to be collected; (3) specify the strengths and weaknesses of the type of data selected; and (4) include data collection types that go beyond typical observations and interviews (e.g., read biographies, examine photographs or videotapes, examine possessions or ritual objects during interviews, collect smells, or sensations during the interaction).

Interviews are one of the instruments mostly used by qualitative researchers. In this case, the researcher may conduct face-to-face interviews with participants or by phone. These interviews usually have unstructured or open-ended questions that are few in number and intended to collect views from participants regarding a specific topic (Creswell, 2003). A qualitative researcher should follow some specific procedures for recording data, such as: (1) use an interview protocol for recording information during the interview (main components: heading, instructions to the interviewer, the key research questions, probes to follow key questions, transitions messages to the interviewer, space for the interviewer's comments and reflective notes); (2) use handwritten notes, audio taping, or videotaping; and (3) use the recording of documents and visual materials.

Data analysis and interpretation is a very important stage of the qualitative research process. It involves the preparation of data for analysis, understanding and representing data, and assuming an interpretation of the broader meaning of data. Creswell (2003) recommends the following generic steps: (1) to organize and prepare the data for analysis (e.g., transcribe interviews, scanning material, typing field notes); (2) to read through all the data (e.g., obtain a meaning from the information collected to reflect upon); (3) to start detailed analysis with a coding process (e.g., organize the material into categories, and labeling those categories with a term); (4) to use the coding process to generate a description of the setting/people as well as categories or themes for analysis; (5) to advance how the description and themes will be represented in the qualitative narrative (e.g., to use a narrative passage to communicate the findings of the analysis); and (6) to make an interpretation or meaning of the data (e.g., the researcher's personal interpretation, a meaning derived from a comparison of the findings with information from the literatures or extant theories).

3.4.2. QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH APPROACH

Quantitative research is based on the collection of considerable data from representative samples of a larger population for a parsimonious set of variables. The supporting evidence is based upon controlled observations or measurements on selected representatives of the whole population (Black, 1999). Thus, the purpose of quantitative research is to generalize from a sample to a population so that inferences can be made about characteristics, attitudes, or behaviors of this population (Babbie, 1990; Creswell, 2003). Quantitative researchers seek scientific explanations using this method to (1) develop the understanding of causal relations, (2) describe group tendencies, and (3) to determine whether the predictive generalization of a theory holds true.

Usually, quantitative researchers use surveys and experiments as data collection instruments. A survey design provides a quantitative description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a representative sample, with the aim of generalizing about the whole population. In an experiment, the researcher may also identify a sample and generalize to a population; thought with the aim of testing the impact of a treatment/intervention on an outcome, controlling for all the other factors that might influence that outcome (Creswell, 2003).

Surveys are widely used by quantitative researchers, including the following types: self-administered questionnaires, structured interviews by telephone or face-to-face, structured reviews to collect information, and structured observations (Fink, 1995). Recently, researchers started to use web-based or internet survey and administering it online (Nesbary, 2000). Creswell (2003) recommends the following procedures for data collection: (1) identify the purpose of survey research; (2) indicate why a survey is the preferred type of data collection for the study; (3) indicate whether the study will be cross-

sectional or longitudinal; (4) specify the form of data collection stressing its strengths and weaknesses. A researcher should characterize the population and the sampling procedures as follows: (1) identify the population in the study; (2) identify if the sampling design is single or multistage/clustering; (3) identify the selection process for individuals; (4) identify if the study will involve stratification of the population before selecting the sample; (5) discuss the procedures for selecting the samples from available lists; and (6) indicate the number of people in the sample and the procedures used to compute this number.

In addition, according to Creswell (2003), a quantitative researcher should provide detailed information about the survey instrument to be used in the study, such as indicate the name of the survey instrument, mention if it is a new developed instrument for the study, a modified instrument with respective permission of the author, or an intact instrument from another author. In the case of using an existing instrument, the researcher should mention validity and reliability of this instrument in other studies. A survey instrument has the following major sections: the cover letter, the survey items, and the closing instructions. Furthermore, the researcher should design a pilot test for the survey instrument. Dillman (2007) suggests a five-step administration process for mailed surveys to increase the response rate: (1) first mail out is a short pre-notice letter to all members of the sample; (2) second mail-out is the actual mail survey, distributed about 1 week after the first one that includes a detailed cover letter explaining why a response is important; (3) third mail-out is a thank you postcard follow-up sent to all members of the sample 4 to 8 days after the initial questionnaire, expressing appreciation for responding; (4) fourth mail-out consists of a personalized cover letter with a handwritten signature, questionnaire, and a pre-addressed return envelope with postage sent to all

nonrespondents 2-4 weeks after the second mail-out; and finally (5) a final contact made by telephone a week or so after the fourth contact.

At last, Creswell (2003) recommends the following steps for data analysis: (1) report information about the number of respondents and no respondents, (2) discuss the method by which response bias will be determined, (3) discuss a plan to provide a description analysis of data for all independent and dependent variables in the study (means, standard deviations, and range of scores), (4) identify the statistical procedures for developing scales and mention reliability checks for the internal consistency of the scales, and (5) identify the statistics and the statistical computer program for testing the major questions or hypotheses.

3.5. RESEARCH STRATEGY AND DESIGN FOR THIS STUDY

As previously mentioned, pragmatism can be used as a way to examine phenomena within the social sciences and their fit to particular methods of resolution (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003). By combining the perspectives of both positivism and constructivism paradigms in terms of methods of inquiry, an increasing number of researchers are assuming this position in conducting their research studies. Accordingly, this research assumes a pragmatic philosophical stance for a number of reasons: (1) to rely on a paradigm that supports the use of mixed methods, (2) to consider the research questions more important than the method or the paradigm, (3) to reach a position that embraces both viewpoints of positivism and constructivism, and (4) to avoid endless discussions on metaphysical concepts.

Following Collins et al. (2006) mixed methods research conceptualization, in 13 distinct steps (Figure 3-1), we have considered among the several alternatives:

- (1) Determining the goal of the study – to understand complex phenomena and then generate and test new ideas.
- (2) Formulating the research objectives – explanation in order to develop a theory for the purpose to elucidate relationships among concepts and determine reasons for the occurrence of events.
- (3) Determining the research rationale – significance enhancement (i.e., mixing quantitative and qualitative methods in order to maximize researchers' interpretations of data).
- (4) Determining the research purpose – development (i.e., using the results from one method to help inform the other method).
- (5) Determining the research questions – in a mixed methods research, the research questions give direction and focus for each phase of the study. Thus, for this study, we have the following research questions:

RQ 1 – What are the main components of leadership effectiveness?

RQ 2 – What is the impact of the organizational context on leadership effectiveness?

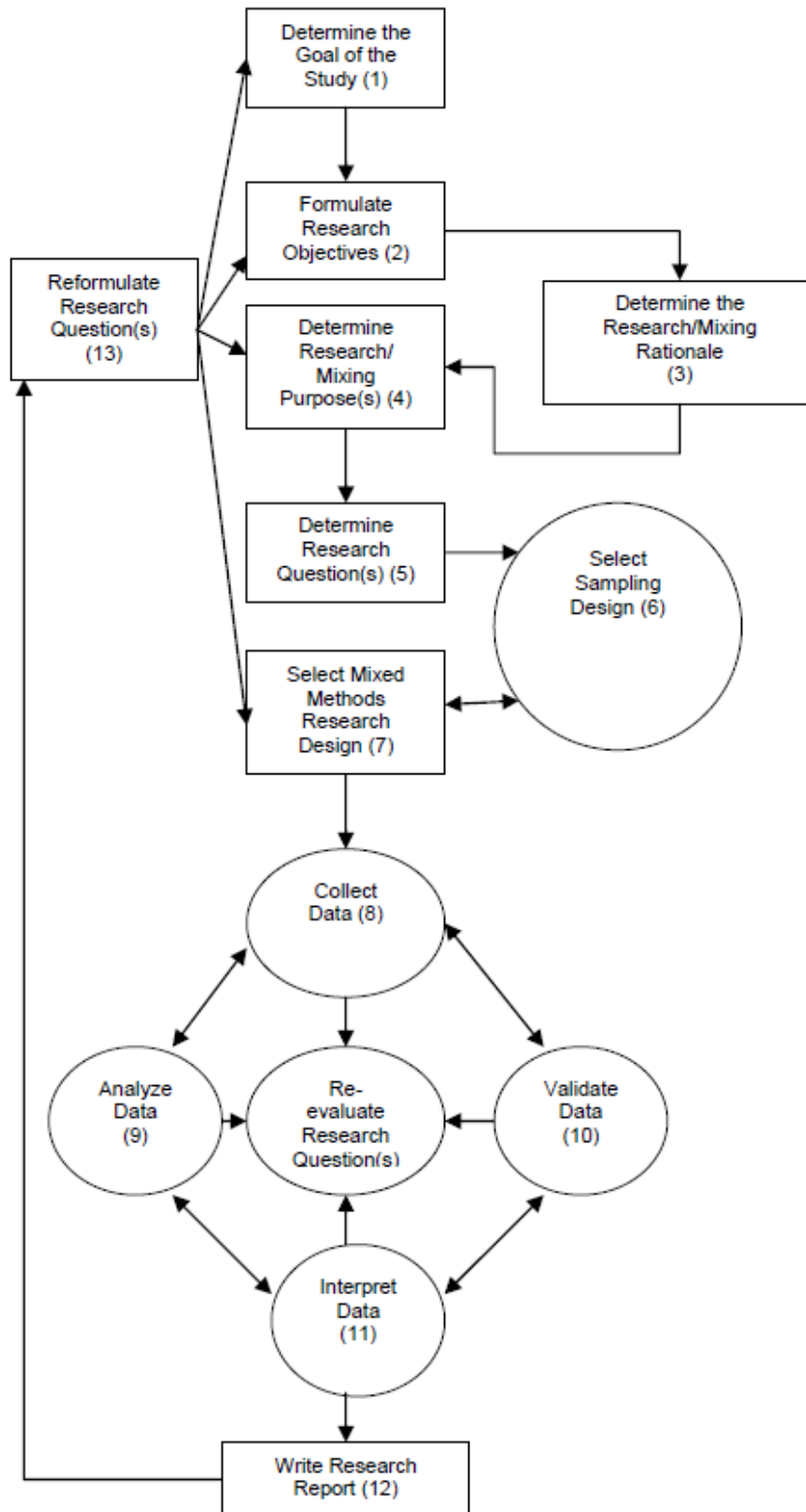
RQ 3 – What are the measures used to assess leadership effectiveness?

RQ 4 – What is the model of leadership effectiveness that can be used to explain organizational effectiveness?

RQ 5 – What is the relationship between contextual factors and organizational effectiveness?

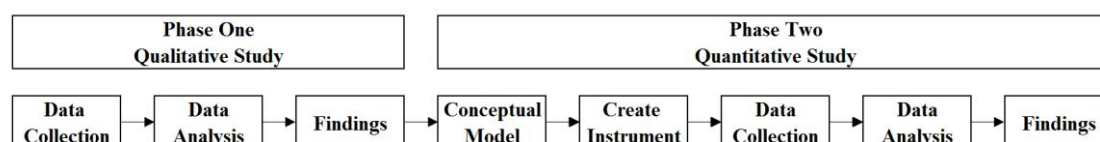
The other steps referred by the authors will be somehow addressed in this Section, and most appropriately in Chapters 4 and 6.

Figure 3-1 Steps in Mixed Methods Research Process adapted from Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2006)



Regarding the research design for this study, we will have a two-phase sequential exploratory strategy with the priority given to the first one (Figure 3-2). First, it will be conducted a qualitative study to provide the researcher with meaningful insights and enhance the understanding of leadership processes followed by a quantitative study to confirm the main findings of the exploratory stage (QUAL → quan research design). Many scholars from the leadership field affirmed an increasing importance of mixed methods approach to improve the knowledge and understanding of this social process inside the organizations (Gordon and Yukl, 2004; Avolio et al., 2009; Gardner et al., 2010).

Figure 3-2 Mixed Method Research Approach for Leadership Effectiveness



PHASE ONE – Qualitative Research

Qualitative research is still recent and emerging in the field of leadership (Bryman et al., 1996; Conger, 1998). In this study, qualitative methodology is appropriate because the leadership process is complex and dynamic, and leadership is likely to have a symbolic and subjective component, which will be difficult to capture in purely quantitative methods (Conger, 1998).

According to Lord and Maher (1991), leadership is defined as a process of being perceived by others as a leader. In this case, perceptions may be particularly important for understanding the components of leadership effectiveness in organizational settings.

In addition, leadership effectiveness is likely to be a highly subjective phenomenon open to multiple interpretations. Given the biases intrinsic in perceptions of one's own leadership characteristics, these are likely to differ from the perceptions of others. Thus, it is assumed that an effective leader is a perception of the leader that is held by others. Based on this approach, the study will use as key participants—corporate managers from various industries and different hierarchical levels. Inviting diversified participants aims to comply with qualitative research methods requirements that multiple perspectives must be systematically attempted during the research inquiry (Strauss and Corbin, 1998).

Based on these approaches, we have conducted 20 in-depth interviews with corporate managers representing Portuguese firms. Overall, corporate managers represent distinct firms belonging to a different set of industries. The interviews were face-to-face, informal, open-ended, and carried out in a conversational style, following an interview protocol (see Appendix B). Before starting the interview process, informants were asked to think about a specific leader from their experience whom they regarded as highly effective, to be considered as a point of reference in answering the questions. The structured interview guide (see Appendix C) first presents general questions about leadership effectiveness (to generate spontaneous responses), followed by more specific probe questions. All these questions were based on previous literature on leadership effectiveness.

The data collected during this stage includes interview transcripts, field notes from observations, and a wide variety of records and reporting documents, which were treated to rigorous content analysis. Three processes are embedded in this stage: collection, coding, and analysis of data (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). This approach encourages the kind of flexibility so important to the qualitative researcher who can change a line of

inquiry and move in new directions, as more information and a better understanding of what the relevant data acquired is (Blumer, 1986). The interviews' transcripts and other data were analyzed using NVivo, a software program that uses a coding system organized around different topics and themes, to do a systematic analysis of the content, and interpretative analysis of the latent content (Boyatzis, 1998). After the categorization process in each sample, it was determined the reliability test based on the calculation of inter-rater agreement, using the P statistic (Light, 1971), which involves dividing the number of codes for which the rates agreed by the total number of codes. More information on the participants and procedures regarding the interview's technique are detailed in Section 4.4. The objectives for the exploratory stage are as follows:

- (1) To identify the characteristics of effective leaders.
- (2) To explore the factors that drive leadership effectiveness (to identify the mechanisms that leaders use to achieve corporate goals).
- (3) To explore the internal and external context and its moderating effect on leadership effectiveness.
- (4) To collect information on the most relevant corporate goals.
- (5) To identify the main measures to assess leadership effectiveness.

PHASE 2 - Quantitative Research

After the exploratory phase, the quantitative study uses a self-administered questionnaire. The targeted participants in this study are from different organizational levels:

- Senior managers (C-level)

- Business unit managers
- Business unit employees

The survey instrument is developed to measure the categories identified during the Phase 1. The questionnaire covers the five sections of the study: antecedents of leadership, self-regulation, drivers of leadership effectiveness, context and leadership effectiveness. Thus, the quantitative study carried out builds on the qualitative findings and tests a number of hypotheses by means of a self-administered questionnaire. More information on the samples and data collection procedures regarding the survey's technique are detailed in Section 6.3. This phase has the following objectives:

- (1) To develop a model of leadership effectiveness.
- (2) To test the relationship between the main characteristics of effective leaders identified in the exploratory stage and organizational effectiveness.
- (3) To test the relationship between the main factors that drive leadership effectiveness identified in the exploratory stage and organizational effectiveness.
- (4) To test the moderating role of contextual factors on organizational effectiveness.

Table 3-3 summarizes the research design strategy followed in this thesis, composed of the two-phase mixed methods research.

Table 3-3 Research Design Strategy

MIXED METHODS RESEARCH	PHASE ONE	PHASE TWO
Method	Qualitative	Quantitative
Instrument	In-depth interviews	Self-administered questionnaires
Preliminary Analysis	Organize & prepare data; read all data	Descriptive statistics; normality tests; multicollinearity tests
Data Analysis	Coding process; representation in the qualitative narrative; making an interpretation or meaning of the data	Structural Equation Model using Partial Least Squares
Reliability Test	Calculation of inter-rater agreement (Pearson's correlation coefficient)	Cronbach's Alpha Composite Reliability Indicator Reliability
Validity	Triangulation of data collection and analysis	Content Validity Convergent Validity Discriminant Validity

3.6. CONCLUSION

This Chapter provides an overview of the research design employed in the current study. The central goal of this study was to understand the role of leadership effectiveness in explaining organizational effectiveness. Specifically, the objectives of the study were firstly to identify the main components of leadership effectiveness (i.e., traits, skills, behaviors, and processes of effective leaders), and contextual factors, and secondly to test the relationship between those components, as well as contextual factors, on organizational effectiveness. The study adopted a mixed methods approach and employed a sequential exploratory design based on two-phases comprising a qualitative analysis of interview data, and followed by a quantitative analysis of survey data. Overall, this study used data from various source instruments: interviews, documents, other secondary data, and questionnaires, while addressing a multiple level analyses in order to avoid two of the most commonly appointed problems in leadership research: the single-source issue and one level analysis.

CHAPTER 4 – PHASE ONE: QUALITATIVE STUDY

4.1. INTRODUCTION

The preceding Chapters of this thesis have highlighted important gaps in understanding the link between leadership to outcomes and its underlying mechanisms. As addressed in Chapter 2, the integration of trait, skills and behavioral theories present a promising perspective from which to address these gaps. Notwithstanding, empirical studies adopting an integrative view to examine leadership effectiveness are still scarce in this field. In addition, the literature review highlighted the need for further research to identify the main characteristics of effective leaders and the main factors that influence organizational performance. Hence, this study draws on the theoretical foundations of leadership effectiveness as a baseline for the qualitative study.

In this Chapter, it is introduced the main purpose of the qualitative study and the respective research questions that drive the investigation. It starts with a proposed integrated model for leadership effectiveness, including the necessary dimensions to capture all its facets. Then, the Chapter presents an explanation of the procedures undertaken during the qualitative study, namely the participants' profile, data collection and analysis. Posteriorly, it presents a comprehensive overview of the manifest-content analysis of the interviews' participants. The Chapter finalizes with a summary of the main findings, serving as the groundwork for the quantitative phase.

4.2. PURPOSE, RESEARCH QUESTIONS, AND OBJECTIVES

According to many scholars (e.g., Bass, 1985; Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991; Conger and Kanungo, 1994; Mumford et al., 2000a; Zaccaro et al., 2004) and considering

empirical evidence, some leaders are more effective than others, depending on their individual characteristics, and behavioral mechanisms they use to drive organizational performance. However, research has not yet determined how those elements complement or supplement each other in a hierarchical taxonomy of leadership effectiveness. Therefore, the purpose of this qualitative study was to explore the key individual characteristics and factors that drive leadership effectiveness and provide the foundation for organizational above-average performance. Specifically, the following questions were investigated:

RQ 1 — What are the main components of leadership effectiveness?

RQ 2 — What is the impact of the organizational context on leadership effectiveness?

RQ 3 — What are the measures used to assess leadership effectiveness?

The objectives of the qualitative phase are as follows:

Objective 1 — To identify the characteristics of effective leaders.

Objective 2 — To explore the factors that drive organizational performance (i.e., to identify the mechanisms that leaders use to achieve corporate goals).

Objective 3 — To explore the effect that organizational context has on leadership effectiveness.

Objective 4 — To collect information on the most relevant measures to assess leadership effectiveness.

Objective 5 — To offer a definition and a hierarchical taxonomy for leadership effectiveness.

4.3. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In the literature, there is no universally accepted definition of leadership effectiveness. For Stogdill (1950), this concept is regarded as a leader's performance in influencing and guiding the activities of his or her unit toward the achievement of its goals. Yukl (1989) defines leadership effectiveness as the extent to which the leader's group or organization performs its task successfully and attains its goals. Hogan et al. (1994) have suggested that leadership effectiveness should also be considered in terms of team, group, and organizational performance.

In addition, as posited by Ashkanasy and Dasborough (Antonakis et al., 2009), a clarification of the construct of leadership effectiveness is required to identify the relevant factors that influence the criterion chosen to assess effectiveness. For example, if leadership effectiveness is focused on task performance, where effective leaders are those who best facilitate the achievement of the group's goals, here general intelligence may be an important factor to consider especially for those tasks that require intellectual acumen (House and Aditya, 1997). While if leadership effectiveness is relational-oriented, and viewed in terms of a dyadic relationship that develops between leader and follower, then emotional intelligence may be a more relevant factor to consider (Uhl-Bien, 2006).

Based on previous literature and including recent trends on organizational sustainability-orientation (Quazi, 2001; Wong, 2003; Svensson and Wood, 2006), we suggest that leadership effectiveness may be defined *as the leader's ability to influence his team, group and organization toward the achievement of common goals to enhance the corporate long-term performance and sustainability.*

Not only the definition of leadership effectiveness varies from author to author, it has also been measured using different criterion. The most commonly measures used to evaluate leadership effectiveness can be categorized into: (1) subjective ratings from peers, supervisors or subordinates (examples from Bass and Yammarino, 1991; Judge and Bono, 2000; Judge et al, 2002a); (2) objective organizational goals (examples from House et al., 1991; Curphy, 1993); and (3) integrated measures combining the two previous types (examples from Parry and Proctor-Thomson, 2002; DeRue et al., 2011).

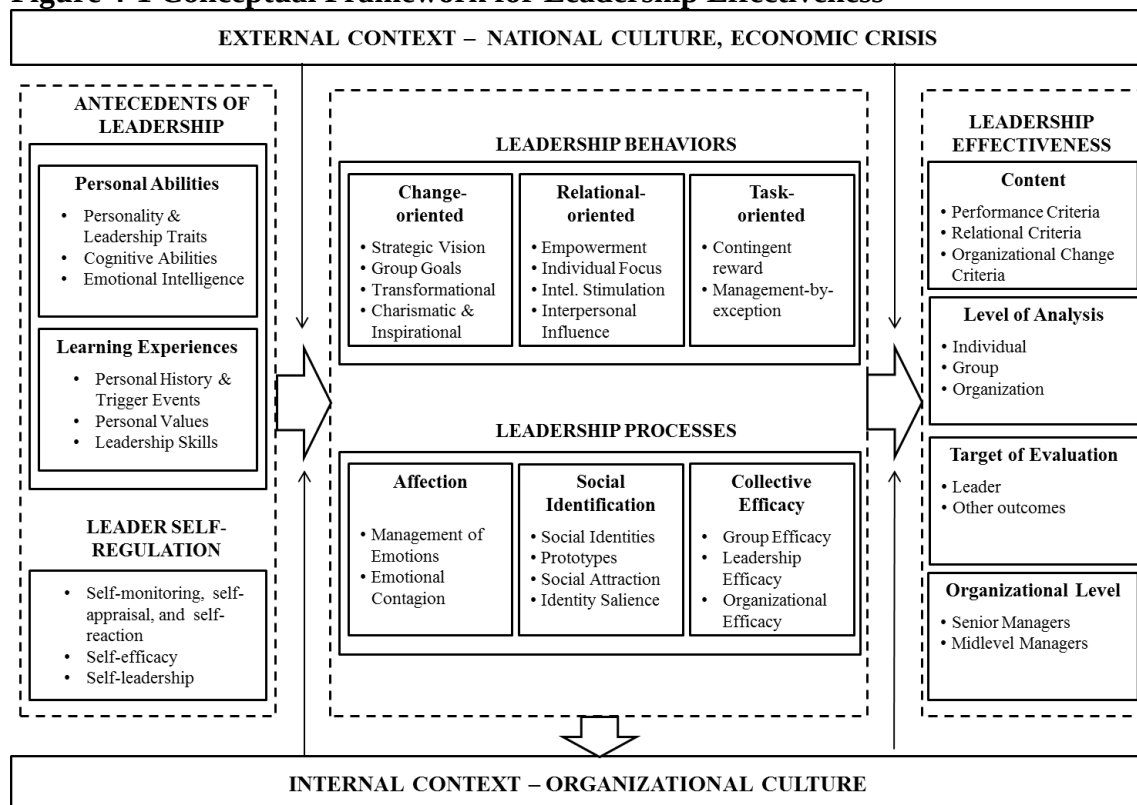
In a recent study, DeRue et al. (2011) have conceptualized leadership effectiveness into three dimensions: (1) content – relates to task performance, affective and relational criteria, or overall judgments that comprehend both task and relational elements; (2) level of analysis – individual, dyadic, group or organizational level; and (3) target of evaluation – leader or another outcome (e.g., satisfaction with the leader, group performance). These authors have suggested the use of mixed criteria to assess leadership effectiveness.

Drawing on the theoretical approaches of leadership effectiveness, as well as on the plethora of leadership literature, including social identity theory, cognitive and social learning theories, and emotional management approach (e.g., House, 1977; Bass, 1985; Lord et al., 1986; Conger and Kanungo, 1994; Mumford et al., 2000a), we argue for an integrative approach in leadership effectiveness, including several causal relationships among the main components. For instance, in regard to personal abilities, the literature suggests several associations between personality traits and general intelligence with measures of leadership effectiveness (e.g., Lord et al., 1986; Gough, 1990; Hogan et al., 1994). Leadership skills and other learning experiences have been associated with leadership outcomes directly or through the leaders' behaviors (e.g., Mumford et al.,

2000d; Marta et al., 2005). Self-regulation mechanisms, such as the leader's self-efficacy, are related directly to leadership outcomes, or they enact specific behaviors that ultimately influence organizational performance (e.g., Stajkovic and Luthans, 1998; Anderson et al., 2008). Leadership behaviors and processes are regarded as more proximal causes for leadership outcomes (e.g., Bass, 1985; Van Knippenberg and Hogg, 2003; Yukl, 2008; Van Kleef et al., 2009; Paglis, 2010). Finally, contextual factors have been considered in the leadership literature as moderating or mediating variables in relation to leadership outcomes (e.g., Ogbonna and Harris, 2000; Kim et al., 2004).

Based on the above discussions, the author proposes an integrated model for leadership effectiveness (Figure 4-1).

Figure 4-1 Conceptual Framework for Leadership Effectiveness



Note: This model is based on previous theoretical approaches (e.g., House, 1977; Bass, 1985; Lord et al., 1986; Conger and Kanungo, 1994; Mumford et al., 2000a; Yukl, 2008).

This model is an easier and interesting way to grasp and organize the most prominent concepts mentioned in the literature, highlighting the key relationships among them, and serving as a guiding framework during our qualitative research phase. As leadership effectiveness is a complex construct, in this research, we have modeled it into several dimensions in order to capture its entire domain and different facets. In light of the above arguments, we propose the conceptual framework for leadership effectiveness (Figure 4-1), which can be summarized in the following set of propositions:

Proposition 1 — *Leadership effectiveness refers to the leader's ability to influence his team, group and organization toward the achievement of common goals to enhance the corporate long-term performance and sustainability.*

Proposition 2 — *Leadership effectiveness is a multidimensional construct comprised of the following dimensions: (1) traits, (2) skills, (3), behaviors, and (4) processes.*

Proposition 3 — *Effective leadership behaviors is a multidimensional construct comprised of three behavioral dimensions: (1) relational-orientation, (2) task-orientation, and (3) change-orientation.*

Proposition 4 — *Leadership effectiveness and contextual factors interact with each other to determine jointly the performance of an organization.*

4.4. PARTICIPANTS AND PROCEDURES

There is little agreement among researchers regarding the sufficient sample size for qualitative studies. While Bertaux (1981) suggested fifteen as the smallest acceptable sample, Creswell (1998) considers a range between twenty and thirty, and Morse (1994) advises for a size over thirty. In this study, we follow Green and Thorogood (2009, p. 120) argument that “the experience of most qualitative researchers is that in interview studies little that is ‘new’ comes out of transcripts after you have interviewed 20 or so people”. Therefore, we have considered a sample size of twenty interviews, and have conducted a saturation analysis to find at which level was established a consensus.

This saturation level has been extensively covered in the literature (Mason, 2010). For instance, Griffin and Hauser (1993) found in their analysis that twenty to thirty interviews would be needed to uncover ninety to ninety five percent of all categories. Another study revealed that ninety four percent of the categories were reached after six interviews, while the saturation level of ninety-seven per cent was achieved only with twelve interviews (Guest et al., 2006). In the current study, ninety one percent was reached with eight interviews, ninety-five percent with twelve, and ninety-eight percent with fifteen. We can therefore conclude that a sample of fifteen may be sufficient to develop meaningful insights and useful interpretations of the findings.

The sample was drawn from a list of the best performing organizations based on (1) 500 largest corporations in Portugal published by EXAME (500 Maiores & Melhores), (2) most reputable corporations in the world published by the Reputation Institute, (3) and financial institutions published by Banco de Portugal. The complete list of the selected organizations is presented in Table 4-1. An email was sent to the human resource managers from each organization with an invitation to participate in the study,

asking to indicate a senior manager to be interviewed. All the invited senior managers have accepted to participate in the interviews.

Table 4-1 List of Invited Organizations

Industry	Organizations
Automotive & Transportation	AutoEuropa, TAP
Banking	Banco Santander Totta, Millennium BCP
Consumer Goods	Colgate-Palmolive, Mars, PepsiCo, Soc. Central de Cervejas
Energy	BP, EDP, Efacec
Holdings	Cofina, SONAE
Information Technology	Fujitsu, Microsoft
Pharmaceuticals & Healthcare Products	Alliance Healthcare, Bial, Covidien, Johnson & Johnson, Merck Sharp & Dohme

Interviews were conducted from May to September of 2012. The profile of the interviewees is presented in Table 4-2. The respondents were 60% female and were on average 49 years old. The interviewees' job positions were member of the board (10%), executive director (25%), human resources director (40%), sales director (15%), and other (10%). Overall, the respondents had, on average, 9.3 years of tenure in their current job position, and 13.9 years of tenure in the organization.

Table 4-2 Profile of Interviewees and Size of Transcripts

Date & Time	Duration (hh:mm)	Interviewee	Gender	Age	Nr of Pages
17/05 17:00	0:52	Executive Director	Female	51	33
22/05 13:00	1:06	Executive Director	Male	50	20
24/05 17:00	1:02	Human Resources Director	Female	47	23
28/05 16:00	1:22	Human Resources Director	Male	55	27
29/05 19:00	2:13	Executive Director	Female	45	21
01/06 15:00	1:05	Human Resources Director	Female	55	25
04/06 14:00	1:20	Member of the Board	Female	66	12
15/06 15:00	1:56	Human Resources Director	Female	44	32
29/06 15:00	1:08	Member of the Board	Male	52	20
02/07 17:00	0:54	Human Resources Director	Female	54	22
04/07 15:00	1:15	Human Resources Director	Female	41	27
05/07 15:00	0:47	Managing Director	Female	51	18
06/07 11:00	1:50	Sales Director	Female	48	28
10/07 15:00	1:34	HR Director Iberia	Male	52	28
16/07 12:00	0:57	Human Resources Director	Female	49	19
17/07 16:30	1:21	PR & Sustainability Director	Female	47	27
19/07 10:00	0:57	Executive Director	Male	51	24
19/07 12:00	0:34	Publishing Director	Male	40	17
25/07 16:00	1:04	Sales Director Iberia	Male	40	30
07/09 10:30	2:59	Marketing & Sales Director	Male	38	41

During the interviews, it was followed a formal protocol (Appendix B) and open-ended questioning techniques. The purpose of using such techniques was to collect relevant perspectives by asking top managers to talk about effective leadership by identifying specific effective leaders from their experience. This approach to qualitative research was suggested by Taylor and Bogdan (1984) emphasizing the interest in obtaining perspectives from the respondents. Before asking any questions, interviewees were asked to think about a specific effective leader from their experience whom they could use as reference in answering the questions. Despite not being asked to identify the leader, interviewees promptly referred to one leader who qualified as the most effective.

Based on the proposed conceptual model (Figure 4-1), an interview guide (Appendix C) was developed, including general questions about effective leadership

followed by more specific probe questions. The general questions asked respondents for their definition of effective leadership, and individual characteristics associated with effective leadership. Probe questions were guided by previous literature. For example, one of the questions asked was about general and emotional intelligence because these have been often referred in the leadership literature.

All the in-depth interviews were recorded. On average the interview's duration was around 60 minutes, with the respective transcripts varying from a minimum of 12 pages to a maximum of 41 pages. All the interviews were transcribed and edited by the author. To guarantee the anonymity of all interviewees, we will thereafter refer to the participating organizations using the code presented in Table 4-3. Thus, Table 4-3 shows the main characteristics of the participating organizations collected through the interview, organizational documents, and other secondary data.

Table 4-3 Characteristics of the Participating Organizations

Organization	Industry	Size	Interviewee	Gender	Age
A	Pharmac. & Healthcare Products	SME	Executive Director	Female	51
B	Information Technology	SME	Executive Director	Male	50
C	Energy	Large Company	HR Director	Female	47
D	Consumer Goods	SME	HR Director	Male	55
E	Consumer Goods	SME	Executive Director	Female	45
F	Information Technology	SME	HR Director	Female	55
G	Pharmac. & Healthcare Products	SME	Member of the Board	Female	66
H	Pharmac. & Healthcare Products	SME	HR Director	Female	44
I	Energy	Large Company	Member of the Board	Male	52
J	Banking	Large Institution	HR Director	Female	54
K	Holdings	SME	HR Director	Female	41
L	Automotive & Transportation	Large Company	Managing Director	Female	51
M	Automotive & Transportation	Large Company	Sales Director	Female	48
N	Consumer Goods	SME	HR Director Iberia	Male	52
O	Banking	Large Institution	HR Director	Female	49
P	Energy	SME	PR & Sustainability Director	Female	47
Q	Pharmac. & Healthcare Products	SME	Executive Director	Male	51
R	Holding	Large Company	Publishing Director	Male	40
S	Pharmac. & Healthcare Products	SME	Sales Director Iberia	Male	40
T	Consumer Goods	Large Company	Marketing & Sales Director	Male	40

4.5. DATA ANALYSIS

Content analysis was conducted using the software NVivo, and involved several steps. First, all the concepts related to effective leadership reviewed in Chapter 2 were summarized in a table of definitions (Appendix D). Second, a list of provisory codes (Appendix E) was created to facilitate the codification process. Then, codes were assigned to the respective content. When a new code emerged from the analysis, it was incorporated into a new list (Appendix F). At the end of the content analysis, it was recorded a total of 131 categories and 2170 references. For assessing content validity of the collected data, we linked data coding and analysis to existing theoretical concepts and definitions identified in the leadership literature.

Following Miles and Huberman's (1994) suggestion, this study adopts the measure of interjudge agreement, i.e., the percentage of agreement between two judges to assess reliability. The content was examined and codified by the author and another judge, from the current academic field, separately. This procedure led to a first list of 1136 items classified in one of the most frequent categories. The initial inter-coder agreement was 94.2%. Then, 66 items were deleted in order to achieve a full agreement rate between the judges. At the end of this process, the content analysis resulted in 1070 items (Table 4-4).

Table 4-4 Reliability Assessment: Inter-Coder Agreement

Effective Leadership Categories	Total Coded	Total Agreed	Reliability*	Deleted Items
Communicate well	90	88	97.8%	2
Have a high-proximity relationship	72	70	97.2%	2
Have a strategic vision	63	60	95.2%	3
Develop, coach and mentor people	58	54	93.1%	4
Trust others and are trustworthy	50	45	90.0%	5
Have a collaborative approach	49	49	100.0%	0
Are adaptive and flexible	47	44	93.6%	3
Are intelligent	45	41	91.1%	4
Contribute to empower others	45	45	100.0%	0
Active listeners	44	42	95.5%	2
Are self-confident	42	39	92.9%	3
Give guidance and support to others	41	39	95.1%	2
Is goal-oriented	41	40	97.6%	1
Are results-oriented	40	35	87.5%	5
Have emotional control	37	37	100.0%	0
Have strategic skills	33	27	81.8%	6
Are emotionally intelligent	30	30	100.0%	0
Create an emotional contagion	30	30	100.0%	0
Concerned with strategic implementation	30	24	80%	6
Have integrity and ethical behavior	29	29	100.0%	0
Are open & transparent	28	24	85.7%	4
Are agile and strong decision-makers	28	28	100.0%	0
Care for others	27	26	96.3%	1
Make people belief it is possible	24	18	75.0%	6
Relate well with others	23	20	87.0%	3
Motive their team	20	18	90.0%	2
Is efficiency-oriented	20	19	95.0%	1
Challenge and stimulate team members	18	18	100.0%	0
Communicate the vision	16	15	93.8%	1
Reinforce the strategic alignment	16	16	100.0%	0
Total	1136	1070	94.2%	66

*Reliability Formula: Total Agreed Codes / Total Items Coded by Both Judges * 100% (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

4.6. IN-DEPTH INTERVIEWS

4.6.1. EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP

One important part of the interview guide was about the respondents' selection of an effective leader, and about their definition of leadership effectiveness. All the respondents were prompt to identify at least one leader that would qualify as an effective leader. Then, the respondents answered both the questions of why did they select that person, and what is an effective leader for them. Table 4-5 shows some of the definitions advanced by the respondents. Most of all regard an effective leader as the one who is able to produce results in due time, involving the whole team, and enhancing the organization's sustainable growth. From these definitions, four behavioral dimensions of effective leaders emerged. First, these leaders have a strong orientation to change. They know that uncertainty and volatility constrain the business environment. Therefore, they are permanently scanning the environment and looking for new opportunities to develop the business, or to improve efficiency. They articulate and communicate a strategic vision expressed in the objectives for the medium and long run. Second, these leaders are oriented to tasks. They plan, and focus on implementing and executing the objectives for the short term. They emphasize the importance of efficiency and align the organization to achieve results. Third, these leaders are highly relational-oriented. They are aware that they have to involve and engage people in order to achieve those goals. Therefore, they coach, mentor, and develop the team members. They are self-confident that these objectives will be reached, and they express that belief to the team. Finally, they are context-driven. Such leaders have learnt that different people and different situations require different behaviors. Therefore, they have the ability to adapt their behavior according to the specific situation.

Table 4-5 Definitions of an Effective Leader

Cases	Definitions	Behavioral Dimensions
L	<i>“A leader who could make the organizational transformation with the current population, and without changing the structure. A “dragger of people” who could impose, involve and convince everyone that his project would bring more value to the company”.</i>	Change Relational
P	<i>“The most effective leader achieves results involving people. Because organizations are made primarily to achieve results, of all kinds, short, medium and long term, in the balance of what are the different areas of sustainability, economic, social and environmental, and a very close relationship between the different stakeholders”.</i>	Change Relational Task
M	<i>“A leader who is able to find the right balance between the focus it is placed on developing people and on the contribution of his department to the overall business”.</i>	Relational Task
G	<i>“An effective leader has a plan to reach his well-defined goals, trying to create a team to help him reach those goals, giving autonomy, but closely controlling whether or not the goals are on their way. To fulfill his goals, he has to follow the market changes and adjust plans to accommodate new opportunities or threats”.</i>	Change Context Relational Task
N	<i>“An effective leader achieves results when expected with the right people, and allows the progress of the organization to overcome their goals”.</i>	Relational Task
D	<i>“Effective leadership is the one that achieves results with concerns of social responsibility and ethics, without sacrificing people and the future of the organization”.</i>	Change Relational Task
R	<i>“A leader with a clear strategic vision, a capacity to pass his strategic vision to the team working directly with him, and availability to accommodate all the intermediate visions brought by his management team”.</i>	Change Context Relational Task
F	<i>“An effective leader basically does two or three key issues. First, he must have a strategic vision. To have a vision for where we are going is fundamental. Second, this view has to be shared and assumed by his team. Finally, a leader must be able to achieve results”.</i>	Change Relational Task
O	<i>“A person who has a vision of what he wants for the company and for the business, and is able to communicate and implement”.</i>	Change Task

The findings from the manifest-content analysis of the corporate managers' interviews are summarized in Table 4-6. Column 1, 2 and 3 list the categories that emerged from the analysis of the corporate managers' interviews and their absolute and relative frequency of occurrence in the whole set of interviews.

Table 4-6 Frequencies of all Manifest-Content Categories
Corporate Managers (n=20)

Categories of Effective Leadership	Frequencies	
	N	%
Communication Skills	19	95%
High Relationship Proximity	18	90%
Trust & Trustworthy	18	90%
Strategic Vision	17	85%
Emotional Control & Emotional Stability	17	85%
Develop, Coach & Mentor	16	80%
Collaborative & Participative	16	80%
Active Listening	16	80%
Intelligence	16	80%
Self-confidence & Self-efficacy	16	80%
Goal-Oriented	15	75%
Adaptive & Flexible	15	75%
Emotional Contagion & Positive Arousal	15	75%
Integrity & Ethical Behavior	15	75%
Empowering	14	70%
Social Skills	14	70%
Strategic Implementation	13	65%
Results-Oriented	13	65%
Decision-Making	13	65%
Make People Believe it's Possible	13	65%
Strategic Skills	13	65%
Caring for Others	13	55%
Efficiency-Oriented	12	60%
Guidance & Supportive	12	60%
Emotional Intelligence	12	60%
Open & Transparent	12	60%
Vision Communication	11	55%
Challenge & Stimulate the Team	11	55%
Strategic Alignment	11	55%
Motivating the Team	11	55%
... See Appendix G for the rest of the Categories		

Some of these categories are presented in Table 4-7 grouped in broad themes related to leadership effectiveness, and following the conceptual classification referred in Chapter 2. For this purpose, we used pattern-coding guidelines recommended by Miles and Huberman (1994). Overall, we have grouped all the categories into four main dimensions and thirty sub-dimensions. Frequencies are also presented for each category. The number in the first column represents the number of separate interviews in which the category appeared. The number in the second column represents the total number of times this category appeared in the data. For the first category *EL trust others and are trustworthy* 18 and 45 means that this category was represented 45 times in 18 out of 20 interviews. All the categories that emerged in less than eleven corporate managers' interviews were excluded because this study's goal was to find patterns in the data rather than anecdotes representing just a few people. This procedure was undertaken as a first step to reduce the variables to be considered in the quantitative phase.

Table 4-7 Manifest-Content Categories

Corporate Managers Group (n=20)					
	Sources (n/20)	References (n/1070)		Sources (n/20)	References (n/1070)
Traits & Skills of Effective Leaders					
Visible traits of effective leaders			Top skills for effectiveness		
EL trust others and are trustworthy	18	45	EL communicate well	19	88
EL have emotional control	17	37	EL are active listeners	16	42
EL are intelligent	16	41	EL relate well with others	14	20
EL are self-confident	16	39	EL have strategic skills	13	27
EL are goal-oriented	15	40			
EL have integrity and ethical behavior	15	29			
EL care for others	13	26			
EL are emotionally intelligent	12	30			
EL are open & transparent	12	24			
Behaviors of Effective Leaders					
Effective leaders are change-oriented			Effective leaders are task-oriented		
EL have a strategic vision	17	60	EL are results-oriented	13	35
EL are agile and strong decision-makers	13	28	EL are concerned with strategic implementation	13	24
EL challenge and intellectually stimulate the team	11	18	EL are efficiency-oriented	12	19
EL communicate the vision	11	15	EL reinforce the strategic alignment	11	16

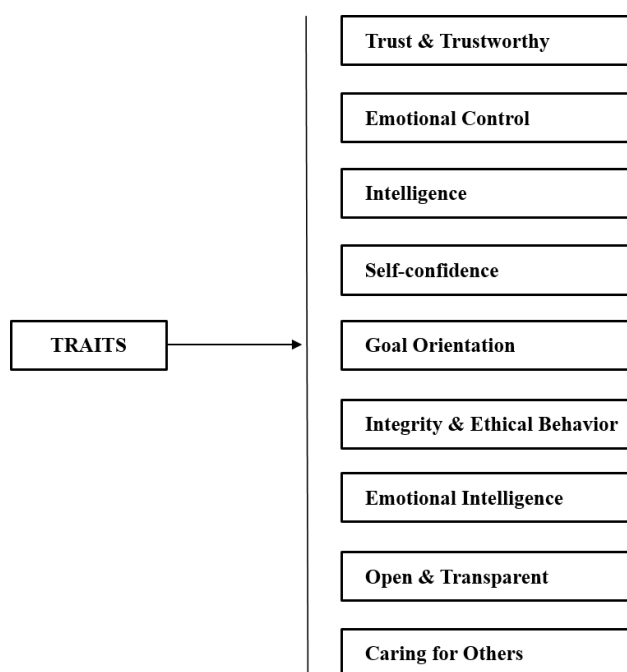
UNDERSTANDING LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS IN ORGANIZATIONAL SETTINGS

Corporate Managers Group (n=20)			Corporate Managers Group (n=20)		
	Sources (n/20)	References (n/1070)		Sources (n/20)	References (n/1070)
Behaviors of Effective Leaders					
Effective leaders are relational-oriented			Effective leaders are context-oriented		
EL have a high-proximity relationship	18	70	EL are adaptive and flexible	15	44
EL develop, coach and mentor people	16	54			
EL have a collaborative and participative approach	16	49			
EL contribute to empowering others	14	45			
EL give guidance and support to others	12	39			
EL motivate their team	11	18			
Leadership Effectiveness Processes					
Effective Leaders Manage Emotions			Effective Leaders Influence Collective Efficacy		
EL show their emotions to create emotional contagion and positive arousal	15	30	EL make people belief it is possible	13	18

4.6.1.1. VISIBLE TRAITS OF EFFECTIVE LEADERS

Findings report several visible traits of effective leaders (Figure 4-2). These leaders have traits like trust and trustworthiness, are able to exhibit positive emotions and control their negative ones. Moreover, these leaders have traits like cognitive ability to understand complexity and context, a strong belief in their own capabilities, and are very determined in reaching their goals. They are role models of integrity and ethical behavior, care for others, are able to read others' emotions and to feel empathy, and are very open and transparent in their relationships.

Figure 4-2 Traits of Effective Leaders



A) *Effective Leaders Trust Others and Are Trustworthy*

Increasingly, the importance of trust and trustworthiness in leadership has been examined in the literature. According to Mayer et al. (1995), these two concepts are

different: trustworthiness is a quality that the trustee has, while trusting is something that the “trustor” decides to do. This decision has been defined as the willingness to be vulnerable based on positive expectations of another party (Mayer et al., 1995; Rousseau et al., 1998). Researchers have claimed that trust is likely to affect performance outcomes. Trust, for example, has been shown to influence the perceived effectiveness of the leader (Gillespie and Mann, 2004), team performance (Dirks, 1999), and organizational performance (Salamon and Robinson, 2008).

Similarly, interviewees also have characterized effective leaders as trusting others and trustworthy. Effective leaders trust in the execution capacity of their team members: *“the leader cannot be aware of everything which is happening and has to rely on the ability that people around him have to execute”*. Effective leaders also have the ability to create and develop trust among their team members, and the whole organization, *“a key attribute of a leader is to generate a good teamwork, a culture of trust in the direct team, but also throughout the organization”*.

Table 4-8 Frequency: Trust others and are Trustworthy

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL are trusting and trustworthy	A, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, L, O, M, N, P, Q, R, S, T	18	90%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

B) *Effective Leaders Have Emotional Control*

Recently, the role of emotions has gained importance in the leadership literature. An emotion may be defined as a discrete affective state perceived by the individual with an external identifiable cause (Forgas, 1995). A relevant area identified in the works about emotional intelligence is the self-management or regulation of emotions (e.g., Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Mayer et al., 2008). According to Mayer et al. (2008), this area evolved based on two important findings: (1) an individual emotionality could become more positive by reframing perceptions of situations (Beck, 1979), and (2) individuals in the workplace often exert considerable emotional control (Hochschild, 1983). According to Gross (1998), emotion regulation refers to the processes by which individuals influence their own emotions, and when and how they experience and express these emotions. Research has associated leaders' positive emotional expressions with ratings of leadership effectiveness (Bono and Ilies, 2006), and task performance (Ashby and Isen, 1999). In addition, individuals who can regulate their own emotions are more likely to emerge as leaders, to be perceived as authentic (e.g., Ashkanasy and Tse, 2000; Pescosolido, 2002; Ilies et al., 2005), and affect team performance (Feyerherm and Rice, 2002).

Not surprisingly, interviewees have mentioned that effective leaders are able to exhibit positive emotions and to control their negative emotions even in very stressful situations: *“this leader dealt with his negative emotions contrasting and exhibiting very positive emotions. He managed some difficult situations with great emotional capabilities”*. These leaders use humor to defuse critical situations, *“as he had great humor, he never passed negative emotions to the team”*, and do not show their deepest worries, *“he had the ability to hide his major concerns”*.

Table 4-9 Frequency: Emotional Control

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL have emotional control	A, B, C, D, E, F, H, I, J, L, M, N, O, P, R, S, T	17	85%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

C) Effective Leaders Are Intelligent

The study of general intelligence in the leadership literature has been prevalent for a long time. Spearman (1904) introduced the concept, which refers to a general descriptive term, including a hierarchy of mental abilities ranging from basic abilities such as verbal recognition and spatial understanding of a broader group of abilities like verbal-comprehension intelligence and perceptual-organizational intelligence. Finally, at the highest level of the hierarchy, general intelligence involves abstract reasoning across all such domains (Mayer et al., 2008). Specifically, empirical evidence showed that leaders exhibit “above average intelligence”, are conceptually skilled, better problem solvers, and more creative (e.g., Rushton, 1990; Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991; Locke, 1991; Jung, 2000). Several studies also highlighted general intelligence as a strong predictor of leadership emergence (Atwater et al., 1999; Taggar et al., 1999), leadership effectiveness (e.g., Avolio et al., 1996; Atwater et al., 1999), and job performance (Ree and Earles, 1992; Schmidt and Hunter, 1998). For example, effective leaders have been shown to display greater ability to reason both inductively and deductively than ineffective leaders (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991).

As expected, interviewees have referred to intelligence as one of the top characteristics of effective leaders. Effective leaders are intelligent, “*the leader was an extraordinarily intelligent and wise person*”. These leaders have the cognitive ability to understand complexity as stated, “*when he started to work in this new high-tech engineering business, he managed to apprehend the whole complexity of the business, and understand the main variables*”. In addition, they are permanently scanning the environment and trying to understand the context, “*when we discussed a topic, he was able to understand the subject and to link it to other contextual variables*”, and “*he revealed a good capacity to read the environment, to draft possible pathways, and identify potential risks*”. Finally, the aforementioned leaders have the ability to design a successful business strategy, “*he developed a successful long-term project which changed the status quo of the company and the whole pharmaceutical industry*”.

Table 4-10 Frequency: Are Intelligent

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL are intelligent	B, C, D, E, F, G, I, J, K, L, M, N, O, P, R, S	16	80%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

D) Effective Leaders Are Self-confident

Emergent studies on leadership have started to examine how confidence unfolds in the social influential process. The concept of self-confidence involves people’s beliefs in their capability to be successful, as well as self-perceptions of competence in their

knowledge, skills and abilities (Shipman and Mumford, 2011). This concept is similar to Bandura's (1997) self-efficacy construct (e.g., Hannah et al., 2008; Shipman and Mumford, 2011), which might be defined as an individual's confidence judgment in his ability to effectively carry on the behaviors that are required to perform his role (Chemers et al., 2000; Kane et al., 2002). Interestingly, research supports self-efficacy as a significant, positive correlate of job performance (Stajkovic and Luthans, 1998), and suggests that leaders self-efficacy enact key leadership behaviors in different environmental settings that can impact leadership outcomes, such as leadership emergence and effectiveness (e.g., Chemers et al., 2000; Luthans and Peterson, 2002; Anderson et al., 2008; Hannah et al., 2008).

Accordingly, the interviewees pointed to self-confidence as a salient individual characteristic of effective leaders. One of the respondents refers to an effective leader, *"despite his strong beliefs he was not cockish. He believed in his capabilities, in his goals, and was successful in making it happen"*. Those leaders strongly believe in their own capabilities and transmit that belief to their team, *"he believed in that pathway and convinced everyone around him that it was the right one"*, and influence the team's core belief, *"this leader influenced the way his team believed in their own capabilities"*.

Table 4-11 Frequency: Are Self-confident

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL are self-confident	A, B, C, D, E, G, H, J, K, M, N, O, P, R, S, T	16	80%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

E) *Effective Leaders Are Goal-oriented*

According to Dweck (1986), goal orientation is a stable dispositional trait toward developing or demonstrating ability in achievement situations. Specifically, a leader's predisposition to set specific goals in achievement-related situations influences the way he or she reacts to task difficulty, and ultimately affects behavior on task performance (Dweck, 1986; Dweck and Leggett, 1988; VandeWalle et al., 2001). For example, leaders with strong learning goal orientation have a strong desire to increase their competency levels and improve their skills and abilities. These leaders see past failures as learning opportunities, and as such prefer challenging tasks where they can learn and improve continuously (Luzadis and Gerhardt, 2012). Hence, those leaders believe that effort and learning experiences can lead to *absolute* competence and task mastery (Elliot and Thrash, 2001; Luzadis and Gerhardt, 2012). Several studies found support for this relationship. For example, Ford et al. (1998) found a positive and mediated relationship for learning goal orientation with performance on the complex transfer task. In another study, VandeWalle et al. (1999) found that learning goal orientation had a positive relationship with sales performance.

According to the interviewees, effective leaders are strongly oriented to goals. These leaders set goals for themselves and for their team members, and are very determined to reach those specific goals. One of the respondents illustrated that this leader “*communicated everything [...] people knew exactly their goals and what they had to deliver [...] for this leader to fail a goal was like not fulfilling a promise*”. These leaders understand that their shareholders, direct reports, and peers evaluate them for their commitment to reach those goals.

Table 4-12 Frequency: Are Goal-oriented

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL are goal-oriented	A, B, C, E, F, G, I, J, K, L, N, O, P, S, T	15	75%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

F) Effective Leaders Have Integrity and Ethical Behavior

Increasingly, the concept of integrity and ethical behavior has gained importance in the leadership literature. According to Palanski and Yammarino (2007), there are five general categories of integrity: wholeness, consistency of words and actions, consistency in adversity, being true to oneself, and moral or ethical behavior. Subsumed in the last category, an act could be labelled unethical if it violates explicit or implicit universal rules, and produces detrimental outcomes for others. Based on this approach, integrity as moral or ethical behavior has been proposed by several authors and operationalized as the absence of unethical behavior (e.g., Craig and Gustafson, 1998; Posner, 2001; Parry and Proctor-Thomson, 2002; Mumford et al., 2003; Veríssimo and Lacerda, 2014).

The understanding on how integrity and leadership are interrelated is still emerging in the leadership literature (Palanski and Yammarino, 2009). For example, new approaches in leadership research, examine the role integrity plays in ethical leadership (e.g., Brown et al., 2005; Brown and Trevino, 2006), authentic leadership (e.g., Luthans and Avolio, 2003; Avolio et al., 2004b), spiritual leadership (Fry, 2003), and transformational leadership (e.g., Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985; Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999). Likewise, the role that integrity plays in perceived leader effectiveness is still emergent

and mostly controversial. Hooijberg et al. (2010) found that integrity has an impact above that of leadership behaviors on perceived effectiveness for managers and their peers but not for their direct reports and bosses. Interestingly, this research shows that what matters to direct reports and bosses is the manager's flexibility and results.

Despite this ongoing dispute, the interviewees were prompt to elicit integrity and ethical behavior as one of the individual characteristics of effective leaders. Indeed, interviewees refer to effective leaders as role models of integrity and ethical behavior, *“he respected others and had professional ethics”*, and *“he instilled concern about standards of conduct, so that people would realize what they did wrong and could evolve as persons and leaders”*. Those leaders disseminate an ethical environment throughout the organization, *“he instilled ethics in the entire hierarchy, and people felt simultaneously carried out to conduct business in an ethical environment”*. Furthermore, to conciliate ethics with business is a permanent challenge for them, *“in situations of high competition, the line between what is and is not ethical turns out to be very thin and becomes an ongoing challenge for managers and leaders to lead an ethical company”*.

Table 4-13 Frequency: Have Integrity and Ethical Behavior

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL have integrity and ethical behavior	A, B, C, D, E, F, I, J, K, M, O, P, Q, S, T	15	75%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

G) *Effective Leaders Are Altruistic or Self-centered but Care for Others*

Some researchers consider altruism as the moral standard for ethical leadership. Ethical leaders are regarded as honest and trustworthy, fair and caring for others, and behaving ethically in their personal and professional lives (Brown and Treviño, 2006). However, altruism is not in itself a normative principle (Nagel, 1970). As Ciulla (2004) posited, leaders who act altruistically do not necessarily behave morally. According to Worchel et al. (1988) definition, altruism is merely an act or behavior that involves helping people without any ethical assumption.

Moreover, scholars consider altruism as important for effective leadership. Kanungo and Mendonca (1996, p. 35) argue that leaders are truly effective “only when they are motivated by a concern for others, when their actions are invariably guided primarily by the criteria of the benefit to others even if it results in some cost to oneself”. For example, researchers regard altruism as an antecedent variable for transformational leadership (Aronson, 2001), as a tool that transformational leaders use to influence followers toward the collective goal (Kanungo, 2001), and as a mediator between self-sacrifice and transformational leadership (Singh and Krishnan, 2007). Thus, altruism has an indirect effect on group performance via transformational leadership.

Interestingly, interviewees shared different opinions regarding effective leaders characterized as more or less altruistic, but caring for others. For the majority of the respondents, effective leaders do care for others, independently of their level of altruism. For example, one of the respondents reveals, “*he was a politician [...] vain and very concerned with his own image [...] but this self-centeredness was not an impediment for him to worry about his people. On the contrary, he was a very balanced person in these two valences.*” Another respondent refers that “*he was a balanced person [...] he worked*

both his own image and the best for his people". According to another informant, leaders to be effective have to be altruistic: *"It's very difficult for someone very much self-centered to be a good leader because a good leader has to focus his attention on his surroundings [...] to see all the signs and to be aware"*.

However, some respondents refer to effective leaders as being extremely self-centered. For example, one of the respondents illustrates this leader as *"a self-centered person promoting his image, as both his face and money were at stake [...] he liked the public visibility, and institutional influence [...] his success was transmitted to the media to give him public visibility"* (i.e., his communication projection was intentional). Another respondent elicits how vain this leader was *"he is self-centered by vanity [...] because he has a huge ego"*.

Table 4-16 Frequency: Are Altruistic or Self-centered but Care for Others

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL care for others and:	A, B, C, D, G, H, I, K, M, N, P, R, S	13	65%
- are altruistic	A, B, C, D, H, I, K, N, R, S	10	50%
- are self-centered	G, M, P	3	15%
EL are totally self-centered	E, F, J, L, O, T	6	30%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

H) *Effective Leaders Are Emotionally Intelligent*

Since Salovey and Mayer (1990) introduced the concept of emotional intelligence, researchers have tried to understand the role emotions play in the leadership process. Emotional intelligence may be defined as the ability to carry out accurate reasoning about emotions and to use emotions and emotional knowledge to enhance thought (Mayer et al., 2008). For example, emotionally intelligent individuals are aware of their emotions, and understand the causes and effects of such emotions on cognitive processes and decision-making (Salovey and Mayer, 1990; George, 2000; Salovey et al., 2002). Empathy defined as “the ability to comprehend another’s feelings and to re-experience them oneself” (Salovey and Mayer, 1990, p. 194) may be a central characteristic of emotionally intelligent behavior, and an important leader behavior for managing relations (Yukl, 1998). Research has identified empathy as a significant predictor of leadership emergence (Kellett et al., 2002, 2006; Walter and Bruch, 2007). Indeed, leaders must be able to anticipate how followers will react to different circumstances and effectively manage these reactions, as leadership is an emotion-laden process (George, 2000). A leader who can manage his own emotions (emotional self-awareness) and has empathy for others will be more effective (Caruso et al., 2002; Salovey et al., 2002; Avolio, 2003).

Respondents agree that effective leaders have emotional intelligence. For instance, respondents have referred that leaders are able to read other’s emotions and to feel empathy. One of the informants reveals that this leader had “*a relational and emotional component [...] an ability to put himself in the shoes of others, and thus find understanding platforms that lead to problem solving.*” These leaders exhibit their own emotions and vulnerabilities “*a leader is a man or a woman who is exposed within the*

organization [...] when she made a speech, there were rare times when she didn't get emotional [...] she often shared her emotions in those moments".

Table 4-14 Frequency: Emotional Intelligence

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL are emotionally intelligent	A, B, C, E, H, I, J, L, M, N, R, S	12	60%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

I) Effective Leaders Are Open and Transparent

The values of openness and transparency have been examined in the leadership literature through the lens of authentic leadership theory. Authentic leaders can be defined as the ones that have the capacity to achieve high levels of self-awareness, to be true to their set of core values and beliefs, and act according to those values and beliefs, in a transparent way when interacting with others (Avolio et al., 2004b). One of the components of authenticity identified by Kernis (2003) is relational transparency. This concept involves presenting a genuine self as opposed to a 'fake' self through selective self-disclosure to create bonds based on intimacy and trust (Gardner et al., 2005). Thus, relational transparency means the leader displays high levels of openness, self-disclosure and trust in close relationships (Gardner et al., 2005). Research has indicated that the leader's level of transparency affected followers' perceived trust and evaluations of leadership effectiveness (Norman et al., 2010). Other studies have associated authentic leadership with organizational outcomes such as team potency and employees' creativity

(e.g., Rego et al., 2012, 2013).

Likewise, respondents illustrate effective leaders as being very open in their relationships in the sense that they make “*people feel at ease to have conversations*”. In addition, these leaders are characterized as being “*entirely frontal [...] with nothing to hide*”. These open and transparent relationships are helpful to build trust between the leader and his team members, as one of the respondents claims “*these leaders may in fact be very good leaders [...] they are transparent, and people trust them a lot*”.

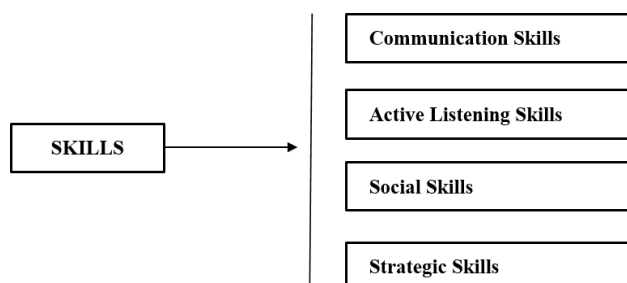
Table 4-15 Frequency: Open and Transparent

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL are open and transparent	A, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, L, Q, R, T	12	60%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

4.6.1.2. TOP SKILLS FOR EFFECTIVENESS

Results captured the most important skills of effective leaders (Figure 4-3), such as interpersonal communicating skills, good and attentive listening skills, social skills, specifically in one-to-one relationships or small groups, and strategic thinking skills oriented to the long run.

Figure 4-3 Skills from Effective Leaders



A) *Effective Leaders Communicate Well*

For many scholars, the role of communication in the leadership process cannot be overemphasized. According to Holladay and Coombs (1993), leadership is a behavior enacted through communication. For example, communication shapes the perceptions of a leader's charisma (Holladay and Coombs, 1993), serves to send both cognitive and affective messages (Hall and Lord, 1995), and to elicit the leader's vision to win the followers' confidence (Pavitt, 1999). As a general definition proposed by Hartley (1999), communication is a process by which people exchange information, and feelings using verbal (i.e., oral, written and technology-mediated messages) and non-verbal messages (i.e., non-verbal signals like facial expression, gaze, gestures, and special behavior). In this process, both message's form and content reflect the personal characteristics of the individuals, as well as their social roles and relationships (Hartley, 1999). Effective leaders communicate with their team members frequently, to gain their trust and total engagement, so they can perform better (Bass, 1990a; Neufeld et al., 2010; Talukder, 2012). Research has found that leaders' communication competence is a predictor of employee job and communication satisfaction (Madlock, 2008), while leaders'

communication effectiveness is positively associated with leadership effectiveness (Saiyadain, 2003), and leaders' performance (Talukder, 2012).

Respondents confirm that effective leaders have good interpersonal communication skills. For example, one respondent reveals, *"he was a good communicator, and above all a communicator who could adapt the style and the message to his audience"*. These leaders often communicate with their 'soul' to inspire others to follow them. They have the ability to transform complex topics into very simple messages, highlighting *"what is important"*, reinforcing and valuing the individual's contribution to organizational performance. Several leaders use *"a very structured communication process"*, such as frequent meetings held weekly, monthly, and quarterly to create alignment. Respondents refer to the leader's presence associated with their verbal communication as a way to convey his charisma: *"his body language and verbal communication is associated with a more charismatic person"*, and reveal that effective leaders use both *"verbal and body language to express themselves"*. Overall, respondents consider that for these leaders *"the theme of communication, rather than show off, served to ensure that it was an effective process and that strategic messages were passed to the audience as a key factor to implementation"*.

Table 4-17 Frequency: Communicate Well

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL communicate well	A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, M, N, O, P, R, S, T	19	95%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

B) *Effective Leaders Are Active Listeners*

Active listening is another important component of the communication process that has been examined in the context of personal sales. In this context, Castleberry and Shepherd (1993, p. 36) have defined interpersonal listening as “the cognitive process of actively sensing, interpreting, evaluating, and responding to the verbal and non-verbal messages of present or potential customers”. An active listener absorbs and processes internally the information he or she receives, shows signs of encouragement for the other person to talk, and demonstrates attentive behavior (Helms and Haynes, 1992; Mineyama et al., 2007). Active listeners are sensitive to others’ feelings and perceptions, which means that they are totally engaged in the communication process (West-Burnham, 1997). Studies indicate that all employees spend one third of their working hours involved in listening activities, and top executives almost two-thirds (Helms and Haynes, 1992). Thus, active listening skills are of utmost importance for the leadership role and leadership effectiveness. For example, Kramer (1997) found that good listening skills accounted for 40 percent of the variance in effective leadership.

For respondents, effective leaders are good and attentive listeners. For example, one of the respondents illustrates “*a good leader is able to hold a conversation for half an hour or an hour without giving an answer, just asking questions and genuinely listening*”. Another respondent recalls, “*he had an incredible ability to listen. Despite having little time, he could be 20 minutes in silence, listening to an idea or a project*”. These leaders are appointed by the respondents as capable of reading people “*he was a fantastic reader of people [...] just with a little talk, he could get to know people well. [...] His knowledge of body language, made him realize when something made us uncomfortable, or when we did not agree with him*”.

Table 4-18 Frequency: Active Listeners

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL are active listeners	A, C, D, E, F, G, I, J, L, M, N, O, P, R, S, T	16	80%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

C) *Effective Leaders Relate Well with Others*

The importance of social skills in leadership has been increasingly examined in the literature. Social skills include interacting with and influencing others, social capacities, social judgment, social complexity and differentiation and human relations skills, also includes the skills required for coordination of actions of oneself and another, negotiation skills to reconcile differences among employee perspective and to establish mutually satisfying relationships, and persuasion skills to influence others to accomplish organizational goals (Mumford et al., 2007). Other authors (Riggio and Lee, 2007; Bass and Bass, 2008; Riggio and Reichard, 2008) reinforced the role of social skills in leadership processes and outcomes — behaviors like social expressiveness (one’s skill in verbal expression and the ability to engage others in conversation) and social control (one’s skill in role-playing and social self-presentation). Guerin et al. (2011) predicted that social skills would mediate the relationships between extraversion and IQ in adolescence and leadership potential at age of 29 years. In addition, social skills are related to satisfaction with the leader and to the leader performance at higher levels (Riggio et al., 2003).

In the interviews, respondents also referred to the social skills exhibited by

effective leaders. These leaders are described as excellent in social skills, specifically in one-to-one relationships or small groups. For example, one of the respondents illustrated “*his best skills had to do with this human area [...] he was an expert in the management of one-to-one relationships, and loved to be the center of attention in small groups*”. Another informant reveals that effective leaders are sociable and “*know how to behave socially in different contexts*”. Generally, these leaders know how to establish and develop good relationships with their team members and other members as well.

Table 4-19 Frequency: Relate Well with Others

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL relate well with others	A, D, E, F, H, I, J, K, M, N, O, P, R, S	14	70%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

D) *Effective Leaders Have Strategic Skills*

Research has highlighted the importance of strategic skills in the leadership process. Strategic skills are conceptual skills needed to take a systems perspective in order to understand complexity, deal with ambiguity, and to exert influence in the organization (Hooijberg et al., 1997; Zaccaro, 2001; Mumford et al., 2007). Leaders with such skills are able to understand causal relationships among problems and opportunities, and then evaluate and choose alternative courses of action or strategies to deal with those organizational problems (Mumford et al., 2007). According to Zaccaro (2001),

organizational effectiveness develops from an appropriate fit between the organization and its environment (i.e., organizational co-alignment) which is managed by the respective leaders. Findings based on personal observations of thousands of managers in business and simulated business environments have identified 4 elements associated with leadership effectiveness: (1) managers who consistently and routinely apply a small number of key concepts, (2) managers who develop skills at thinking and acting strategically, (3) managers who take advantage of knowing one's personal style and its effect on others, and (4) managers who understand the nonlinear and iterative nature of strategic management processes (Stumpf and Mullen, 1991).

Accordingly, interviewees mentioned that effective leaders have strategic skills in the sense that they *“understand the business, analyze the internal and external constraints, and set the vision and strategy that makes sense”*. These leaders have strategic thinking, develop relationships with the organization's stakeholders, and are oriented to the long run. Usually, they have the ability to see opportunities where others see obstacles and threats. These leaders are conceptually skilled, and feel comfortable with ambiguity and complexity. For example, one of the informants revealed that *“in his presentations, we always discussed ‘where did we come from’, ‘where we are, and ‘where we are going’”*. Another example, *“he was number one in strategic terms, to absorb the necessary information, then synthesize and outline a strategy”*.

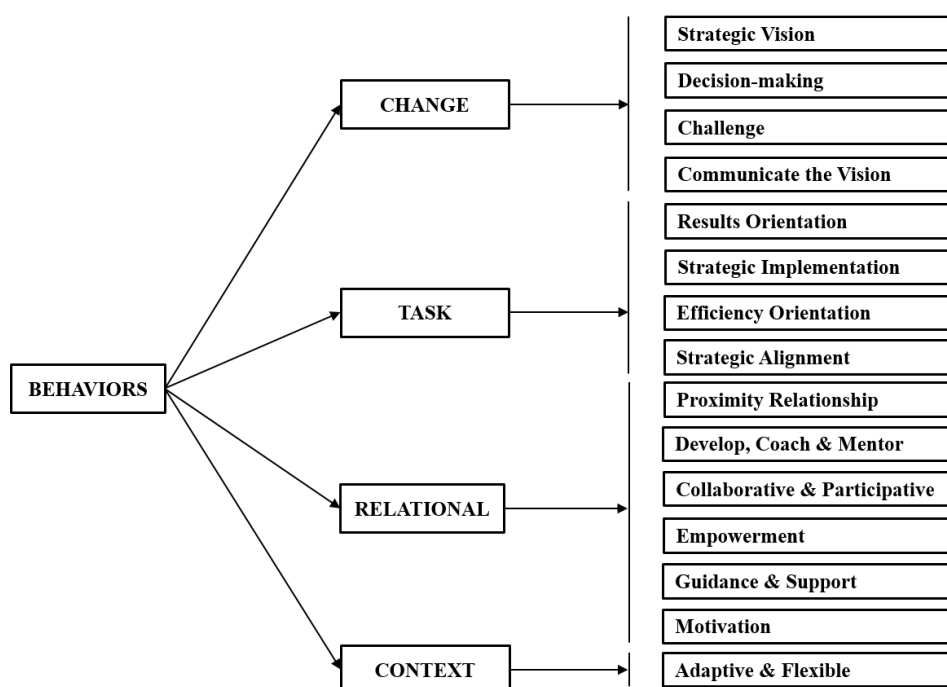
Table 4-20 Frequency: Have Strategic Skills

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL have strategic skills	A, C, F, G, H, J, K, N, O, P, Q, R, S	13	65%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

4.6.1.3. BEHAVIORAL ORIENTATION OF EFFECTIVE LEADERS

The interviews' analysis allows us to conclude that effective leaders have four behavioral orientations to change, task, relational and context (Figure 4-4). As illustrated, leaders oriented to change have a clear strategic vision, are agile and strong decision-makers, challenge their team members to give their best, and communicate well the vision. Leaders oriented to task focus on results, are concerned with the strategic implementation, have an efficiency-orientation, and conduct a continuous process of organizational alignment. Relational-oriented leaders build high-proximity relationships with their direct reports, have the ability to develop people around them, have a collaborative approach, contribute to empowering others, give guidance and support, and know how to motivate their team members. Context-driven leaders have the ability to be flexible and to adapt their behavior to different situations.

Figure 4-4 Behavioral Orientation exhibited by Effective Leaders



4.6.1.3.1. CHANGE-ORIENTED BEHAVIORS

A) *Effective Leaders Have Strategic Vision*

Leader's behaviors oriented to change involve actions like establishing a new vision, and involving followers in the transformation process. For example, transformational leaders play a key role for organizational change when they communicate a compelling vision for the future, and influence followers to accomplish more than what is expected of them (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985). Thus, establishing a new vision occurs when a leader has the ability to articulate a highly desirable future state that drives organizational change and transformation, creating a common purpose, a mission statement, group goals and an agenda for the organization (e.g., Bass, 1985; Locke, 1991; Kouzes and Posner, 1995; Bennis and Nanus, 1997; Manz, 1998; George, 2000). The

vision should be inspiring and motivate action (Bennis, 1997), and personified by the leader's own behavior in a visible and consistent way (Nanus, 1992; Snyder et al., 1994). However, the vision process is not complete until all stakeholders (employees, customers, suppliers, partners, government) understand where the organization is headed, and have a high degree of shared commitment to the vision (Nanus, 1992). Research on visionary leadership, a component of the new leadership theories, found empirical evidence of a positive relationship with employees' extra effort, which in turn relates to firm performance (House et al., 1997; Dorfman et al., 2004; Sully de Luque et al., 2008).

Almost all interviewees referred that effective leaders have a clear strategic vision. In fact, they reinforce the leader's ability to predict or create the future. For this purpose, effective leaders have a deep understanding of the internal and external variables that affect business, and are constantly scanning the environment for new opportunities. For example, one informant pointed out that a specific leader, after acknowledging a major currency depreciation changed his strategy: *"the strategy pursued had to be inverted to take advantage of the trend"*.

Interviewees indicated that leaders have different ways to create a new vision. For instance, there are leaders that impose their own vision to the organization, *"he was able to impose his own project [...] in the beginning it was difficult to convince everyone [...] but he managed to persuade all of them that his project would bring more value to the company."* Others have the ability to involve stakeholders to generate more ideas: *"... when he arrived to the organization, it was a time of chaos, and people could not understand each other. He began to listen to all parties involved, the market, colleagues, customers [...] finally, he succeeded in formulating a conciliatory vision to the extent that he managed to integrate all parties involved, making them see they were all winners and*

part of the solution.”

From the interviews, there is a clear distinction between the time span for visions established by business owners and managers. Business owners have a long-term orientation, while managers have a shorter focus depending on their own mandates. For example, as referred by one informant *“a person like him, who is the owner of the company, has a long-term vision that many CEOs, with shorter tenures and the need to get faster results, don’t have.”*

Table 4-21 Frequency: Have Strategic Vision

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL have a strategic vision	A, B, C, E, F, G, J, K, L, M, N, O, P, R, S, Q, T	17	85%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

B) *Effective Leaders Are Agile and Strong Decision-makers*

An important hallmark of leadership is strategic decision-making. Leaders often make decisions that influence organizational change, generate new competitive advantages, and affect working-force structure. Thus, effective strategy occurs when leaders have “the ability to make fast, widely supported, and high-quality strategic decision on a frequent basis” (Eisenhardt, 1999). Research has examined the relationship between leadership with decision-making and effectiveness. For example, Flood et al. (2000) found that leadership style was both direct and indirect related to consensus

decision making and with the reported effectiveness of top management teams. Another study of Carmeli and Schaubroeck (2006) found behavioral integration of top management teams to be negatively associated with organizational decline both directly and indirectly through the perceived quality of strategic decisions. Likewise, Dean and Sharfman (1996) found that decision-making processes influence strategic decision-making effectiveness, or in other words, affect the extent to which they result in desired outcomes.

The interviews revealed that effective leaders are agile and strong decision-makers. All respondents agree that the leader is the person who takes the final decision despite the fact that the decision-making process could be more or less “democratic”. For example, one of the respondents mentioned, *“he was not a consensual person [...] he listened to the team, and understood their positions, but the decisions were not reached by consensus [...] he also listened to the stakeholders, but he had always the final decision.”* Several informants reinforce the idea that for the effective leader the final decision-making stage is very solitary. Along the way, effective leaders listening to the parties of interest, promote the discussion among their team members, challenge the individuals for new ideas, and finally take the decision alone.

Informants’ comments also indicate that effective leaders often have to take difficult decisions. For instance, one of the informants refers: *“in the company’s most difficult period, he told the truth and faced reality; always in a correct and respectful way towards people [...] taking the decisions that had to be taken with such courage, at the right time and with the right principles and values.”* In addition, respondents pointed out that in adverse contexts the leader has to be very agile in taking the decision: *“in a crisis, you need someone who decides quickly.”*

Table 4-22 Frequency: Are Agile and Strong Decision-makers

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL are agile and strong decision-makers	A, C, D, E, F, H, I, J, N, O, P, R, T	13	65%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

C) *Effective Leaders Challenge and Intellectually Stimulate the Team*

Leadership literature refers to leaders that challenge and intellectually stimulate followers. According to Locke (1991), leaders challenge followers with goals, projects, tasks, and responsibilities that allow them to have a personal feeling of accomplishment (Locke, 1991). Bass (1985) considers intellectual stimulation as the focus on the development of the followers' capacity to solve future problems, enhancing their creativity and innovation. This dimension of transformational leadership has been associated with effectiveness measures, such as subordinate perceptions of leadership effectiveness and organizational performance (Lowe et al., 1996).

In the interviews, comments point out that effective leaders challenge their team members to give their best, to overcome their limits, and to achieve excellence levels. For example, one of the interviewees referred: “... *everyone has always to give his best [...] nothing should leave our hands without being sure that it is perfect [...] everyone should work at his limit of excellence.*” These leaders stimulate their team members to take risks. However, they give them all the necessary support to overcome the obstacles and be successful. One of the informants commented: “*usually, he leads people to take risks [...] I’ve always considered those risks as mine, which is very stimulating [...] when the person*

realizes that she is taking a personal risk, she also knows that there will be a backup (from the leader) at some point.”

Table 4-23 Frequency: Challenge and Intellectually Stimulate the Team

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL challenge and intellectually stimulate the team	B, C, D, E, H, I, J, K, N, P, R,	11	55%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

D) Effective Leaders Communicate the Vision

New leadership theories have referred to vision communication as the main process used by leaders to create involvement. According to George (2000), leaders need to communicate effectively the vision to the organization’s members in order to capture their emotional commitment in such a way that it becomes a shared vision. Leaders communicate effectively the vision when they articulate the vision of the organization in a convincing and inspiring way (Bass, 1990a; Hackman and Johnson, 1996; Melrose, 1997; Neuschel, 1998). Thus, leaders use vision communication to make their followers feel more identified with the organization, to have a sense of meaning and purpose in their daily working activities, and to improve their effectiveness (Bryman, 1992; Yukl, 1998). Undoubtedly, a brief, clear and inspiring vision is easier to communicate and to get followers to act accordingly (Bass, 1985; House and Shamir, 1993; Kantabutra, 2008). Based on Kantabutra’s (2003) work, several studies have examined the relationship

between vision communication and performance. Hence, vision communication was found to be an indirect predictor of staff and customer satisfaction (Kantabutra, 2007, 2008, 2010; Kantabutra and Avery, 2007).

Participants confirmed that effective leaders communicate well the vision. First, leaders when communicating the vision to their team members explain the main variables, the business plan, and the strategic rationale. They give these highlights to improve their team members' understanding of the necessary steps to have a successful implementation. For example, one of the respondents commented: *"after the strategy was decided and approved by the board, he was concerned with explaining us what were the variables, the business plan [...] he didn't simply reported the strategy [...] He was always concerned to make it clear to everyone."*

Second, the leaders communicate the vision in an inspirational way. They use examples, communication skills, and charisma to explain the "where and how" to their teams: *"he had this ability to convey the vision, and to make us feel what was the right way to get there [...] this was associated with a lot of charisma"* and *"he inspired his team members, explaining his ideas and sharing a vision."*

Finally, the interviewees refer the leader's ability to communicate complex strategies in a very clear and simple way. For instance, informants report: *"he was a very good communicator; he was able to turn complex reasoning in very simple terms. And the way, he transmitted the strategy and goals was so clear, that almost became simple."*

Table 4-24 Frequency: Communicate the Vision

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL communicate the vision	A, B, C, E, J, K, L, M, N, O, R	11	55%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

4.6.1.3.2. TASK-ORIENTED BEHAVIORS

A) *Effective Leaders Are Results-oriented*

Effective leaders are described in the literature as the ones who produce desirable outcomes. This approach is based on results-oriented management, which can be described as a system to maximize results. Along this process, managers set goals, priorities and make resources available like time, money, and capacity, while the employees provide their time, knowledge and abilities, indicating under which conditions they can deliver the desirable results (Schouten and van Beers, 2009). The effectiveness of results-based leaders is assessed by measuring achievements against the goals. This process helps organizations to track the leader's development and compare leadership effectiveness in similar roles (Ulrich et al., 1999). Several studies have examined the link between results and effective leadership. For example, Day and Lord (1988) found that executive leadership may explain as much as 45% of an organization's performance and have proposed the development of a theory of executive leadership. Other researchers agree with the perspective that leadership influences group and organizational performance (Bennis and Nanus, 1997; Alchian, 1986; Hogan et al., 1994; Yukl, 1998).

The interviews' comments reveal that effective leaders are results-oriented. Leaders focus on results, on *"make it happen"*, and on *"doing the extra mile"*. For example, one of the respondents refers *"an effective leader is the one who can get results. Indeed, today's success is measured by the results achieved."* However, participants are keen to suggest that those results are not only related to business. Effective leaders keep an eye on financial results, and on customer and staff satisfaction as a way to improve overall financial results. This broader scope is important to ensure corporate sustainability like one of the interviewees referred *"an effective leader exists for an efficient output [...] typically, projects exist to generate financial returns like EBITDA [...] but if managers only focus on EBITDA, then the long-term is at risk [...] Increasingly, managers value ethics, morality, and people who deliver results. Nevertheless, delivering results does not mean that it is 'no matter what'. Managers have to deliver results, without destroying the teams, and without making fraud."*

Table 4-25 Frequency: Are Results-oriented

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL are results-oriented	A, C, D, E, F, G, J, L, N, O, P, Q, T	13	65%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

B) *Effective Leaders Are Concerned with Strategic Implementation*

Strategic implementation is an important component of the leadership effectiveness process. According to Jick (2001), it accounts for 90% of the achieved

results. In the implementation stage, leaders have to mobilize commitment to the new vision, creating new routines and shaping the organizational culture to support and reinforce their vision. A successful vision implementation depends to a great extent on how the vision is communicated, how the staff are empowered and motivated, and how the vision is aligned with the organizational processes (e.g., Kantabutra and Avery, 2007; Kantabutra, 2010). Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996) manipulated three core components of new leadership theories: (1) vision, (2) vision implementation through task cues, and (3) communication style. Vision implementation affected both performance quality and quantity, while vision articulation only affected slightly performance quality.

Respondents also indicate that strategic implementation is an important stage for any effective leader. For example, one interviewee refers a leader's ability to implement the strategy: *"he had a vision for the company and for the business, and he was able to communicate and implement that vision [...] for this leader, vision, vision communication and, most of all, vision implementation were critical [...] he was in the implementation, and making things happen"*. In general, informants refer to leaders who also stick to their visions: *"despite the turbulence, he never lost the north, even at critical times. His initial strategy remained valid all the way"* or *"after he defined the strategy, he did not deviate a millimeter [...] this conviction and determination contributed to the results achieved"*.

Table 4-26 Frequency: Are concerned with strategic implementation

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL are concerned with strategic implementation	B, C, E, F, G, J, K, L, M, O, P, Q, S	13	65%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

C) *Effective Leaders Are Efficiency-oriented*

Literature refers to effective leaders who are efficiency-oriented. For Yukl (2008), efficiency occurs when the organization minimizes the cost of people and resources to carry out essential operations, and when work processes are conducted without unnecessary delays, errors, or accidents. According to Yukl (2008), there is a trade-off between efficiency and innovative adaptation. Leaders can increase efficiency by redesigning work processes, establishing norms and standard procedures, planning activities, and implementing process management and total quality programs. However, these activities may reduce flexibility and organizational change capacity to respond to new challenges. Research has shown that reducing unnecessary costs can improve a company's performance (e.g., Lieberman and Demester, 1999; Ebben and Johnson, 2005; Key et al., 2005). For example, in a study using flexible leadership theory as a basis to examine the extent to which a firm's long-term financial prosperity depends on human capital, efficiency, and innovation's adaptation, results indicated that the effects of human capital on long-term financial performance were partially mediated by efficiency and innovative adaptation (Mahsud et al., 2011).

Likewise, informants suggest that effective leaders have an efficiency-orientation. This orientation is referred as a major concern exhibited by the effective leaders and in some particular cases as an obsession. For example, respondents confirm that “*he was concerned with the efficiency of the organization [...] he had a monthly reporting control system [...] to follow the evolution regarding the main goals.*” Other respondents refer an obsession with efficiency, “*he was obsessed with efficiency [...] he introduced the KPIs and control systems*” and “*he focused a lot on the structure [...] he had this obsession to optimize the structure [...] he used to say ‘how can I work with fewer and better people?’*”

Table 4-27 Frequency: Are Efficiency-oriented

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL are efficiency-oriented	A, B, C, D, F, G, K, M, N, O, P, S	12	60%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

D) *Effective Leaders Reinforce the Strategic Alignment*

Alignment is a core aspect of leadership in relation to strategic implementation. Leaders use alignment as a process to get people to understand, accept, and line up in a specific direction (Kotter, 1990). Moreover, the concept of alignment implies that the work of individuals and groups in an organization is generally coherent between themselves (O'Reilly et al., 2010). Alignment is often reinforced through structure and management in larger organizations, while in smaller ones alignment may be obtained through mutual adjustment in face-to-face situations (O'Reilly et al., 2010). For example, top-level managers were found to be more effective in communicating strategic organizational goals and in obtaining higher agreement from their direct reports (Berson and Avolio, 2004). Similarly, O'Reilly et al. (2010) argue that senior leaders' ability to implement a strategic initiative may depend critically on the alignment of organizational leaders across the different hierarchical levels. In a series of studies, organizational alignment was found to be an indirect predictor of staff satisfaction, and a direct predictor of customer satisfaction (Kantabutra, 2007, 2008, 2010; Kantabutra and Avery, 2007).

For the interviewees, effective leaders conduct a continuous process of organizational alignment. For this purpose, they use mechanisms to involve other people

such as vision or goals' communication to create permanent awareness of the organization's direction, and ensuring that everyone is on the right track. For example, one of the respondents illustrated that *"the leader could forward the mission to the team, and could align people towards a certain goal"*. Another respondent reveals that the leader *"had always the concern to make a briefing with the highlights to clarify the mission, and to feel if people was aligned with him."* In general, these leaders keep reinforcing and directing people to the organizational goals *"everything was perfectly delineated, we always knew what the goals were, and we were continuously directed to those goals."*

Table 4-28 Frequency: Reinforce the Strategic Alignment

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL reinforce the strategic alignment	A, C, G, I, K, L, M, O, P, R, S	11	55%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

4.6.1.3.3. RELATIONAL-ORIENTED BEHAVIORS

A) *Effective Leaders Have a High-proximity Relationship*

The leadership literature has referred to the concept of distance in the leader-follower relationship. Napier and Ferris (1993) defined distance as a multidimensional construct including psychological, structural and functional distance between a supervisor and subordinate in terms of working relations. There are examples of relationship closeness with Bass' (1985) transformational leadership, Blake and Mouton's (1964)

“country club” managerial style, and Halpin and Winer’s (1957) leader consideration. Based on the LMX theoretical framework, results showed that leader-member relationships of high-quality are rated as having a positive impact on performance (Bauer and Green, 1996). These proximal relationships affect the agreement on members’ obligations (Tekleab and Taylor, 2003), increase job satisfaction (moderated by empowerment), and lower turnover intentions (Harris et al., 2009). For example, transformational leaders influence citizenship behaviors among their team members (Ilies et al., 2007), and a firm’s strategic orientation to corporate social responsibility (Veríssimo and Lacerda, 2010).

According to the respondents, effective leaders develop high-proximity relationships with their direct reports. These leaders value interpersonal relationships, promote informality (i.e., encourage everyone to address others by their first name), show concern and care deeply for their team members’ well-being, make people feel comfortable, and build trust among their team members. For example, one of the respondents pointed out, *“he was very close and informal [...] with his informality; he was an enhancer, leaving room for people to open up and develop closer relationships.”* Another respondent refers *“one of the characteristics of good leaders is that they can surround themselves with the right people, and always give space for people to knock on their door [...] he was an open door leader, so when people wanted to discuss anything, he was always ready to listen.”*

Table 4-29 Frequency: Have a High-proximity Relationship

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL have a high-proximity relationship	A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, K, L, M, N, O, P, R, S, T	18	90%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

B) *Effective Leaders Develop, Coach and Mentor People*

Increasingly, leadership literature focus on leaders assuming the developmental role of coaching and mentoring. Several authors have adopted a conceptualization of coaching as a form of facilitating learning to encourage growth and development (Ellinger, 1997; Ellinger et al., 2003; Hamlin et al., 2006). This concept includes leaders' behaviors toward team members such as helping to recognize opportunities to improve their performance, empowering to exceed previous levels of performance, giving guidance and support, and developing relationships that facilitates learning (Mink et al., 1993; Redshaw, 2000; Ellinger et al., 2003). Coaching generally addresses issues related to improving work performance, while mentoring is a broader concept describing a long-term process in which the focus is on personal development covering all life structures (Ellinger et al., 2003). Studies have found supervisory coaching behavior to be positively associated with employees' job satisfaction and performance (Ellinger et al., 2003), and with leadership effectiveness (Hamlin, 2004; Hamlin et al., 2006).

Similarly, interviewees illustrate effective leaders' ability to develop people and leaders around them, *“he had this ability to find the right balance between the focus he placed on developing people and on his department's contribution to overall business*

[...] *under his leadership, the company became a spin-off of talent for the Portuguese society [...] He was able to create a new generation of leaders.*” Effective leaders use mechanisms such as coaching and mentoring to develop their team members. First, these leaders know deeply well their team members. They try to understand their team members’ motives and expectations, as well as their strengths and weaknesses. Second, they use that information to help their team members grow as persons and as leaders. For instance, these leaders help their team members to think about a problem, and discuss the most effective approaches. Finally, they shape their team members’ behaviors through continuous and constructive feedback. For example, one of the interviewees pointed out the importance of feedback: *“he was a person, with that German assertiveness, who was always able to shape me as a professional through feedback [...] his immediate, positive, and constructive feedback is crucial when we are leading.”* Another respondent referred the performance assessment as an opportunity to develop their team members: *“I remember a director of a department assessed by him, mentioning that he had helped her immensely to develop”*.

Table 4-30 Frequency: Develop, Coach and Mentor People

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL develop, coach and mentor people	A, B, C, D, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, M, O, Q, S, T	16	80%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

C) *Effective Leaders Have a Collaborative & Participative Approach*

Collaborative leadership is based on the fundamental humanistic principle that people commit to a venture, if they have a stake there and the chance to participate (Raelin, 2006). As defined by Rubin (2009), collaborative approach is a purposeful relationship in which all parties strategically decide to cooperate in order to accomplish a desired goal. Collaborative leaders may use several forms such as participative management, total quality management, or organizational learning. Anyway, collaborative leadership requires participation in decision-making processes at all levels (Raelin, 2006). In this case, the leader makes maximum use of participative methods, engaging people all over the organization in decision-making processes (Likert, 1967). Few empirical studies were conducted so far in organizational settings to analyze the relationship between collaborative leadership and team performance. Nevertheless, some evidence has emerged from the similar concept of shared leadership, which has been associated with, and a significant predictor of team effectiveness, and team performance (Pearce and Sims, 2002; Sivasubramaniam et al., 2002; Mehra et al., 2006; Carson et al. 2007).

The informants agree that effective leaders have a collaborative approach in their organizations. For example, these leaders involve and engage people in the strategic process. They encourage people to express their own ideas. They promote debate and try to incorporate those ideas in the strategic decision-making process. Overall, these leaders foster a trustful organizational climate where people feel encouraged to bring new ideas, and do not feel excluded for thinking differently. One of the informants refers to this characteristic as “*a very human leadership approach, where others actually have place in the leadership dynamics implemented*”.

Table 4-31 Frequency: Have a Collaborative and Participative Approach

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL have a collaborative and participative approach	A, B, C, D, F, G, H, I, L, M, N, O, P, Q, R, S	16	80%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

D) *Effective Leaders Contribute to Empower Others*

Literature refers to empowerment as a major component of the relational-based leadership. Empowerment involves the process of entrusting others, which means that leaders give the power and authority to others, through a “pull” style of influence by attracting and energizing people, and motivating them by the identification with the leaders’ behavior (Bennis and Nanus, 1997). Leaders empower their people so they can act according to the new vision and be strongly committed to it (Conger and Kanungo, 1987). To empower followers, leaders have to make important decisions about whom they choose to assign tasks and people, the resources and supporting services available to the working groups, and how to increase autonomy, independence and responsibility of their followers (Kantabutra, 2008). Studies have found that empowerment is a direct predictor of staff and customer satisfaction (Kantabutra, 2007, 2008, 2010; Kantabutra and Avery, 2007).

According to the respondents, effective leaders contribute to empowering others. These leaders give autonomy to their direct reports, and encourage their self-initiative and self-confidence. For example, one of the respondents illustrates that “*this leader had the ability to pull up the self-esteem of the organization making everyone who directly*

reported to him owner of his/her areas and processes". Another respondent refers to "a leader who is open to new ideas and rewards self-initiative and proactivity of the employees". Simultaneously, these leaders increase their direct reports' responsibility, allocating individual goals and controlling results and timing. One of the interviewees pointed out, "the leader who wants to achieve a particular result, but leaves autonomy to get there and periodically or not, depending on the characteristics of each one, is following the results". Another interviewee reinforces this idea with "people were motivated because he gave them space and autonomy with accountability. It is not just a matter of empowering, but also making people accountable. He defined concrete goals and beacons for each one of the direct reports".

Table 4-32 Frequency: Contribute to Empower Others

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL contribute to empowering others	A, B, C, D, E, F, G, I, J, M, N, P, R, T	14	70%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

E) Effective Leaders Give Guidance and Support Others

Supportive leadership is a critical element in the organizational effectiveness theories. According to House (1981), a supportive leader is the one who provides emotional, informational, instrumental, and appraisal support to the followers. Rafferty and Griffin (2006) have adopted a narrower definition, focusing on the emotional support component, which occurs when leaders show concern for, and take account of followers'

needs and preferences when making decisions. According to House (1996), guidance is one of the leaders' behaviors that facilitate work and enhance followers' performance. A meta-analysis of Judge et al. (2004) found that consideration, which includes supportive behaviors, has a significant and positive relationship with follower satisfaction, motivation, and leader effectiveness. In addition, empirical findings indicate that supportive leadership is strongly positively related to affective commitment to the organization (Podsakoff et al., 1996).

In the interviews, this effective leadership component of guidance and support become evident. Informants refer to the leaders' ability to explain the rationale, and guide their followers to complete specific objectives, to provide guidance on "*what is important for the organization*", and give advice on "*how to solve problems*". These leaders instead of giving direct instruction on "*what*" and "*how*" to do things, they raise the attention for what is important and challenge their team members to select their own pathways. With these leaders, problems acquire another dimension, and become simpler and easier to solve. In this context, followers are aware that they can always rely on the leader to support them, most especially when difficulties arise. For example, one of the interviewees illustrates well this topic: "*when there are drawbacks, we knew that the leader would support us [...] his behaviors are a combination of challenge and guidance [...] that person was critical to give us security and to make us feel comfortable.*"

Table 4-33 Frequency: Give Guidance and Support Others

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL give guidance and support others	B, C, D, E, F, H, J, K, L, M, S, T	12	60%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

F) *Effective Leaders Motivate their Team*

Research has suggested that leaders motivate followers to work toward a common direction in order to achieve desirable performance. Motivation can be defined as the leader's ability to influence or persuade others to behave in a specific manner, consisting of energy, direction, and sustainability (Kroth, 2007). Specifically, leaders motivate their followers through role modeling, building their self-esteem, creating challenging goals, delegating tasks, and rewarding their performance consistent with the vision (Locke et al., 1991). Several studies have examined the relationship between motivation and performance outcomes, finding that followers' motivation is a direct predictor of staff and customer satisfaction (Kantabutra, 2007, 2008, 2010; Kantabutra and Avery, 2007).

Specifically, interviewees mention effective leaders as the ones that know how to motivate others. These leaders make their team members feel well, valued, and happy. One of the respondents reveals, "*this leader knew that the only way to reach his goals was to have people aligned, satisfied and happy*" and "*that extra mile only happens if people feel good*". For example, the same respondent recalls, "*during the World Cup, it was decided to stop production, and people were so glad they ended up producing more*". The team members' motivation depends largely on the relationship they have with their

leaders as confirmed by one of the respondents.

Table 4-34 Frequency: Motivate their Team

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL motivate their team	A, B, C, F, G, I, K, L, M, O, T	11	55%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

4.6.1.3.4. CONTEXT-ORIENTED BEHAVIORS

Effective Leaders Are Adaptive and Flexible

In rapidly changing environments, research indicates that leaders need constantly to adapt to or cope with changes in their workplace in a constructive and effective way (Ilgen and Pulakos, 1999; Blass and Ferris, 2007). Hall et al. (1998, p. 4) suggest that adaptivity or behavioral flexibility occurs when “individuals are both able and willing to make different (and presumably, appropriate) social responses in different social contexts”. Overall, adaptive individuals have social knowledge, perceptiveness and, above all, context-awareness to match their behavior to situational demands (Zaccaro et al., 1991; Hall et al., 1998). Research has found that people high in behavioral flexibility have higher social abilities (Sypher and Sypher, 1983), make the conversation more pleasurable using humor (Turner, 1980), and solve social conflicts through collaboration and compromise (Baron, 1989). Furthermore, studies conducted in different settings have found empirical evidence that supports a significant relationship between job performance and adaptivity (e.g., Caldwell and O'Reilly, 1982; Lan, 1996; Biais et al.,

2005).

Almost all interviewees referred to the ability of effective leaders to be flexible and adapt their behavior to the context and people. These leaders often work in different contexts (i.e., in different countries or companies). First, they understand well people and the contextual variables. Then, they learn how to adapt their leadership style. Respondents mentioned how these leaders adapted their behavior according to the seniority, experience, and developmental stage of their team members. As illustrated by one of the respondents, *“in certain teams with higher levels of seniority, the leader can give greater autonomy and decrease his control”*. *“However, in other teams if he had the same leadership style it would be a total debacle, for instance in very young teams, in the beginning of a project, or when there is a lack of organizational capacity and planning”*. Other examples emerged from the interviews regarding leaders who adapt their communication style and message to the specific audience *“a person attentive to others and to the context, who knew how to be more reserved or outspoken as the situation required”*.

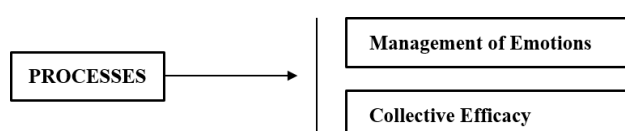
Table 4-35 Frequency: Are Adaptive and Flexible

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL are adaptive and flexible	A, B, C, D, E, H, J, L, M, N, O, P, R, S, T	15	75%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

4.6.1.4. AFFECTIVE AND EFFICACY PROCESSES

Qualitative findings show evidence that effective leaders use additional processes to engage people and produce organizational outcomes such as the management of emotions and collective efficacy (Figure 4-5). Specifically, effective leaders show their emotions to create emotional contagion and positive arousal, and make their team members believe it is possible to achieve superior results.

Figure 4-5 Leadership Processes used by Effective Leaders



4.6.1.4.1. MANAGEMENT OF OTHER'S EMOTIONS

Effective Leaders Show their Emotions to Create Emotional Contagion and Positive Arousal

Emerging research is considering leadership as an emotional process, where leaders display emotion, and attempt to evoke emotion in their members to generate excitement, enthusiasm, confidence, and optimism (Dasborough and Ashkanasy, 2002). According to Fredrickson (2003), leaders' positive emotions may contaminate other members' emotions in such a way that enables organizational learning and transformation. Sy et al. (2005) also found a link between leaders' moods, the moods of their group members, and the affective tone of the group. When leaders influence their followers' positive emotions, and they experience positive affect, a reciprocal effect

occurs through emotional contagion, and leaders' emotions are influenced, enhancing a mutual hedonic well-being (Ilies et al., 2005).

Leaders understand and influence the followers' emotions in such a way that affects their future behaviors, such as improving their creativity and their own confidence in solving problems successfully (Isen et al., 1987; George, 2000). In this process, leaders start by empathizing and identifying with the collective emotional state of group members, understand the factors that cause the emotional state, and then manage the situation that fostered the emotional reaction, communicating their responses both verbally and by taking action (Pescosolido, 2002). Thus, the leader takes into consideration the situation, sets the emotional tone and context for the group members to arouse their own emotional responses.

Several studies have examined the association between the management of emotions and leadership outcomes. For example, Gaddis et al. (2004) found that leader negative affect was related to lower leader effectiveness scores and lower group performance. Newcombe and Ashkanasy (2002) found a positive relationship between a leader's positive feedback and exhibited congruent positive affect and followers' perception of leader effectiveness, while leaders displaying negative affect and delivering positive feedback were rated as least effective. Van Kleef et al. (2009) demonstrated that leader positive emotional displays resulted in more positive affective reactions and favorable inferences about performance than negative displays. In another study, from McColl-Kennedy and Anderson (2002), frustration and optimism were found to have a direct and an opposite influence on performance measured as an objective individual's actual performance. Finally, Bono and Ilies (2006) examined the association between the leaders' positive emotional expressions and the mood states of simulated followers. The

authors found that mood contagion might be one of the psychological mechanisms by which charismatic leaders influence followers. In this case, they found a positive link between leader emotions and followers' mood, and both leaders' positive emotional expressions and followers' mood affected the ratings of leader effectiveness, and attraction to the leader.

Likewise, respondents refer to the management of other's emotions by the leader. Effective leaders show their emotions in various situations. For example, they use their sense of humor to lighten up the environment in long and boring meetings, and generate enthusiasm. One of the respondents illustrates *"he used positive emotions and was energizing in important, and yet long and boring, meetings that were conducted in a lighter way to mobilize people"*. They also speak with enthusiasm to generate emotional contagion and positive energy in the team. Another respondent refers to *"he spoke with brilliance and enthusiasm [...] there was an emotional contagion, because things were so interesting, and different that people ended up to get excited [...] he presented in a more appealing and sexy way that led people to awaken"*. These leaders create a positive environment around them, and celebrate all the successes along the way with their team members.

Table 4-36 Frequency: Show their Emotions to Create Emotional Contagion and Positive Arousal

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL show their emotions to create emotional contagion and positive arousal	A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, M, O, P, R, S	15	75%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

4.6.1.4.2. INFLUENCE COLLECTIVE EFFICACY

Effective Leaders Make People Believe it is Possible

Research has suggested that leaders and followers when interact they reciprocally influence each other's sense of efficacy (Hannah et al., 2008). This collective efficacy is defined as a group's shared belief in its conjoint capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce specific levels of accomplishments, and develops through successful group interaction, but requires self-efficacy processes at the individual level (Bandura, 1997, 2000). Leaders and followers with high levels of self-efficacy display efficacious behaviors during group interactions, which will signal to each other that they will successfully accomplish group tasks. A special case is the leadership efficacy that can be defined as the leaders' behaviors of setting a direction for the work group, building relationships with followers to gain their commitment to achieve goals, and overcome obstacles (Paglis and Green, 2002).

Empirical findings have shown that leaders high in leadership efficacy achieve superior results both in terms of individual performance and in their ability to inspire followers to achieve higher levels of collective efficacy and performance (Paglis, 2010). For example, Hoyt et al. (2003) found that leadership efficacy was positively related to task efficacy and perceptions of collective efficacy by the leader, which in turn predicted follower collective efficacy judgments. Other literature also successfully linked collective efficacy with group performance outcomes (Peterson et al., 2000; Chen et al., 2002; Gully et al., 2002; Taggar and Seijts, 2003; Katz-Navon and Erez, 2005).

Informants agree that effective leaders are high in leadership efficacy and influence overall organizational efficacy. These leaders make substantive argumentation

with several examples from their professional history to make people believe in their mission. For example, one of the interviewees revealed that this leader “*persuaded people with concrete facts showing that we have made the best choices*”. Other respondents refer to the leader’s ability “*to pull up the self-esteem of the organization*”, and “*to show that things are possible, even though sometimes are difficult to achieve*”. Overall, these leaders strongly believe that their mission will be successful, and transmit that same belief to their team members: “*their team members become so confident in the strategic vision of the leader that consequently it will be achieved.*”

Table 4-37 Frequency: Make People Believe it is Possible

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
EL make people believe it is possible	B, C, E, G, K, L, M, N, O, P, Q, R, S	13	65%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

4.6.2. CONTEXT MATTERS: THE INTERPLAY BETWEEN CONTEXT AND LEADERSHIP

Several researchers have referred to the interaction between leadership and context. Leaders may be considered as an integral part of the system, as such, shape and are shaped by the forces affecting that system (Gardner, 1993). For example, leadership is context sensitive in the sense that leaders in deciding what to change and the process to do it are bound by the context within and outside the firm (Pettigrew and Whipp, 1991). Context includes situational opportunities and constraints that affect the occurrence and

meaning of organizational behavior as well as the functional relationships between variables (Johns, 2006). Most studies based on Fiedler's (1964, 1971) contingency model have included situational factors associated with leadership effectiveness based on two main factors: (1) a leader's attribute, referring to task or relationship motivational orientation (formerly referred to as style), and (2) a leader's situational control (formerly referred to as situational favorability). The model provides evidence that leaders who have a task motivational orientation compared to those who have a relationship orientation will be more successful in high and low-control situations, while relationship oriented leaders when compared to task-oriented leaders will be more effective in moderate control situations (Fiedler, 1978; Ayman et al., 1995).

Similarly, all the respondents agree that leadership and context are mutually interdependent. Several respondents referred to examples of contextual factors influencing leadership, such as the economic situation (crisis vs. growth), volatility and turbulence, control of the company (private vs. public, national vs. multinational), leader's autonomy and empowerment, team seniority, longevity and size of the organization, complexity of the business, and global or national orientation. On the other hand, leadership may influence the organizational context in the sense that the leader's attitudes affect the overall climate, stress levels, team emotions, employee satisfaction levels, relationship with society, corporate reputation, organizational culture and values.

In addition, respondents mentioned how context may affect leadership effectiveness. For example, one of the informants commented: "*adverse contexts amplify the leadership effectiveness in the sense that if the leader does not have the capacity it becomes more visible. More adverse is the context, more salient is leadership effectiveness.*" As pointed out by another respondent, necessarily leaders' levels of

effectiveness vary according with the context: “*there are leaders who work very well in a particular context, but when they change to another industry they are not as effective, and it’s difficult for them to adapt*”.

Table 4-38 Frequency: Interplay between Context and Leadership

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
Context and leadership influence each other	A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, M, N, O, P, Q, R, S, T	20	100%
Total Possible Occurrences		20	100%

4.6.3. MEASURES FOR LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

Scholars have been using different types of measures to evaluate leadership effectiveness. These measures can be categorized into: (1) subjective ratings from peers, supervisors or subordinates (Bass and Yammarino, 1991; Judge and Bono, 2000; Judge et al, 2002a); (2) objective organizational goals (House et al., 1991; Curphy, 1993); and (3) integrated measures combining the two previous types (Parry and Proctor-Thomson, 2002; DeRue et al., 2011). In a recent study, DeRue et al. (2011) have suggested the use of mixed criteria to assess leadership effectiveness.

Unanimously, interviewees were keen to report the use of mixed metrics to evaluate leadership effectiveness. Respondents referred to metrics that can also be classified into: (1) subjective ratings, and (2) objective organizational goals. From the panoply of metrics, respondents illustrated as the most widely used: satisfaction of customers, satisfaction of employees, relationship with direct managers, level of

motivation, performance evaluation, employee attrition and absenteeism, level of innovation, organizational climate, financial results (short, medium, and long term), market share, sales, profitability, debt ratios, added-value, division's contribution to the overall business. In table 4-39, we report the examples of measures suggested by the interviewees as the most adequate to evaluate leadership effectiveness.

Table 4-39 Frequency: Measures for Leadership Effectiveness

Theme	Occurrence		
	Examples	Frequency	Percent
Subjective ratings (satisfaction of customers, satisfaction of employees, relationship with direct managers, level of motivation, performance evaluation, level of innovation, organizational climate)	A, B, C, D, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, N, O, R, S, T	16	89%
Objective organizational goals (market share, sales, profitability, debt ratios, added-value, division's contribution to the overall business, employee attrition and absenteeism)	A, B, C, E, F, D, G, H, I, J, K, L, M, N, O, R, S, T	18	100%
Total Possible Occurrences		18*	100%

Note: From the twenty interviewees, two did not respond to the last question of the interview guide due to the lack of time.

4.7. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

In the previous sections, data collected from the managers' interviews was analyzed in view of the theoretical framework for leadership effectiveness. During this process, we have identified four dimensions and thirty sub-dimensions or categories related to leadership effectiveness. Table 4-40 summarizes the main findings classified according with the theoretical perspective of traits, skills, behaviors, and processes. These dimensions are broken down by detailed categories, and the respective frequency that each category was mentioned in the interviews is indicated.

Table 4-40 Main Findings of the Qualitative Study

	Categories	Examples of Evidence from Interviews	Freq.	Author(s)
TRAITS	Trust & Trustworthy	<i>"A key feature of a leader is to generate a good teamwork, a culture of trust in the direct team, but also throughout the organization"</i> .	18/45	Gillespie and Mann, 2004; Dirks, 1999; Salamon and Robinson, 2008
	Emotional Control	<i>"This leader dealt with his negative emotions contrasting and exhibiting very positive emotions. He managed some difficult situations with great emotional capabilities"</i> .	17/37	Feyerherm and Rice, 2002
	Intelligence	<i>"The leader was an extraordinarily intelligent and wise person."</i>	16/41	Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991
	Self-confidence	<i>"Despite his strong beliefs he was not cockish. He believed in his capabilities, in his goals, and was successful in making it happen"</i> .	16/39	Anderson et al., 2008; Hannah et al., 2008
	Goal Orientation	<i>"For this leader to fail a goal was like not fulfilling a promise"</i> .	15/40	VandeWalle et al., 1999
	Integrity & Ethical Behavior	<i>"He instilled concern about standards of conduct, so people could realize what they did wrong and could evolve as persons and leaders"</i> .	15/29	Hoijberg et al., 2010

SKILLS	Emotional Intelligence	<i>"An ability to put himself in the shoes of others and thus find understanding platforms that lead to problem solving".</i>	12/30	Avolio, 2003; Caruso et al., 2002; Salovey et al., 2002
	Open & Transparent	<i>"These leaders may in fact be very good leaders [...] they are transparent, and people trust them a lot".</i>	12/24	Rego et al. 2012, 2013
	Altruistic & Self-centered but Caring for Others	<i>"It's very difficult for someone very much self-centered to be a good leader because a good leader has to focus his attention on his surroundings". "But his self-centeredness was not an impediment for him to worry about his people. On the contrary, he was a very balanced person in these two valences."</i>	11/26	Kanungo, 2001; Singh and Krishman, 2007
	Communication Skills	<i>"He was a good communicator, and above all a communicator who could adapt the style and message to his audience".</i>	19/88	Saiyadain, 2003; Talukder, 2012
	Active Listening	<i>"A good leader is able to hold a conversation for half an hour or an hour without giving an answer, just asking questions and genuinely listening".</i>	16/42	Kramer, 1997
	Social Skills	<i>"He was an expert in the management of one-to-one relationships, and loved to be the center of attention in small groups".</i>	14/20	Riggio et al., 2003
	Strategic Skills	<i>"Understand the business, analyze the internal and external constraints, and set the vision and strategy that makes sense".</i>	13/27	Stumpf and Mullen, 1991
	Change-oriented Behaviors			
	Strategic Vision	<i>"He succeeded in formulating a conciliatory vision to the extent that he managed to integrate all parties involved".</i>	17/60	Dorfman et al., 2004; House et al., 1997; Sully de Luque et al., 2008
	Decision-making	<i>"He was taking the decisions that had to be taken with such a courage, at the right time, and with the right principles and values".</i>	13/28	Dean and Sharfman, 1996; Flood et al., 2000
BEHAVIORS	Challenge & Intellectually Stimulate	<i>"Everyone has always to give his best and work at his limit of excellence".</i>	11/18	Lowe et al., 1996
	Communicate the Vision	<i>"He was concerned with explaining us what were the variables and the business plan".</i>	11/15	Kantabutra, 2007, 2008, 2010; Kantabutra and Avery, 2007

Task-oriented Behaviors

Results-oriented	<i>“An effective leader is the one who can get results. Indeed, today’s success is measured by the results achieved”.</i>	13/35	Day and Lord, 1988
Strategic Implementation	<i>“He had a vision for the company and for the business, and he was able to communicate and implement that vision”.</i>	13/24	Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1996
Efficiency-oriented	<i>“He was concerned with the efficiency of the organization. He had a monthly reporting control system to follow the evolution.”</i>	12/19	Mahsud et al., 2011
Strategic Alignment	<i>“He had always the concern to make a briefing with the highlights to clarify the mission and to feel if people was aligned with him”.</i>	11/16	O’Reilly et al., 2010

Relational-oriented Behaviors

High-proximity relationship	<i>“With his informality, he was an enhancer, leaving room for people to open up, and develop closer relationships”.</i>	18/70	Bauer and Green, 1996; Harris et al., 2009
Develop, Coach, and Mentor	<i>“Under his leadership, the company became a spin-off of talent for the Portuguese society. He was able to create a new generation of leaders”.</i>	16/54	Ellinger et al., 2003; Hamlin, 2004; Hamlin et al., 2006
Collaborative & Participative	<i>“A very human leadership approach, where others actually have a place in the leadership dynamics implemented”.</i>	16/49	Carson et al., 2007; Mehra et al., 2006; Pearce and Sims, 2002
Empowerment	<i>“This leader had the ability to pull up the self-esteem of the organization making everyone who directly reported to him owner of his/her areas and processes”.</i>	14/45	Kantabutra, 2007, 2008, 2010; Kantabutra and Avery, 2007
Guidance & Support	<i>“When there are drawbacks, we know that the leader support us. His behaviors are a combination of challenge and guidance”.</i>	12/39	Judge et al., 2004; Podsakoff et al., 1996
Motivation	<i>“This leader knew that the only way to reach their goals was to have people aligned, satisfied, and happy”.</i>	11/18	Kantabutra, 2007, 2008, 2010; Kantabutra and Avery, 2007

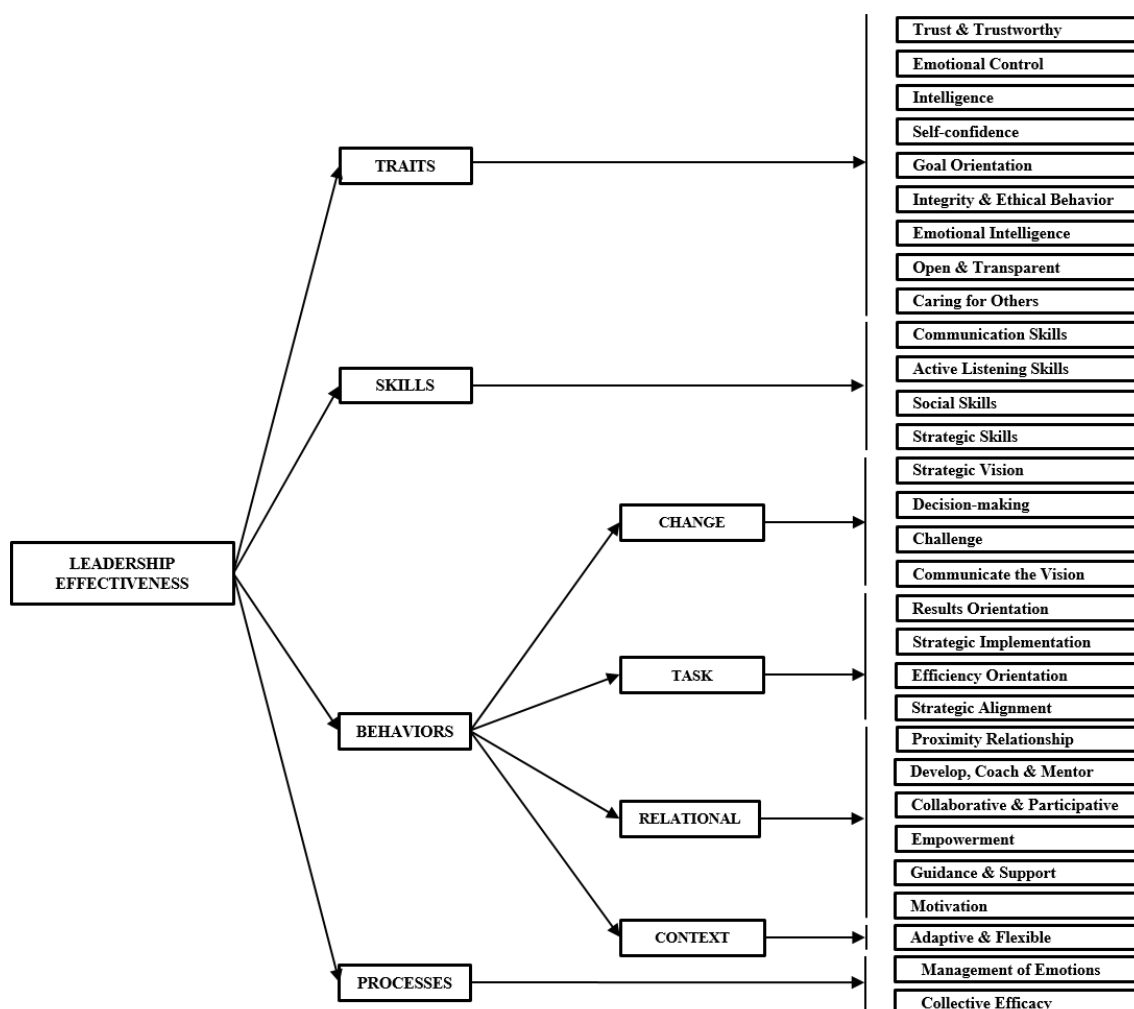
Context-oriented Behaviors

Adaptive & Flexible	<i>“In certain teams with higher levels of seniority, the leader can give greater</i>	15/44	Biais et al., 2005; Caldwell

		<i>autonomy and decrease his control. However, in other teams if he had the same leadership style it would be a total debacle”.</i>		and O’Reilly, 1982; Lan, 1996
PROCESSES	Emotional Contagion & Positive Arousal	<i>“He spoke with brilliance and enthusiasm that there was an emotional contagion, because things were so interesting and different that people ended up getting excited”.</i>	15/30	Newcombe and Ashkanasy, 2002; Van Kleef et al., 2009; Bono and Ilies, 2006
	Collective Efficacy	<i>“Their team member became so confident in the strategic vision of the leader that consequently it will be achieved”.</i>	13/18	Paglis, 2010; Chen et al., 2002; Gully et al., 2002

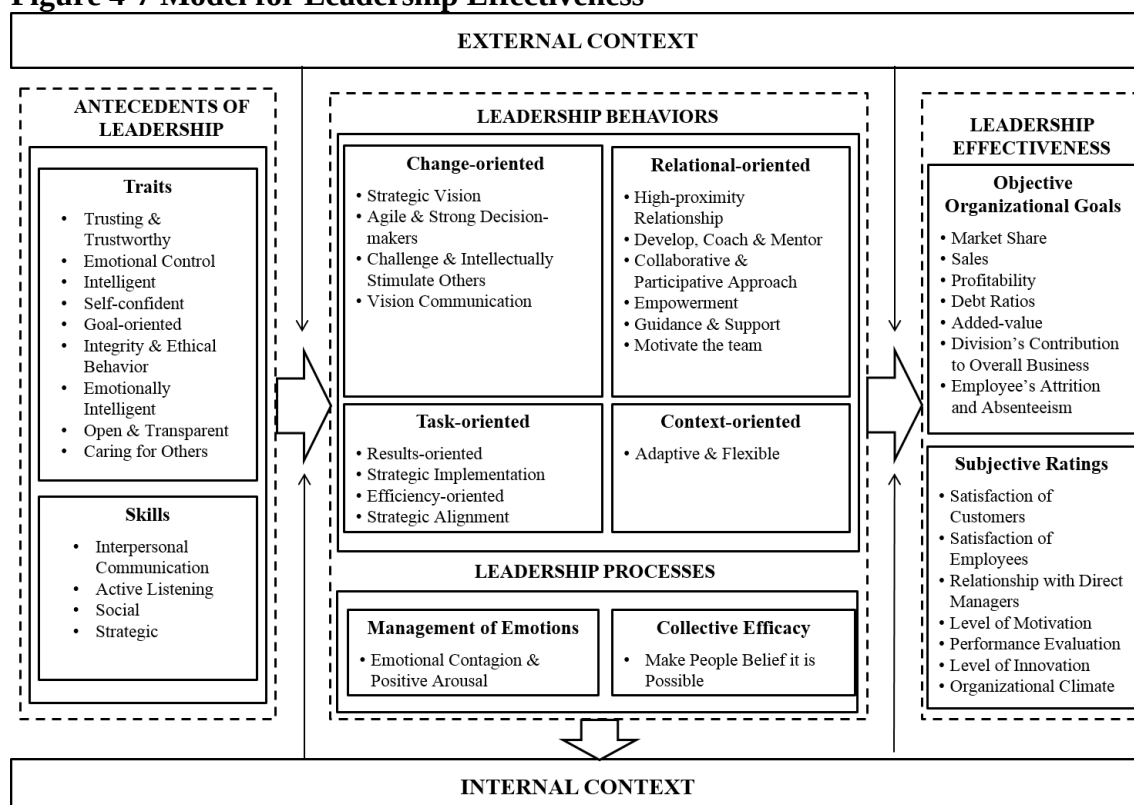
The aforementioned dimensions and respective categories can be organized into a hierarchical taxonomy for leadership effectiveness as illustrated in Figure 4-6. This representation has the advantage to highlight the categories classified according to the theoretical framework reviewed in Chapter 2.

Figure 4-6 Hierarchical Taxonomy for Leadership Effectiveness



Through our analysis, we have found preliminary evidence of the validity and applicability of an integrated conceptual model for leadership effectiveness. All the interviewees referred characteristics pertaining to effective leaders that could be categorized as traits, skills, behaviors and processes. Even though we cannot establish at this stage the causal relationships between the categories revealed in the qualitative findings, we use the same frame, resulting from the literature review, to present a model for leadership effectiveness (Figure 4-7).

Figure 4-7 Model for Leadership Effectiveness



Given that leadership effectiveness still lacks an integrated theoretical perspective, the main purpose of this research was to explore and understand the underlying components of this construct. Findings from the qualitative study validate a model for leadership effectiveness that includes traits, skills, behaviors and processes of leadership. In addition, this research derives a more precise definition for leadership effectiveness that might be used by scholars and practitioners alike. Furthermore, it provides evidence that leadership effectiveness is a multidimensional construct, and identifies new effective leadership behaviors, not accounted in our previous model (Figure 4-1). Thus, we revisit each one of the suggested propositions in view of the qualitative findings:

Proposition 1 — *Leadership effectiveness refers to the leader's ability to influence his team, group and organization toward the achievement of common goals to enhance the corporate long-term performance and sustainability.*

The evidence collected from the interviews provides clear support to this proposition. For respondents, an effective leader is the one who is able to involve the whole team and convince everyone to achieve results, and to enhance the organization's sustainable growth. For example, one of the interviewees illustrated “*the most effective leader achieves results involving people*”. This perspective is in line with Yukl (1989), who suggested that a leader is effective when his group or organization performs its tasks successfully and attains its goals. Moreover, interviewees acknowledge that results are viewed on a wider perspective, including areas such as economic, social and environmental. As one of the respondents pointed out, “*organizations are primarily made to achieve results balancing the different areas of sustainability*”. This emphasizes the increasingly corporate leaders' orientation to corporate sustainability, whereby they have to balance carefully the interests and claims of several stakeholder groups as their organizations are part of an integrated social and ecological network (Freeman, 1984, 1994; West, 1995; Harris and Freeman 2008).

Proposition 2 — *Leadership effectiveness is a multidimensional construct comprised of the following dimensions: (1) traits, (2) skills, (3), behaviors, and (4) processes.*

Through our analysis, we have found evidence to support that leadership effectiveness is a multidimensional construct. By grouping the categories found in the qualitative data, we could easily find common patterns and identify four main dimensions corresponding to traits, skills, behaviors and processes. All the interviewees mentioned categories belonging to these four dimensions. Our findings contribute to an integrated perspective of leadership effectiveness that will be further examined in the next Chapter.

Proposition 3 — *Effective leadership behaviors is a multidimensional construct comprised of three behavioral dimensions: (1) relational-orientation, (2) task-orientation, and (3) change-orientation.*

As expected, the evidence collected shows support for effective leadership behaviors as a multidimensional construct. Previous research pointed to three leadership behaviors as determinants of organizational effectiveness: change-oriented, relational-oriented, and task-oriented (Yukl, 2008). From our analysis, we found support for these three leadership behaviors. All the categories coded as leadership behaviors could easily be included in, at least, one of the aforementioned orientations. However, an additional dimension emerged throughout our analysis corresponding to an orientation that effective leaders have toward the context. Almost all interviewees illustrated the ability of effective leaders to be flexible and to adapt their behavior according to a particular situation. This perspective is both conceptual and empirically supported in the leadership literature.

Indeed, Snyder (1979) posits that adaptive individuals are more aware of which behaviors are socially appropriate for a given situation, and know how to regulate their

behaviors. Particularly when considering a leadership role, behavioral flexibility is important to facilitate contextual performance (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997), to solve conflicts through collaboration and compromise (Baron, 1989), and to increase job performance (Caldwell and O'Reilly, 1982; Biais et al., 2005). Therefore, these findings suggest that effective leadership behaviors is a multidimensional construct composed of four dimensions: relational-orientation, task-orientation, change-orientation, and context-orientation. Further investigation is conducted in the next Chapter related to the multidimensionality of this construct.

Proposition 4 — *Leadership effectiveness and contextual factors interact with each other to determine jointly the performance of an organization.*

Finally, our qualitative findings support this proposition. All the respondents agree that leadership and context are interdependent, and jointly affect organizational effectiveness. Several contextual factors were identified throughout our analysis that influence leadership effectiveness, such as the economic situation, leader's autonomy and empowerment, complexity of the business, and longevity and size of the organization. Conversely, leadership might affect context in the sense that leader's attitudes and behaviors influence team emotions, stress levels, employee satisfaction levels, and organizational culture. The impact of contextual factors will also be examined in the next Chapter.

4.8. CONCLUSION

This Chapter has presented the findings from the first phase of the mixed methods research, which sought to explore the main components of leadership effectiveness among corporate managers. This objective was achieved through the collection and analysis of qualitative data from semi-structured interviews held with a diverse sample of top corporate managers. The findings from the qualitative analysis identified a number of explanatory factors perceived by the informants to underlie the process of leadership effectiveness as illustrated in Figures 4-6 and 4-7. Several examples demonstrating experiences conveyed a clear understanding of leadership effectiveness in their narratives. In concluding this Chapter, the key findings are discussed in light of the set of propositions withdrawn from the theoretical framework.

CHAPTER 5 – CONNECTING QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE PHASES

5.1. INTRODUCTION

This research is driven by the question “How are some leaders more effective than others?” To answer this question a mixed methods research approach was followed, with a sequential exploratory strategy. In the previous Chapter, qualitative data was collected to find the main characteristics of effective leaders, and other factors that drive leadership effectiveness. Data was classified using the theoretical framework described in Chapter 2 into categories of traits, skills, behaviors and processes. Therefore, we have now redefined the scope of the research focusing on the categories that generated more interest among participants, and were covered by extant literature.

In this Chapter, we detail the theoretical foundations and hypothesized model that will guide the quantitative research. We start with the theoretical position grounded in the qualitative findings to select the constructs under study in the quantitative phase. Then, after reviewing the literature, we propose a hypothesized model for leadership effectiveness. In this model, we have included control variables, exogenous variables, contextual factors, and the endogenous variable. Specifically, we define the constructs and explain the associations among them, and in relation to the endogenous variable. The Chapter finalizes with a summary of the proposed hypotheses that will be evaluated in the quantitative analysis.

5.2. PURPOSE, RESEARCH QUESTIONS, AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this quantitative study was to investigate how the combination of several factors like the leader’s individual characteristics, the leader’s behavioral

mechanisms, and contextual factors influence overall performance. Specifically, the following questions were investigated:

RQ 4 – What is the model of leadership effectiveness that can be used to explain organizational effectiveness?

RQ 5 – What is the relationship between contextual factors and organizational effectiveness?

In light of the previous considerations, our objectives for the quantitative phase are as follows:

Objective 1 – To develop a model of leadership effectiveness.

Objective 2 – To test the relationship between the main characteristics of effective leaders identified in the exploratory stage and organizational effectiveness.

Objective 3 – To test the relationship between the main factors identified in the exploratory stage and organizational effectiveness.

Objective 4 – To test the moderating role of contextual factors on organizational effectiveness.

5.3. THEORETICAL POSITION

The literature on leadership effectiveness reviewed in Chapter 2 included several prominent theories that have dominated the academic field of leadership in the last years, such as traits, skills, behavioral, and situational approaches. Several authors (e.g., Gordon

and Yukl, 2004; Avolio, 2007; DeRue et al., 2011) have encouraged an integrative approach in order to better understand the effects those concepts have on leadership outcomes. Consequently, in this study, we follow an integrative approach supported by the qualitative findings, which suggested several traits, skills, and behaviors of effective leaders mentioned more frequently by the interview participants.

Given that this study aims to find out which concepts are the most important, we have considered the categories with most weight among the interviewees, and crossed those references with the ones depicted in the literature as significant factors that affect leadership effectiveness. Results are presented in Table 5-1. All these concepts have empirical support for the link to leadership effectiveness. Therefore, these are the categories to explore in the quantitative phase of the research.

Table 5-1 Concepts to Explore in the Quantitative Study

Parent	Category	Qualitative Study (a)	Literature (b)
Skills	Communication Skills	19/88	145
Behaviors	High-proximity Relationship	18/70	449
Traits	Trusting & Trustworthy	18/45	335
Behaviors	Strategic Vision	17/60	41
Traits	Emotional Control	17/37	79
Skills	Active Listening	16/42	39
Traits	Self-confidence	16/39	246
Behaviors	Adaptive Behavior	15/44	847
Traits	Goal-Orientation	15/40	96
Behaviors	Empowerment	14/45	603
Behaviors	Agile & Strong Decision Makers	13/28	78
Behaviors	Strategic Implementation	13/24	23
Traits	Care for Others	11/26	313
Behaviors	Motivate the team	11/18	1524
Behaviors	Challenge their Team	11/18	1208
Behaviors	Strategic Alignment	11/16	33
Behaviors	Vision Communication	11/15	19

Notes: a) Number of interviews in which the category appeared and total number of times the category appeared in the data; b) Number of articles published in peer-reviewed scholarly journals (Boolean search in ProQuest). The search was filtered by crossing the category with leadership effectiveness.

From the literature review, we have captured the theoretical constructs associated with the categories identified in the qualitative findings, and their respective measures. This step was necessary to establish a bridge between previous studies and our conceptual model. In Table 5-2, we present the full list of categories associated with the respective construct and measure.

Table 5-2 Constructs associated with the Qualitative Findings

Category	Construct	Measure	References
Trusting & Trustworthy	Agreeableness	Big Five Personality Mini-IPIP	Goldberg, 1990; Donnellan et al., 2006
Emotional Control	Emotional Stability		
Altruistic & Caring	Agreeableness		
Goal-Orientation	Learning Goal Orientation	Learning Goal Orientation	VandeWalle, 1997
Self-confidence	Leadership self-efficacy	Leadership self-efficacy	Feasel, 1995; Chan and Drasgow, 2001
Communication Skills	Interpersonal Communication Skills	Communicator Competence	Monge et al., 1982
Active Listening Skills	Interpersonal Communication Skills	Active Listening Skills	Mishima et al., 2000
High-Proximity Relationship	Proximal Working Relationship	LMX	Napier and Ferris, 1993; Scandura and Green, 1984; Liden et al., 1993; Wayne et al., 1997; Janssen and Van Yperen, 2004
Strategic Vision	Vision Articulation & Realization	Vision Articulation	House, 1998
Vision Communication		Vision Realization	Kantabutra, 2003, 2008
Empowerment	Proactive Behaviors	Team Member Proactivity	Griffin et al., 2007
Strategic Implementation			
Organizational Alignment	Adaptive Behavior	Self-monitoring	Snyder, 1974, 1979; Lennox and Wolf, 1984
Agile & Strong Decision Makers		Team Member Adaptivity	Griffin et al., 2007
Challenge their Team			
Adaptive Behavior			

5.4. PROPOSED HYPOTHESIZED MODEL

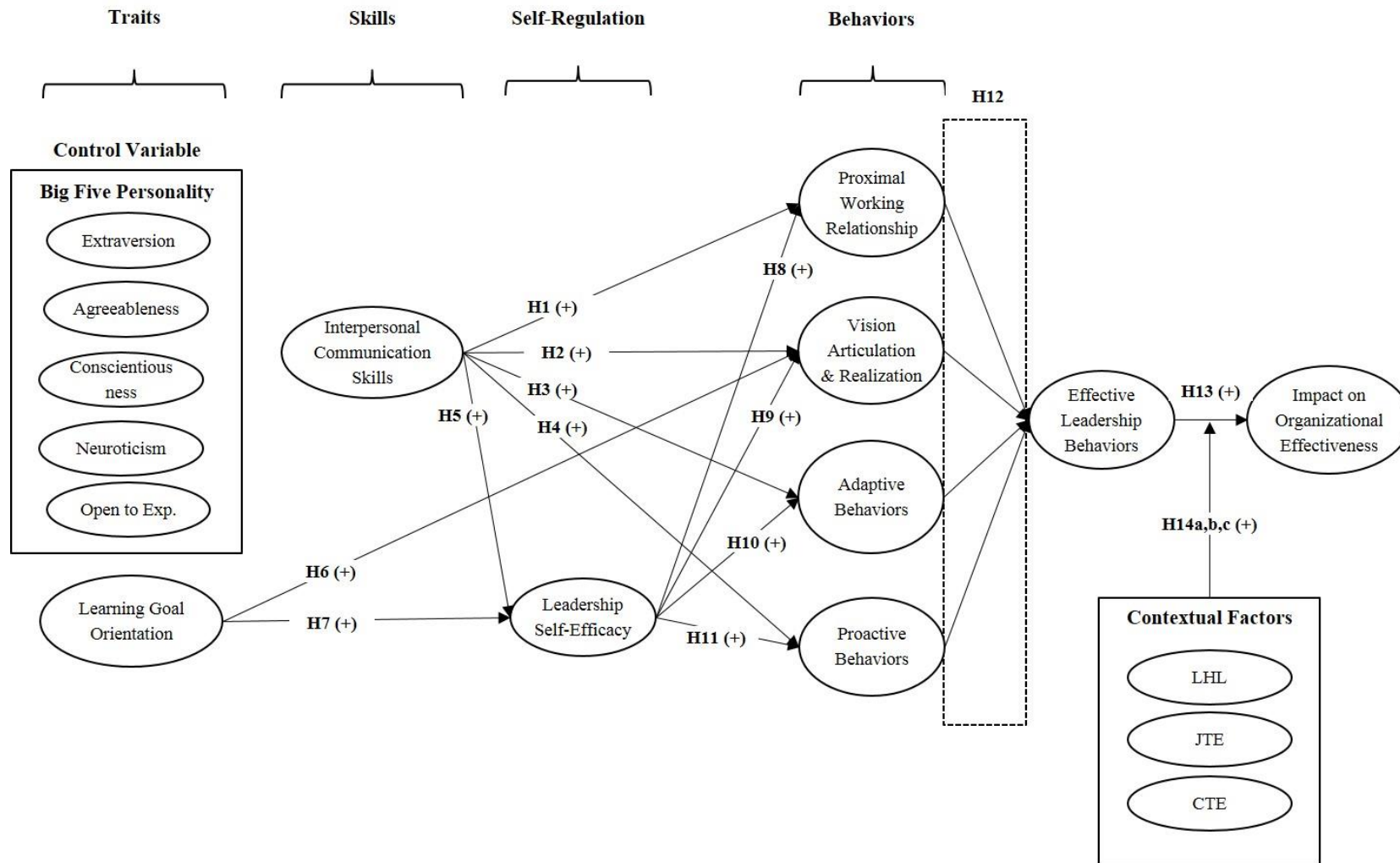
Building on the aforementioned theoretical position, we propose an integrative model to explain leadership effectiveness. This model underpins a complex causal system of relationships among variables such as traits, skills, self-regulatory and behavioral mechanisms to explain leadership impact on organizational effectiveness (Figure 5-1). For the sake of parsimony, we focused on three levels of mediators that we assumed to be the most theoretically relevant that were supported by the empirical findings. However, we do not argue that these mechanisms have the same weight for all individuals.

Previous research gives support to the perspective that trait-like individual differences have a more indirect effect on leadership outcomes, whereas skills and behaviors have a more direct effect. For instance, Chan and Drasgow (2001), Hendricks and Payne (2007), and Ng et al. (2008) propose personality traits as distal predictors to leadership effectiveness. Other researchers consider skills as more proximal to outcomes (e.g., Mumford et al., 2000a; Yukl, 2006; Zaccaro, 2007), as well as behaviors (e.g., Avolio et al., 2003; DeRue et al., 2011). From this perspective, we may expect to find different impacts of predictor variables depending on their relative proximity to leadership effectiveness. Most likely, this perspective implies stronger relationships for more proximal variables and leadership effectiveness, in relation to more distal predictors.

In this conceptual model, we have considered personality traits as the control variable for a number of reasons. First, personality traits have been widely examined in the leadership literature. Second, several studies have found a positive relationship between personality traits, such as Surgency, Emotional Stability, and Conscientiousness, and leadership effectiveness. Third, as the hypothesized model is complex, we wanted to

avoid overloading the model with more constructs and relationships. Finally, we were interested in evaluating the prediction capacity of the model beyond the personality traits.

Figure 5-1 Model of Hypothesized Relationships for Leadership Effectiveness based on the Integration of Trait, Skills and Behavioral Approaches



5.4.1. CONTROL VARIABLE: BIG FIVE PERSONALITY TRAITS

The five-factor structure has been subject of extensive research in several countries pointing to a cross-cultural generalizability (McCrae and Costa, 1997). Furthermore, evidence shows that these traits are heritable and stable over time, after the age of 30 (Costa and McCrae, 1988; Digman, 1990). These personality traits are described as follows: (1) Surgency or Extraversion represents the tendency to be sociable, assertive, active, and to experience the excitement and positive emotions; (2) Agreeableness is the tendency to be warm, gentle, caring, trusting and trustworthy; (3) Conscientiousness is comprised of two related facets of achievement and dependability; (4) Neuroticism (vs. Emotional Stability) represents the tendency to exhibit poor emotional adjustment and experience negative emotions, like anxiety, fear, and depression; and finally (5) Openness to Experience (Intellect or Culture) is the disposition to be creative, imaginative, thoughtful, nonconforming and autonomous (Judge and Bono, 2000).

Research using the five-factor structure or equivalent constructs has found an association between those personality traits and leadership outcomes. For example, a meta-analysis found that all the traits from the five-factor were correlated with leadership effectiveness, with the exception of Agreeableness (Judge et al., 2002b). Stogdill (1974) found Surgency, Emotional Stability, Conscientiousness, and Agreeableness to be positively related to leadership effectiveness, while Bentz (1990) reported similar traits such as Surgency, Emotional Stability, and Conscientiousness as the salient qualities of executives promoted at Sears. Another meta-analysis on the relationship between the Big Five personality traits and job satisfaction found that emotional stability and Surgency were significantly correlated (Judge et al., 2002a). However, recent research argues for indirect rather than direct effects of personality traits on leadership effectiveness. Several

studies are given support to the assertion that personality traits are distal factors for leadership effectiveness, while other individual differences, such as skills and self-regulatory mechanisms, are more proximal to outcomes (e.g., Yukl, 1998; Mumford et al., 2000a; Day and Zaccaro, 2007; Zaccaro, 2007).

In a similar vein, Mumford et al. (2000a) argue that leadership can be understood in terms of a skill-based model to explain leadership effectiveness, where skills develop as a function of the interaction between traits and experience. Other researchers reinforce the perspective that leadership skills are influenced by individual differences in personality. Drawing on research related to social identity and on the comprehensive theory of learning, Lord and Hall (2005) proposed a model of leadership skills addressing changes at one's self-identity. The authors suggested that at all stages of the development, as leaders progress from novice to expert, the acquisition and advance of leadership skills will be influenced by individual differences in personality and temperament, cognitive and emotional abilities, identities and values. In addition, Connelly et al. (2000) found that complex problem-solving skills, social judgment skills and leader knowledge account for significant variance in leader effectiveness beyond that accounted for by cognitive abilities, motivations, and personality, and mediate the relationship of cognitive abilities, motivation and personality to leader effectiveness. Despite the lack of studies linking personality traits to interpersonal communication skills, we do expect to find a direct relationship between these two concepts based on the assumption that, generally speaking, leadership skills are influenced by individual differences in personality as asserted by several authors (e.g., Connelly et al., 2000; Mumford et al., 2000a; Lord and Hall, 2005).

5.4.2. INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS

Interpersonal communication, as defined by Hartley (1999), is a process by which people swap information, and feelings using verbal and non-verbal messages. This process occurs from one person to another, and both message's form and content reflect the personal characteristics of the individuals, as well as their social roles and relationships (Hartley, 1999). Verbal communication includes oral, written, and technology-mediated messages (i.e., emails, instant messaging). Nonverbal communication or bodily communication is much more complex, usually means a variety of non-verbal signals like facial expression, gaze, gestures, posture, smell, and special behavior.

Likewise, active listening is an important component of the communication process. Research has underpinned important cues into how we listen to each other and has identified the main factors that affect good or active listening. An active listener absorbs and processes internally the information he or she receives, shows signs of encouragement for the other person to talk, and demonstrates attentive behavior (Helms and Haynes, 1992; Mineyama et al., 2007). Active listeners are sensitive to others' feelings and perceptions, which means that they are totally engaged in the communication process (West-Burnham, 1997).

Communication skills are critical for the leadership process. In fact, communication is the foundation by which a leader exerts his or her social influence. Leaders engage in several activities where these skills are mostly required, such as communicating what needs to be accomplished, listening attentively to their team members to achieve a complete understanding, or writing effective messages to a targeted audience (Graham, 1983; Yukl, 1989; Zaccaro, 2001; Mumford et al., 2007). The most

effective leaders communicate with their team members frequently, and engage in active listening, to gain their trust and total engagement, so they can perform better (Bass, 1990a; Neufeld et al., 2010; Talukder, 2012). For example, Kramer (1997) found that good listening skills accounted for 40 percent of the variance in effective leadership. Due to the lack of empirical studies in this area, others authors have theorized that communication skills are related to leadership effectiveness (e.g., Yukl, 1998; Locke, 1991; Hoffman et al., 2011).

According to Mineyama et al. (2007), active listening might enhance better communication in the supervisor-subordinate relationships. When a supervisor has a favorable listening attitude and skills towards his or her subordinates, communication and mutual understanding improves, resulting in greater perceived supervisor support. For Talukder (2012), supportive communication, which requires active listening, is the foundation to build positive relationships. The leaders' ability to listen actively can improve personal relationships through reducing conflicts, strengthening cooperation, and fostering understanding. Overall, active listening can increase the effectiveness of business and personal relationships.

In addition, good communication skills from the supervisor is an indispensable way of showing concern for the subordinates, leading them to believe that they care for them. Subordinates' level of satisfaction with their supervisor was found to be related to the perceived communicator competence of the supervisor (Berman and Hellweg, 1989). Findings also indicate a strong relationship between supervisors' communicator competence and their relational leadership styles. Thus, leaders with strong communication skills, including active listening, are expected to develop high quality and proximal working relationships with their team members. Hence, we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1 — Interpersonal communication skills will positively relate to proximal working relationship above and beyond the Big Five.

Communicating an inspiring vision is a key element in the influential leadership theories as mentioned in the literature, such as charismatic leadership theories (Conger and Kanungo, 1987) and transformational leadership theories (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985). Leaders use vision communication to make their followers feel more identified with the organization, to have a sense of meaning and purpose in their daily working activities, and to improve their effectiveness (Bryman, 1992; Yukl, 2000). This is an important mechanism to attract and persuade people, preparing them to strive for corporate success (Francis, 1989).

Leaders' communication of their vision is crucial. However, leaders also understand the importance of involving followers in the vision implementation process. Findings show that how the vision is understood and integrated by followers into work behaviors and decision significantly predicts commitment, job satisfaction, and supervisory ratings of performance (Kohles et al., 2012). Leaders with strong communication skills are more likely to communicate their inspiring vision well and to involve their followers in the implementation process to achieve corporate success. Therefore, we expect to find that:

Hypothesis 2 — Interpersonal communication skills will positively relate to vision articulation and realization above and beyond the Big Five.

Leaders need to adapt their behavior to work effectively with a new team, coworkers, or customers. Behavioral adaptivity can be defined as the ability and willingness that individuals have to make different social responses according to different social contexts (Hall et al., 1998). Adaptive leaders have the social knowledge, perceptiveness and, above all, context-awareness to match their behavior to situational demands (Zaccaro et al., 1991; Hall et al., 1998). For instance, these leaders often respond to cues from others, control their expressive behavior, and adapt their self-presentation to suit their audience (Snyder, 1979). In this adaptive process, leaders high in communication skills are pivotal because one of the goals for this behavior is to create a favorable impression in the audience (Kolb, 1998).

Research has found that individuals who have the ability to adapt their social behaviors, according to a particular situation are rated higher in communication skills. In a study examining several measures of interpersonal effectiveness, results showed that high-monitors were positively related to higher levels of perceived communication effectiveness (Sypher and Sypher, 1983). Hence, we expect that leaders high in communicating skills are more likely to regulate their behaviors to what is more appropriate to a given situation. Especially, if we consider rapidly changing environments whereby leaders are in need to adapt constantly with changes in their workplace. Based on the aforementioned line of reasoning, we postulate that:

Hypothesis 3 — Interpersonal communication skills will positively relate to adaptive behavior above and beyond the Big Five.

Leaders are often involved in processes to implement change on the long haul, which affects completely the organizational system. Change, as defined by Kanter (1984: 279), is considered as “the crystallization of new action possibilities based on a reconceptualized pattern in the organization”. In this process, the leaders’ ability to manage and overcome resistance is a key factor and is dependent on communication (Kanter, 1984; Handy, 1988). Interestingly, history of successful prior resistance to change by the workforce has revealed how critical communication was during that process. Brimm and Murdock (1998) found that resistance is higher when information and involvement levels about change are low. Thus, resistance can be managed according to the flow of information and communication within an organization.

Similarly, research has highlighted as additional barriers to change the lack of communication skills, and the inability to induce others to change (Burke and Litwin, 1992). Leading change requires the use of a diverse set of communication skills to deliver appropriate messages, interact with organization members, create readiness for change along with a sense of urgency, and motivates them to act (Gilley et al., 2009). Leaders as change agents are responsible for communicating to the organization information about the appropriateness and rationale for change, address the risks in changing the status quo, and the potential rewards of embracing a different future (Denning, 2005; Gilley et al., 2009). Specifically, a considerable percentage of variance (58%) in effectively leading change was found to be predicted by the leader’s ability to motivate others, communicate effectively, and build teams (Gilley et al., 2009). Therefore, leaders with high communication skills are more likely to embrace change behaviors and to lead successful changing processes. In light of the previous rationale, we expect to find:

Hypothesis 4 — Interpersonal communication skills will positively relate to change or proactive behavior above and beyond the Big Five.

Leadership self-efficacy implies a mutual influential process in the leader-follower dynamic. This concept may be defined as the leader's belief in his ability to effectively carry out the behaviors that are required by the leadership role, such as setting a direction for the work group, building relationships with followers to gain their commitment to achieve goals, and overcome obstacles (Chemers et al., 2000; Kane et al., 2002; Paglis and Green, 2002). In this process, leader and follower influence each other's sense of efficacy, increasing the group's shared belief in its conjoint capabilities to conduct the necessary course of action to produce the desirable outcomes (Bandura, 1997; Hannah et al., 2008). Understandably, leaders require good communication skills to exert their influence on the group members, and increase their collective self-efficacy. For example, charismatic leaders enhance follower's perceived self-efficacy through verbal persuasion when they emphasize positive visions, communicate high-performance expectations, and express their confidence in the follower's ability to meet those expectations (Shamir et al., 1993).

According to Bandura (1997), the major sources of self-efficacy are actual experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and psychological states. Some studies examining the relationship between transformational leadership and self-efficacy have confirmed that a transformational leader might enhance follower's self-efficacy by using vicarious experience and verbal persuasion (e.g., Walumbwa et al. 2008; Salanova et al., 2011). Further support that communication skills are required to improve follower's self-efficacy beliefs come from transformational and charismatic leadership theories,

whereas leaders often persuade their followers through inspirational and visionary messages (e.g., Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985; Conger and Kanungo, 1994). Following this rationale, we argue:

Hypothesis 5 — Interpersonal communication skills will positively relate to leadership self-efficacy above and beyond the Big Five.

5.4.3. LEARNING GOAL ORIENTATION

Goal orientation was originally developed in the educational and child development literatures (e.g., Dweck, 1986; Dweck and Leggett, 1988). This concept of broader goals pursued by individuals was identified as a stable dispositional trait (i.e., personality dimension) toward developing or demonstrating ability in achievement situations. Dweck (1986) identified two main dimensions: (1) learning goal orientation (LGO), which is a focus on developing one's competence by acquiring new skills, mastering new and challenging situations, and learning from experience; and (2) performance goal orientation (PGO), which is a focus on demonstrating one's competence, seeking favorable judgments and avoiding negative judgments (VandeWalle, 1997; VandeWalle et al., 2001).

Based on this approach, VandeWalle (1997) suggested an additional division of PGO into two separate sub dimensions to grasp a better representation of the divergent response patterns associated with a strong PGO. These two sub dimensions are performance-prove goal orientation (PPGO), which describes the individuals' efforts in trying to appear better than their reference group, and performance-avoid goal orientation

(PAGO), which describes the individuals' efforts to avoid negative evaluations and criticisms of others.

Goal orientation plays an important role in the leadership process. Specifically, a leader's predisposition to set specific goals in achievement-related situations influences the way he or she reacts to task difficulty, and ultimately affects behavior on task performance (Dweck, 1986; Dweck and Leggett, 1988; VandeWalle et al., 2001). For instance, leaders with strong learning goal orientation have a strong desire to increase their competency levels and improve their skills and abilities. These leaders see past failures as learning opportunities, and as such prefer challenging tasks where they can learn and improve continuously (Luzadis and Gerhardt, 2012). Hence, those leaders believe that effort and learning experiences can lead to *absolute* competence and task mastery (Elliot and Thrash, 2001; Luzadis and Gerhardt, 2012). Several studies found support for this relationship. For example, Ford et al. (1998) found a positive, mediated relationship for a learning goal orientation with performance on complex transfer task. In another study, VandeWalle et al. (1999) found that a learning goal orientation had a positive relationship with sales performance.

In contrast, both proving and avoiding goal orientations do not have positive relationships with performance outcomes. Despite being based on concerns about competency demonstration, these two predispositions lead to an interpretation of feedback as evaluative and judgmental about the self (Luzadis and Gerhardt, 2012). These leaders are much more concerned on how others' perceive their competency rather than engaging in the necessary actions to actually develop competence (VandeWalle et al., 2001). Studies in numerous research settings often found that proving and avoiding goal orientations had non-significant or negative relationships with task performance

outcomes (Ford et al., 1998; VandeWalle et al., 1999, 2001). Instead, these two orientations have been associated with the hesitation to seek help to improve performance (VandeWalle and Cummings, 1997), with effort limitation (Stevens and Gist, 1997), and with superficial learning strategies (Ford et al., 1998). In sum, the leaders' concern with their competency is more about "superficial demonstration than it is about substantive development and this superficial focus can sabotage the likelihood that an individual will actually develop the competency that he or she wishes to demonstrate" (VandeWalle et al., 2001, p. 631).

Given these different results, a learning goal orientation seems to be more likely associated with competency development to enhance task performance than a proving and avoiding goal orientation. In addition, leaders who incorporate feedback as a learning experience have the potential to change their own behavioral response pattern (Dweck and Leggett, 1988). In complex situations like accomplishing a shared vision, leaders with a learning orientation are more likely to absorb new knowledge, and insights to develop the necessary competencies to achieve that vision successfully. Thus, effective leaders are expected to have a strong learning goal orientation to influence behaviors in successful vision accomplishment.

Hypothesis 6 — Learning goal orientation will positively relate to vision articulation and realization above and beyond the Big Five.

Several authors have examined the relationship between goal orientation and self-efficacy. McCormick (2000) in a study of leadership training found that efficacy change

during training depends upon the amount of information perceived by the trainee during the intervention. In other studies, learning goal orientation has shown consistently positive relationships with specific self-efficacy (e.g., Kozlowski et al., 2001; Bell and Kozlowski, 2002). Research has also explored the mediating role of leadership self-efficacy between goal orientation and performance outcomes. Findings indicated that relationships between the three goal orientation dimensions and the performance event were differentially mediated by self-efficacy (VandeWalle et al., 2001; Hendricks and Payne, 2007). Learning goal orientation has a positive relationship with self-efficacy. As expected, proving and avoiding goal orientations have neutral and negative with task performance (Button et al., 1996; Phillips and Gully, 1997). Based on previous findings, we expect to find:

Hypothesis 7 — Learning goal orientation will positively relate to leadership self-efficacy above and beyond the Big Five.

5.4.4. LEADERSHIP SELF-EFFICACY

Leadership self-efficacy derives from Bandura's (1991) self-efficacy theory applied to the leadership literature. In general, individuals' efficacy beliefs affect whether they think in self-enhancing or self-debilitating ways, influencing their choices, their aspirations, their effort, and their perseverance in facing obstacles (Bandura, 1991; Bandura and Locke, 2003). Based on this theoretical framework, leadership self-efficacy is commonly defined as the leader's belief in his ability to carry out effectively the behaviors required by the leadership role. These behaviors include setting a direction for

the work group, building relationships with followers to gain their commitment to achieve goals, and overcome obstacles (Chemers et al., 2000; Kane et al., 2002; Paglis and Green, 2002).

Leadership self-efficacy is a key factor in the leadership process. Leaders when interact with their team members influence their sense of efficacy. Conversely, a follower's efficacy at critical times may encourage the leader to move forward. As leaders and followers interact over time, they reciprocally influence each other's sense of efficacy (Hannah et al., 2008). This effect functions as role modeling and source of social influence for the leader, and raises the collective efficacy of the group (Bandura, 1997, 2000).

Social cognitive research has indicated that self-efficacy can have both a direct and an indirect effect on performance (Bandura, 1997). For instance, Stajkovic and Luthans (1998) have demonstrated the robustness of the positive relationship between self-efficacy and performance. In a meta-analysis of 114 studies, found that self-efficacy contributed a 28% gain in work-related performance. Consistently, high levels of leadership self-efficacy are expected to result in higher levels of engagement in leadership opportunities and higher levels of leadership effectiveness (e.g., Stajkovic and Luthans, 1998; Taggar and Seijts, 2003; Anderson et al. 2008; Ng et al., 2008).

Other studies also examined the mediator role of leadership efficacy. Chan and Drasgow (2001) found that leadership efficacy was a mediator between individual differences, including the Big Five traits, and managers' motivation to lead. Another study from Hendricks and Payne (2007) found that leadership efficacy partly mediated the relationship between individuals' learning goal orientation and their motivation to lead. In addition, Ng et al. (2008) found support for leadership efficacy as a mediator

between traits like extraversion, conscientiousness and neuroticism, and leadership effectiveness.

Furthermore, social cognitive theory also explains as people's self-beliefs of efficacy determine their behaviors and subsequent performance. Self-regulation mechanisms are partly enacted through people's personal standards and correspondent behavioral evaluations. For instance, people feel satisfied when fulfilling desirable goals, and unsatisfied with unattainable goals. Gaps emerging between personal standards and correspondent behavior generate self-corrective actions to achieve desired results (Wood and Bandura, 1989). People with a strong belief in their capabilities (i.e., their self-efficacy) are more persistent and resilient in their efforts to master challenges and achieve desirable goals (Bandura and Cervone, 1983, 1986; Jacobs et al., 1984; Cervone and Peake, 1986; Wood and Bandura, 1989). Thus, leaders with strong self-beliefs of efficacy are more likely to engage in efficacious behaviors that subsequently generate higher performance. Hereafter, we will examine the relationship between leadership self-efficacy and each one of the efficacious behaviors identified in the literature and qualitative findings.

First, self-efficacy has been related to proximal working relationships because leaders believing in their capabilities are more likely to develop close relationships with their team members. Specifically, leaders high in leadership self-efficacy eventually feel more comfortable exhibiting the behaviors necessary to establish a high-quality LMX with followers (Murphy and Ensher, 1999). For example, self-confident leaders might influence follower's self-concepts and social identity by showing their more salient values (i.e., values that implicate follower's social identity) affecting the follower's social identification process. Through this process, followers increase their perception of

oneness or belongingness to what the leader represents to them increasing their levels of confidence, especially in the initial stages of the relationship (Liden and Mitchell, 1988; Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Walumbwa et al. 2010). The results support this argument revealing that leaders liked more the followers high in work self-efficacy, perceived to be more similar to their leaders, and thus experienced more positive high-quality relationships (Murphy and Ensher, 1999). Therefore, we expect that highly efficacious leaders act in ways to convey their confidence to increase their attractiveness in the eyes of the followers in order to develop a high-quality relationship with them. Based on the above theoretical arguments, we expect a positive relationship between the two constructs.

Hypothesis 8 — Leadership self-efficacy will positively relate to proximal working relationship above and beyond the Big Five.

Second, self-efficacy has been examined as a key factor to develop attainable vision statements because leaders who are confident in their capabilities are more likely to articulate visions more appealing to their followers. Arguably, a leader has to believe that his ideas are going to be effective and result in positive outcomes to articulate an inspirational vision that generates confidence among his followers (Shipman and Mumford, 2011). As social cognitive theory has revealed, efficacy beliefs influence the goal levels set by the leader, as well as his or her effort and persistence in achieving those goals (Bandura and Cervone, 1983; Locke et al. 1984). For example, Kane and associates (2002) found that leadership self-efficacy predicted leader goal levels, and both

leadership self-efficacy and leader's goals predicted task strategies communicated by leaders to group members. This implies that self-efficacy helps leaders assume the risks needed to persevere toward their vision and objectives, and increases followers' willingness to work in the same direction (Black and Porter, 2000; Luthans and Peterson, 2002). In light of the above, it seems that high levels of leadership self-efficacy associated with expectations of positive outcomes are related to effective vision statements, and consequently to vision realization. Drawing on the above line of reasoning, we argue:

Hypothesis 9 — Leadership self-efficacy will positively relate to vision articulation and realization above and beyond the Big Five.

Third, self-efficacy has been suggested as affecting leaders' adaptive behaviors because confident leaders are more likely to adapt their leadership style when interacting with their team members to increase overall efficacy beliefs. More specifically, research suggests that the leader influence followers' efficacy beliefs through an interactional process (Hannah et al., 2008). In this process, leaders serve as role models and influence their followers to raise the collective efficacy of the group (Bandura, 1997, 2000). Collective efficacy develops through successful group interaction, but requires self-efficacy processes at the individual level (Bandura, 2000). During this process, leaders might have to adapt their leadership styles based on the follower's attributes (DeRue et al., 2010a). As suggested by contingency theories, followers' efficacy beliefs are an important constraint that leaders must adapt to (Walumbwa et al., 2004; DeRue et al., 2010b). DeRue and associates (2010b) have illustrated that a coaching based leadership

style would be more suitable for low self-efficacy followers while a directive leadership style would be more appropriate for high self-efficacy followers. Therefore, we propose that high leadership self-efficacy is positively associated with the leader's adaptive behavior.

Hypothesis 10 — Leadership self-efficacy will positively relate to adaptive behavior above and beyond the Big Five.

Finally, self-efficacy has been pointed as an antecedent of proactive behavior because confident leaders are more likely to take charge of their actions. Specifically, research shows that self-efficacy increases personal initiative at work, and predicts an individual taking charge (Gist and Mitchell, 1992; Speier and Frese, 1997). For instance, Morrison and Phelps (1999) demonstrated that individuals with high self-efficacy engage in intended behaviors like taking charge to affect organizational functional change. This argument is consistent with other studies showing that individuals with high self-efficacy see “principled dissent” (i.e., “the effort by individuals in the workplace to protest and/or to change the organizational status quo because of their conscientious objection to current policy or practice” as an effective way to bring about change (Graham, 1986: 2). Moreover, these individuals underestimate the risks associated with any given course of action, and overestimate their ability to overcome those risks (Sitkin and Pablo, 1992). At last, they are a strong driver for proactive behaviors such as proactive problem solving (Parker et al., 2006, Griffin et al., 2007). Based on the above arguments, we expect to find:

Hypothesis 11 — Leadership self-efficacy will positively relate to proactive behavior above and beyond the Big Five.

5.4.5. DIMENSIONS OF EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS

According to Yukl (2008), effective leadership behaviors may be classified into three main typologies: task-oriented behaviors, relations-oriented behaviors, and change-oriented behaviors. Task-oriented behaviors may be characterized as the behaviors that leaders use to increase productivity and reduce costs, such as planning short-term activities, allocating resources and work-based structures, identifying objectives and assigning priorities. Relational-oriented behaviors are, generally speaking, actions led by leaders to improve the relationship with his or her team members. These behaviors include showing support and guidance, facilitate coaching and mentoring, delegation and give empowering, and encouraging collaboration and teamwork. Finally, change-oriented behaviors correspond to monitoring the environment to identify threats and opportunities, taking risks to promote change, obtaining support for a major change, and determine how to implement a new initiative or a major change.

In line with this typology, findings from the qualitative phase pointed to four main behaviors exhibited by effective leaders, which are behaviors oriented to change, to relations, to task, and to the context. Subsumed in Yukl's (2008) previous classification, we extend this typology including one more type. Thus, context-oriented behaviors can be characterized by those behaviors that leaders exhibit when they have to adapt or cope with changes in their workplace, such as being attentive to others and to the environment, make conversations more pleasurable, and solve social conflicts through collaboration

and compromise (Turner, 1980; Baron, 1989; Blass and Ferris, 2007).

Drawing on Yukl's (2008) typology and on the extension supported by empirical findings, we have conducted thoroughly a second literature review to find the best way to operationalize the categories pertaining to these four dimensions. As illustrated in Table 5-3, the four dimensions are associated with the respective constructs found in the literature. Almost all the dimensions could be easily associated with a construct in the literature with the exception of task-orientation. The associated construct of vision articulation & realization captures facets belonging to other dimensions, as for instance vision articulation and communication, which are components of change-orientation, and empowerment and motivation, which are components of relational-orientation. For the sake of content validity, we hereafter refer to the four dimensions for effective leadership behaviors as proximal working relationship, vision articulation and realization, adaptivity, and proactivity behaviors, instead of the typology used by Yukl (2008).

Table 5-3 Dimensions of Effective Leadership Behaviors

Dimensions¹	Construct²	Components	Typology
Change-orientation - Change-oriented behaviors correspond to monitoring the environment to identify threats and opportunities, taking risks to promote change, obtaining support for a major change, and determine how to implement a new initiative or a major change (Yukl, 2008)	Proactive Behavior		Change
Task-orientation - Task-oriented behaviors may be characterized as the behaviors that leaders use to increase productivity and reduce costs, such as planning short-term	Vision Articulation & Realization	Vision Articulation Vision Communication	Change Change

activities, allocating resources and work-based structures, identifying objectives and assigning priorities.		Empowerment	Relational
		Motivation	Relational
		Organizational Alignment	Task
Relational-orientation	Proximal Working Relationship		Relational
- Relational-oriented behaviors are, generally speaking, actions led by leaders to improve the relationship with his or her team members. These behaviors include showing support and guidance, facilitate coaching and mentoring, delegation and give empowering, and encouraging collaboration and teamwork			
Context-orientation	Adaptive Behavior		Context
- Context-oriented behaviors can be characterized by those behaviors that leaders exhibit when they have to adapt or cope with changes in their workplace place such as being attentive to others and to the environment, make conversations more pleasurable, and solve social conflicts through collaboration and compromise (Turner, 1980; Baron, 1989; Blass and Ferris, 2007)			

Notes:

(1) Based on Yukl's (2008) typology and on the qualitative findings.

(2) Constructs identified in the literature.

5.4.5.1. PROXIMAL WORKING RELATIONSHIP

Napier and Ferris (1993), building on previous works of Graen and others (e.g., Graen, 1976; Graen and Schiemann, 1978; Scandura and Graen, 1984), refer to the concept of distance between a supervisor and subordinate as dyadic distance. This concept is defined as a multidimensional construct including three dimensions described as psychological, structural and functional distance between the supervisor and subordinate

in terms of their working relationship. Psychological distance refers to the psychological effects of actual and perceived differences, including demographic distance, power distance, perceived similarity, and values similarity. Structural distance refers to aspects of distance brought about by physical structure as well as an organizational structure. Finally, functional distance refers to the degree of closeness and quality of the functional working relationship that develops in the dyad partially because of psychological and structural distance. This dimension is comprised of affect, perceptual congruence, latitude and relationship quality (Napier and Ferris, 1993).

Several leadership theories have assumed that some sort of distance, or lack of, is predominant in a leader-follower relationship (Antonakis and Atwater, 2002). These authors refer to various examples of relationship closeness: transformational leadership theory describes individualized considerate leaders as close and intimate to their followers (Bass, 1985), Blake and Mouton's (1964) "country club" managerial style describes leaders as friendly, informal, sociable, and reducing status-distance with followers, and finally leader consideration implies that a leader is intimate and close to followers (Halpin and Winer, 1957). Other theories imply distance in a leader-follower relationship, such as the authoritarian leadership theory that describe leaders as socially distant from their group of followers, or charismatic theories suggesting that leaders can create an impression of being confident, dominant, and successful because followers cannot directly assess the leaders' behaviors and attitudes (House, 1977).

The most commonly used conceptualization of distance in the supervisor-subordinate relationship has been based on the LMX theoretical framework (e.g., Graen, 1976; Dienesch and Liden, 1986; Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1991, 1995; Bauer and Green, 1996; Sparrowe and Liden, 1997). LMX theory assumes that leaders develop different

types of exchange relationships with their followers. Specifically, if the relationship is based primarily on the mutual fulfillment of contractual obligations or rather based on trust, respect, and positive social exchange (Uhl-Bien et al., 2000). The quality of these relationships has an important effect on leader and members attitudes and behaviors, and subsequent outcomes (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1991, 1995; Bauer and Green, 1996; Sparrowe and Liden, 1997).

High-quality LMX relationships have very positive outcomes for leaders, followers, work units, and the organization in general. Results show that LMX relationships of high-quality are rated as having a positive impact on performance, as well as on job satisfaction (moderated by empowerment), and lower turnover intentions (e.g., Bauer and Green, 1996; Sparrowe and Liden, 2005; Bauer et al., 2006; Ilies et al., 2007). In essence, the central thesis of LMX theory is that effective leadership processes occur when leaders and followers are able to develop mature leadership relationships, and thus gain access to the many benefits these relationships bring (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995).

5.4.5.2. VISION ARTICULATION AND REALIZATION

Vision is an important dimension of leadership, commonly associated with charisma, and corresponding to an ideal picture of the future based on shared values (House, 1977; Rafferty and Griffin, 2004). Vision attractiveness encourages individuals to adopt a specific behavioral pattern, which is part of the organizational identification process (McClelland, 1975). Charismatic leaders often engage in behaviors like articulating an ideology that enhances goal clarity, task focus, and value congruence (House, 1977). More recently, based on the works of Locke et al. (1991), Strange and Mumford (2005), Kantabutra (2009, p. 321) defined vision as “a mental model that a

leader defines, given that it is the actual mental model that guides his/her choices and actions.” There are seven commonly shared attributes in a vision: brevity, clarity, future orientation, stability, challenge, abstractness, desirability or ability to inspire. Empirical studies have found that these seven attributes, when combined, are an indirect predictor of performance (e.g., Baum et al., 1998; Kantabutra, 2007; Kantabutra and Avery, 2007).

However, vision-based leadership is much more than simply articulating the vision. According to Jick (2001), leaders also need to pay attention to vision implementation. Overall, they have to mobilize commitment to the new vision, creating new routines and shaping the organizational culture to support and reinforce their vision. A successful vision implementation depends largely on how the vision is communicated, how the staff are empowered and motivated, and how the vision is aligned with the organizational processes (e.g., Kantabutra and Avery, 2007; Kantabutra, 2010). Specifically, these are the four components of a vision realization process identified in the literature (Kantabutra, 2008).

Vision communication is therefore one of the key factors to realize a vision. Leaders communicate their visions to clarify the content, and get support and involvement from the followers. For instance, charismatic and transformational leadership theories have referred to vision communication as the main process used by leaders to create involvement (e.g., Bass, 1985; House and Shamir, 1993). Moreover, Kantabutra (2008) suggests that the aforementioned seven vision attributes contribute to a better vision communication process between leader and followers. Undoubtedly, a brief, clear and inspiring vision is easier to communicate and to get followers to act accordingly. Leaders use various ways to communicate their visions, including written statements, oral communication, and technology-mediated channels (Kantabutra, 2008).

Another important factor for vision implementation is the organizational alignment. Leaders align organizational systems such as recruitment process, reporting lines, rewards & incentives, teamwork-orientation, and job description to support their visions (Priem and Rosenstein, 2000). Again, vision attributes play an important role in creating alignment. Such an alignment is facilitated if leaders present clear and future-oriented visions. Organizational alignment corresponds to the extent to which a leader reassigns his/her followers as needed to support his/her new vision, and create new evaluation criteria according to the new vision.

Literature refers to empowerment as a major component of the vision realization process. Leaders empower their people so they can act according to the new vision and be strongly committed to it (Conger and Kanungo, 1987). Empowerment is the mechanism by which leaders distribute their power and control to the followers. Thus, to empower followers, leaders have to make important decisions about whom they choose to assign tasks and people, the resources and supporting services available to the working groups, and how to increase autonomy, independence and responsibility of their followers (Kantabutra, 2008).

Finally, the last vision realization component is motivation. Various authors have suggested that leaders motivate followers to work toward an inspiring vision in order to achieve desirable performance (e.g., Thoms and Govekar, 1997; Hill and Jones, 2008; Kantabutra and Vimolratana, 2010). Leaders motivate their followers through role modeling, building their self-esteem, creating challenging goals, delegating tasks, and rewarding their performance, consistent with the vision (Locke et al., 1991). Inspiring visions also motivate the followers to work for a better future (Parikh and Neubauer, 1993). Thus, motivation may be defined as the extent to which a leader acts as a role

model, built followers' self-confidence, creates challenges for the followers, and rewards followers' who acted consistently with his/her vision (Kantabutra, 2003).

Building on Kantabutra's (2003) vision-based theory, several studies have examined the relationship between the aforementioned vision components and performance outcomes. Not surprisingly, followers' motivation and empowerment were a direct predictor of staff satisfaction, while vision communication and organizational alignment are indirect predictors. Overall, the four components are also predictors of enhanced customer satisfaction (Kantabutra, 2007, 2008, 2010; Kantabutra and Avery, 2007).

5.4.5.3. ADAPTIVITY OR CONTEXT-ORIENTED BEHAVIORS

The concepts of adaptivity, adaptive behavior, or behavioral flexibility are used interchangeably in the literature. Hall et al. (1998) suggest a definition of behavioral flexibility emphasizing the interpersonal aspects. Thus, behavioral flexibility occurs when "individuals are both able and willing to make different social responses in different social contexts" (Hall et al., 1998, p. 4). Specifically, interpersonal flexibility implies adjusting style to achieve a goal, adapting behavior to work effectively with a new team, coworkers, or customers, and being a flexible service provider who can effectively anticipate and fulfill customer needs (Bowen and Waldman, 1999; Pulakos et al., 2000). Overall, adaptive individuals have the social knowledge, perceptiveness and, above all, context-awareness to match their behavior to situational demands (Zaccaro et al., 1991; Hall et al., 1998).

In the leadership literature, adaptivity has commonly been conceptualized using

Snyder's (1974, 1979) self-monitoring approach (e.g., Snyder and Gangestad, 1986; Caligiuri and Day, 2000; Bizzi and Soda, 2011). According to this theoretical approach, people have, or not, the ability to assume social roles which may differ from their internal states, dispositions, or attitudes (Snyder, 1979). Individuals high in self-monitoring seem to be more aware of which behaviors are socially appropriate for a given situation, and know how to adapt their behavior to that particular situation. Conversely, individuals low in self-monitoring seem to lack either the ability or the motivation to regulate their social behaviors according to the situation (Snyder, 1979). Self-monitoring concept comprises two dimensions: the people's ability to observe and control their expressive behavior, and the people's ability to regulate their self-presentation (Snyder, 1979).

In rapidly changing environments, leaders need constantly to adapt to or cope with changes in their workplace in a constructive and effective way (Ilgen and Pulakos, 1999; Blass and Ferris, 2007). Research has found that high self-monitors were rated higher and nominated more frequently as leaders than low self-monitors (Anderson and McLenigan, 1987; Ellis et al., 1988; Ellis and Cronshaw, 1992). In addition, high self-monitors have the abilities and skills to facilitate contextual performance (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997). For instance, high-monitors have higher social abilities (Sypher and Sypher, 1983), make the conversation more pleasurable using humor (Turner, 1980), and solve social conflicts through collaboration and compromise (Baron, 1989). Furthermore, studies conducted in different settings have found empirical evidence that supports a significant relationship between job performance and self-monitoring (e.g., Caldwell and O'Reilly, 1982; Lan, 1996; Biais et al., 2005).

5.4.5.4. PROACTIVITY OR CHANGE-ORIENTED BEHAVIORS

Proactive behavior has emerged recently in the leadership literature as a critical determinant of organizational success. Crant (2000) has captured the essence of various approaches in defining proactive behavior as taking initiative to improve current circumstances or creating new ones, and therefore involves challenging the status quo rather than passively accept and adapt to the present situation. Proactivity occurs when an individual engages in self-starting, future-oriented behavior to change the self or the environment. Specifically, proactive behaviors emphasize self-initiated and change-focused action. For example, proactive leaders might initiate strategic activities by identifying and acting on opportunities to change to more desirable and profitable business areas.

Change-oriented behaviors in leadership may be characterized as identifying external threats and opportunities, envisioning new possibilities, proposing innovating strategies, and influencing social support for change (Yukl, 1999). Change-oriented leaders create visions, accept new ideas, take rapid-decisions, encourage collaboration, avoid being overcautious (Ekvall and Arvonen, 1991), are sensitive to the environment, and have a risk-taking attitude (Kuhnert and Lewis, 1987; Waldman et al., 2001). The presence of a leader who can raise awareness about ongoing changes and guide employees towards these changes could be of the utmost importance to work outcomes (De Poel et al., 2012).

Leadership effectiveness has been associated with proactive behaviors. Studies based on the theoretical frameworks of charismatic and transformational leadership have found significant correlations between leaders' proactive behavior and performance outcomes (e.g., Deluga, 1998; Detert and Burris, 2007). In addition, proactive behavior

was found to be a direct and positive predictor of sales performance in a longitudinal study (Porath and Bateman, 2006).

In sum, this study extends on the original typology for effective leadership behaviors, which in itself is a significant step to understand the main components for this construct. Additionally, the qualitative findings allow us to confirm this typology and to include one more component. Based on this body of literature and on empirical findings, we therefore argue that effective leadership behaviors have four main dimensions.

Hypothesis 12 — Effective leadership behaviors is a second order formative construct comprised by the following dimensions: (1) proximal working relationship, (2) vision articulation and realization, (3) adaptive behavior, and (4) proactive behavior.

5.4.6. OVERALL IMPACT ON ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

An impressive body of literature has produced different conceptual approaches for organizational effectiveness that are often conflicting and lacking empirical support. According to Connolly and associates (1980), there are three main approaches: (1) organizational goals, (2) systems, and (3) multi-constituency. Organizational goals approach considers that an organization is effective to the extent that it accomplishes its stated goals, while the systems perspective define organizational effectiveness in terms of its bargaining position, as the ability of the organization to exploit its environment in the acquisition of scarce and valued resources (Perrow, 1961; Yuchtman and Seashore, 1967). By contrast, multi-constituency approach departs from the aforementioned approaches assuming that an organization has several dominant groups with different

assessments of effectiveness (Connolly et al., 1980).

Several researchers advocate the multi-constituency approach. For example, Pennings and Goodman (1979) view organizations as coalitional entities, whereas the term “constituency” refers to those interest groups, both internal and external to the organization that contribute to and help assess organizational effectiveness. This constituency might be illustrated by the “dominant coalition” which corresponds to that group of individuals with whom the decision making power regarding a specific issue rests (March and Simon, 1958). Therefore, the dominant coalition usually is the constituency that provides the formally adopted definition of organizational effectiveness as, “when its goals are met, the organization is said to be performing effectively” (Reichers, 1985, p. 470). From this perspective, there is an overall agreement among organizational theorists that organizational effectiveness is multidimensional (Campbell et al., 1974; Steers, 1977; Angle and Perry, 1981).

Several studies give support to the conceptions of organizations as being composed of members who are subject to conflicting effectiveness criteria that arise from the different goals held by internal and external coalitions (Friedlander and Pickle, 1968; Whetten, 1978; Cameron, 1986). In this study, we consider a multi-constituency approach using only internal coalition entities to assess several dimensions, such as leader effectiveness, group performance, and organizational effectiveness.

Research has long established that leadership behaviors can improve the performance of an organization. According to Yukl (2008), the use of specific leadership behaviors in interactions with subordinates, peers, and outsiders enhance performance determinants, such as efficiency, adaptation, and human resources and relations. More specifically, a leader’s behavior can influence more than one performance determinant at

the same time (Yukl, 2008). For instance, when leaders discuss a new investment plan may increase team member involvement (human relations), improve the overall use of resources (efficiency), and introduce more innovative ways to produce new products (adaptation).

Specifically, research has examined the association of certain leadership behaviors with organizational effectiveness. For example, research on change-oriented behaviors such as visionary leadership found empirical evidence of a positive relationship with employees' extra effort, which in turn relates to firm performance (House et al., 1997; Dorfman et al., 2004; Sully de Luque et al., 2008). Another stream of research using the LMX theoretical framework found that relationships of high-quality are rated as having a positive impact on performance, on job satisfaction (moderated by empowerment), and lower turnover intentions (e.g., Duarte et al., 1994; Bauer and Green, 1996; Harris et al., 2009). Finally, studies focusing on task-oriented behaviors examined a positive association between the leader's reinforcement effort and the successful completion of tasks, and the followers' satisfaction (e.g., Klimoski and Hayes, 1980; Peters and Waterman, 1982). While leader's praise and recognition improved the followers' performance and effectiveness (Hunt and Schuler, 1976). Thus, leaders' behaviors in the contingent-reward process affect the followers' efforts and performance by clarifying those expectations that payoff.

In line with the aforementioned research, leaders who exhibited specific behaviors such the ones oriented to change, relations, task and adaptation are more likely to affect the team members' behaviors that ultimately influence organizational effectiveness. Therefore, we hypothesize that the construct of effective leadership behaviors comprising several behavioral dimensions, such as proximal working relationship, vision articulation

& realization, adaptivity and proactivity, relate positively to organizational effectiveness:

Hypothesis 13 — Effective leadership behaviors will positively relate to overall organizational effectiveness above and beyond the Big Five.

5.4.7. CONTEXTUAL FACTORS AS MODERATING VARIABLES

Context includes situational opportunities and constraints that affect the occurrence and meaning of organizational behavior as well as the functional relationships between variables (Johns, 2006). Hence, the context can serve as a main effect or interact with personal variables such as the disposition to affect organizational behavior. According to Antonakis et al. (2004), contextual factors can include leader hierarchical level, national culture, leader-follower gender, and organizational characteristics among others. In leadership studies, the most common contextual variables examined are age, gender, hierarchical level, job, and company tenure. For example, Morrison and Phelps (1999) used all these control variables in their study of the factors that motivate employees to engage in behaviors as taking charge, which affects organizational functional change. Another study, examining if psychological empowerment mediated the effects of transformational leadership on followers' organizational commitment, used as control variables age, race, nationality, type of employment, tenure, and educational level (Avolio et al., 2004a).

Arguably, the leader hierarchical level is an important factor associated with how leadership affects followers' behaviors and organizational effectiveness. For Antonakis and Atwater (2002), this contextual factor should be considered as a boundary condition

of leadership models. In fact, the validity of a leadership model depends on using data from similar contexts, including leader hierarchical level (Antonakis, 2001). Other studies have included leader hierarchical level as a moderator variable, assuming that leaders at different levels enact different behaviors (Lowe et al., 1996). For example, full-range leadership may not operate in the same manner across various hierarchical levels (Antonakis and Atwater, 2002). Top-level leaders may display more transformational leadership behaviors than middle level leaders (e.g., Sashkin, 1988; Waldman and Yammarino, 1999; Antonakis and House, 2002).

Likewise, prior research has included measures of tenure in the study of leadership effectiveness as control variables. Arguments refer that previous leader's experience may account for some variance in performance (Waldman et al. 2001), and that tenure should be controlled in research seeking to relate CEO characteristics to firm performance (Virany et al., 1992). Several studies have thus included job and organizational tenure as contextual factors that affect leadership outcomes (e.g., Conger et al., 2000; Waldman et al., 2001; Howell et al., 2005). Based on the above, we propose that the leader hierarchical level, the leader job tenure, and the leader company tenure will moderate the effects on organizational effectiveness.

Hypothesis 14a — Leader hierarchical level will have a moderating effect on overall organizational effectiveness above and beyond the Big Five.

Hypothesis 14b — Leader job tenure will have a moderating effect on overall organizational effectiveness above and beyond the Big Five.

Hypothesis 14c — Leader company tenure will have a moderating effect on overall organizational effectiveness above and beyond the Big Five.

5.5. SUMMARY OF PROPOSED HYPOTHESES

In this section, we have proposed a hypothesized model for leadership effectiveness comprising an integrated view of several layers as determinants of organizational effectiveness. Table 5-4 presents a summary of the underlying hypotheses that will be tested in Chapter 6.

Table 5-4 Summary of Proposed Hypotheses

Hypotheses
H 1. Interpersonal communication skills will positively relate to proximal working relationship above and beyond the Big Five.
H 2. Interpersonal communication skills will positively relate to vision articulation and realization above and beyond the Big Five.
H 3. Interpersonal communication skills will positively relate to adaptive behavior above and beyond the Big Five.
H 4. Interpersonal communication skills will positively relate to proactive behavior above and beyond the Big Five.
H 5. Interpersonal communication skills will positively relate to leadership self-efficacy above and beyond the Big Five.
H 6. Learning goal orientation will positively relate to vision articulation and realization above and beyond the Big Five.
H 7. Learning goal orientation will positively relate to leadership self-efficacy above and beyond the Big Five.
H 8. Leadership self-efficacy will positively relate to proximal working relationship above and beyond the Big Five.
H 9. Leadership self-efficacy will positively relate to vision articulation and realization above and beyond the Big Five.
H 10. Leadership self-efficacy will positively relate to adaptive behavior above and beyond the Big Five.
H 11. Leadership self-efficacy will positively relate to proactive behavior above and beyond the Big Five.
H 12. Effective leadership behaviors is a second order formative construct comprised by the following dimensions: (1) proximal working relationship, (2) vision articulation and realization, (3) adaptive behavior, and (4) proactive behavior.
H 13. Effective leadership behaviors will positively relate to overall organizational effectiveness above and beyond the Big Five.
H 14a. Leader hierarchical level will have a moderating effect on overall organizational effectiveness above and beyond the Big Five.
H 14b. Leader job tenure will have a moderating effect on overall organizational effectiveness above and beyond the Big Five.
H 14c. Leader company tenure will have a moderating effect on overall organizational effectiveness above and beyond the Big Five.

5.6. CONCLUSION

This Chapter presents the intermediate step of the mixed methods design, in which the qualitative and quantitative phases of the study were connected together through the

identification of a set of qualitative findings for further quantitative exploration. Following a literature review of the categories identified in Chapter 4, this section introduces a hypothesized model eliciting a relational system between the selected constructs that will undergo further exploration in Chapter 6, namely interpersonal communication, learning goal orientation, leadership self-efficacy, and effective leadership behaviors. In order to test these explanatory factors, a series of hypotheses were drawn to inform the design of the quantitative study phase.

CHAPTER 6 – PHASE TWO: QUANTITATIVE STUDY

6.1. INTRODUCTION

This research has adopted a sequential mixed methods strategy, which started with a qualitative study sought to examine the characteristics and factors of leadership effectiveness. The results highlighted the most commonly referred categories related to leadership effectiveness serving as the groundwork to design the subsequent quantitative phase of the study. Therefore, the quantitative study reported in this Chapter builds on the qualitative findings and tests a number of hypotheses by means of a self-administered questionnaire.

The Chapter begins with a description of the constructs' nature and the way they are operationalized in this study. Then, Section 6.3. provides a description of the sample characteristics in terms of gender, education, and age, the measures and indicators, and the data collection procedures. Then, we explain the analytical data strategy followed in this study. The other sections report the main findings in relation to the evaluation of the measurement and structural model. The Chapter then concludes in Section 6.10 with a summary of the key findings.

6.2. OPERATIONALIZATION OF THE CONSTRUCTS

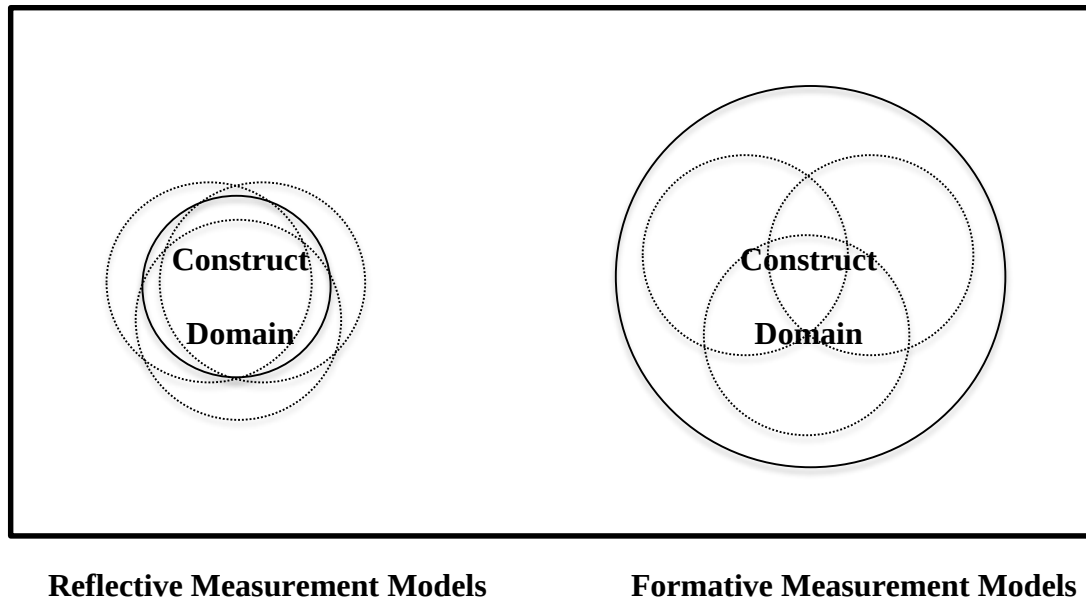
The conceptual framework presented in the previous Chapter has several constructs that were operationalized based on a second extensive literature review. During this process, the constructs were identified and the respective measurement was analyzed both in terms of validity and reliability. Instead of developing new measurement instruments, we decided to use well-established measurement approaches with high

validity and reliability. The construct measurement has an important role in the research process as well noted by Peter (1979, p. 6), “If the measures used in a discipline have not been demonstrated to have a high degree of validity, that discipline is not a science”. Thus, for researchers it is important to find instruments on well-referenced discipline theories (Straub, 1989).

Another important topic to consider is the construct’s nature, which means that a researcher has to decide whether a construct is reflective or formative. Reflective measurement models have a long tradition in the social sciences, assuming that measures represent the manifestations of an underlying construct. Thus, reflective indicators are caused by the same construct. In contrast, formative measurement models are based on the assumption that the indicators have a causal effect on the construct. As each formative indicator only captures a specific aspect of the construct’s domain, they have to be taken jointly to determine the meaning and nature of the construct (Hair et al., 2014).

Figure 6-1 illustrates the key differences between the two sets of measurement models.

Figure 6-1 Key Differences between Reflective and Formative Measurement Models adapted from Hair et al. (2014)



To choose if a construct is measured reflectively or formatively depends on the construct operationalization and on specific objectives of the study. Hair et al. (2014) have introduced some important guidelines to choose whether a construct has associated a formative or reflective measurement model (Table 6-1).

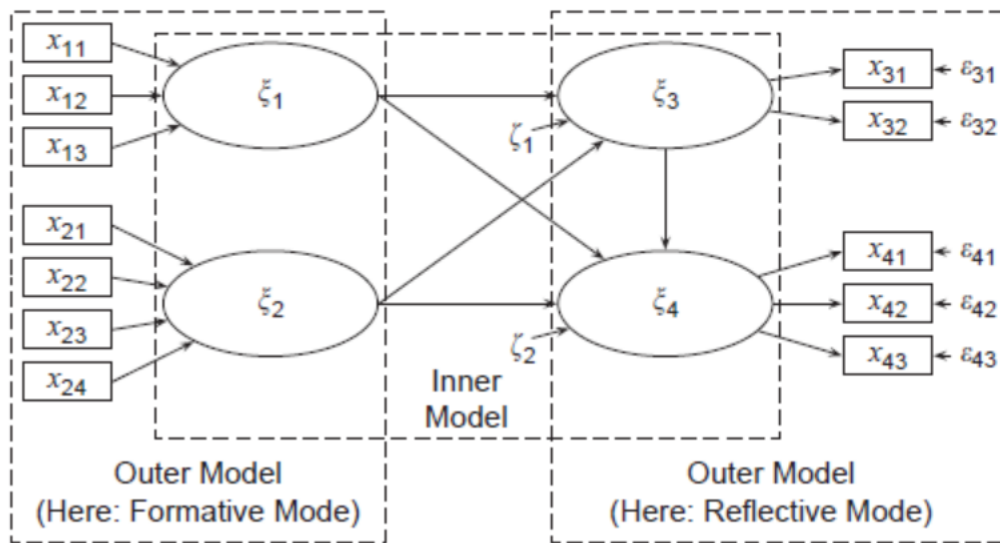
Table 6-1 Summary of the Guidelines to choose the Construct Measurement Model adapted from Hair et al. (2014)

Criterion	Decision Rule	References
1. Direction of causality	a. From the construct to the indicators: reflective b. From the indicators to the construct: formative	Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer (2001)
2. Single trait vs. combination of traits	a. If the construct is a single trait: reflective b. If the construct is a combination of traits: formative	Fornell and Bookstein (1982)
3. Consequences vs. causes of the constructs	a. If the indicators represent consequences of the constructs: reflective b. If the indicators represent causes of the constructs: formative	Rossiter (2002)
4. Covariation	a. If all indicators change in a similar manner: reflective b. If all indicators don't change in a similar manner: formative	Chin (1998)
5. Interchangeability	a. If the indicators are mutually interchangeable: reflective b. If the indicators are mutually interchangeable: formative	Jarvis et al. (2003)

Formative and reflective constructs relationships are represented in path models. An example of a path model is presented in Figure 6-2. In this diagram, there are two sets of linear equations: the inner or structural model and the outer or measurement model. The inner model represents the relationships between the constructs, whereas the outer

model represents the relationships between a construct and its observed variables (Henseler et al., 2009; Hair et al., 2014).

Figure 6-2 Example of a PLS Path Model (Figure 1. of Henseler et al., 2009)



In this model, constructs ξ_1 and ξ_2 are formative (with a causal relationship from the indicators to the construct) while constructs ξ_3 and ξ_4 are reflective (with a causal relationship from the construct to the indicators). According to Henseler et al. (2009), the inner model for relationships between constructs, assuming that all variables are standardized, can be represented as:

$$\xi = B \xi + \zeta \quad (1)$$

where ξ is the vector of constructs, B is the matrix of coefficients of the relationships

between constructs, and ζ is the inner model residuals.

The reflective measurement model has causal relationships from the constructs to the observed variables in its block (Henseler et al., 2009), and can be represented as:

$$X_x = \Lambda_x \xi + \varepsilon_x \quad (2)$$

where X is the observed variable in a certain measurement model of construct ξ , Λ are the loading coefficients, and ε is the residual.

The formative measurement model has causal relationships from the observed variables to its constructs (Henseler et al., 2009), and can be represented as:

$$\xi = \Pi_x X_x + \varepsilon_x \quad (3)$$

where X is the observed variable in a certain measurement model of construct ξ , Π are the weights coefficients, and ε is the residual.

Drawing the distinction between a formative and a reflective measurement model is an important step to avoid potential misspecification about the direction of causality between constructs and their measures. By default, the relationship between a construct and its measures is reflective; however, many constructs are formative by nature, being a reflection of their indicators. Jarvis et al. (2003) found a substantial amount of measurement model misspecification present in four journals, ranging from 17% to 34%. According to these authors, the findings suggest that measurement model misspecification is a serious problem leading to both Type I (declaring that a path is

significant when it is not significant) and Type II errors (declaring a path not significant when it is significant).

Thus, in the present study all the constructs and its respective measurement model were first validated in the literature, and then carefully examined by two reviewers in order to determine if the construct is reflective or formative. Table 6-2 presents the constructs' classification.

Table 6-2 Constructs' Classification into Reflective or Formative Constructs

Reflective Constructs	Formative Constructs
Learning Goal Orientation (LGO)	Interpersonal Communication Skills (ICS)
Leadership Self-Efficacy (LSE)	Vision Articulation & Realization (VAR)
Proactive Behavior (PB)	Adaptive Behavior (AB)
Proximal Working Relationship (PWR)	Effective Leadership Behavior (ELB)
	Overall Impact on Organizational Effectiveness (IOE)

6.3. PARTICIPANTS, MEASURES AND DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

6.3.1. PARTICIPANTS IN THE STUDY

In this study, three non-probabilistic samples were used to reach different types of respondents. Leaders were targeted in samples 1 and 2, while in the third sample the focus was on team members. A detailed description of the three samples follows.

Sample Leaders 1: A total of 663 leaders participated in the survey. To reach a broader range of participants, the survey was distributed mainly through professional associations, business schools, and professional networks. Data collection occurred between 21 May and 20 September 2013. Of the 663 respondents, 416 questionnaires were rejected due to the lack of information. Therefore, the final number of usable questionnaires was 247, which correspond to a response rate of 37%. The respondents were predominantly male (60%), with a high educational level (65% have at least a graduate or master degree), with stable working relationships (52% have a company's tenure above 10 years), and an average age of 43 years. A detailed respondents' profile can be found in Table 6-18.

Sample Leaders 2: A total of 177 leaders from four companies participated in this study. Data collection occurred between 6 June and 26 August 2013. After screening and cleaning all data, the final number of usable questionnaires was 134. The response rate was 76%. The respondents were predominantly male (66%), with a high educational level (75% are at least undergraduate), with very stable working relationships (81% have a company's tenure above 10 years), and an average age of 41 years. A detailed respondents' profile can be found in Table 6-18.

Corporate Team Members Sample: A total of 1073 team members from the same four companies of *Sample Leaders 2* participated in this study. Data collection occurred between 6 June and 26 August 2013. After screening and cleaning all data, the final number of usable questionnaires was 686. The response rate was 76%. From those 686 team members participating in the study, only 491 matched a participating leader. Team members' respondents were predominantly male (60%) and their ages ranged from 23 to 64 with an average of 44 years. Respondents have a good educational level (55% are at

least undergraduate), a stable working relationship (80% have a company's tenure above 10 years), and have a recent relationship with their leaders (82% work with their leaders for less than 4 years). A detailed profile is exhibited in Table 6-19.

6.3.2. MEASURES AND INDICATORS

As aforementioned, a second literature review was conducted to identify existing measures for the constructs of interest in this study. To build the final survey instruments, we used the original scales (Appendices H and I). All the selected measures have exhibited sound psychometric properties in previous studies. For this study, we used two different instruments. The first instrument is a self-report questionnaire targeted to leaders, and the second instrument is a feedback questionnaire directed to team members. Table 6-3 presents all the measures used on each instrument associated with its respective construct. Both instruments were first translated from English to Portuguese and then back translated by the researcher. Then, two bilingual managers highly fluent in English and Portuguese reviewed the two versions to avoid ambiguous understandings by the respondents. Subsequently, a pre-test of the complete version of the questionnaires was made in twenty-four PhD students. Following their comments and suggestions, some minor corrections were made to the last version of the questionnaire (Appendices J and K).

Table 6-3 Measures used in Leader and Team Member Forms

Construct	Dimensions	Scale	Leader Form	Team Member Form
Personality Traits (Big Five)		Mini-IPIP	✓	
Interpersonal Communication Skills (ICS)	Communication Skills	Communicator Competence	✓	✓
	Active Listening Skills	ALAS	✓	✓
Learning Goal Orientation (LGO)		LGO	✓	
Leadership Self-Efficacy (LSE)		LSE	✓	
Proximal Working Relationship (PWR)		LMX	✓	✓
Vision Articulation & Realization (VAR)	Vision Articulation	VA	✓	✓
	Vision Communication	VC	✓	✓
	Empowerment	EM	✓	✓
	Motivation	MO	✓	✓
	Organizational Alignment	OA	✓	✓
Adaptive Behavior /Self-Monitoring (AB/SM)	Ability to Modify Self-presentation	AMS	✓	
	Sensitivity to Expressive Behavior of Others	SEB	✓	
Adaptive Behavior (AB)	Team Member Adaptivity	TMA		✓
Proactive Behavior (PB)	Team Member Proactivity	TMP	✓	✓
Impact on Organizational Effectiveness (IOE)	Leader Effectiveness	LE		✓
	Group Performance	GP	✓	✓
		OEF	✓	✓

Organizational
Effectiveness

All the constructs present in the research framework (Figure 5-1) were evaluated empirically. For this purpose, we computed a Confirmatory Factor Analysis using structural equation modeling as implemented in Partial Least Squares (PLS) with the SmartPLS2.0 (Ringle et al., 2005) software. The significance of the parameter estimates was assessed using bootstrapping with 500-sample replacement. Results are presented in section 6.6.

The leaders' form has ten sections (Appendices H and J). The first section describes in detail the instructions for the respondents. Sections 2 to 9 include all the items to assess leadership characteristics (traits, skills, behaviors, and outcomes). The final section includes questions to assess the respondents' profile in terms of age, gender, job function, tenure and hierarchical position in the firm. Overall, the questionnaire comprises 127 questions. The team members' form is a simpler version with only five sections (Appendices I and K). The first section explains that the questionnaire aims to collect information about the leadership characteristics of the respondent's direct report, as well as the detailed instructions. Sections 2 to 4 include the same items from the leaders' form to assess the perceived leadership characteristics of the respondents' direct report. Finally, the last section focuses on the respondents' profile. The questionnaire has 91 questions.

6.3.2.1. PERSONALITY TRAITS (BIG FIVE)

Raters assessed personality traits by self-report using the Mini-IPIP scale of Donnellan et al. (2006). This scale was chosen because it is a short measure of the five-

factor model personality traits derived from the original IPIP - International Personality Item Pool (Goldberg, 1990). Mini-IPIP has a 20-item short form that can be used in time critical assessment situations with acceptable reliability and similar patterns of relationships with the longer IPIP (Appendix L). For each item, respondents have a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*Very inaccurate*) to 5 (*Very accurate*). Sample items from this scale are ‘Am the life of the party’, ‘Do not talk a lot’, and ‘Have frequent mood swings’. This scale has both positively and negatively wording items and demonstrated internal reliability with a Cronbach’s alpha ranging from 0.78 to 0.85 for Extraversion, from 0.70 to 0.81 for Agreeableness, from 0.65 to 0.77 for Conscientiousness, from 0.70 to 0.78 for Emotional Stability, and 0.70 to 0.80 for Openness to Experience (Cooper et al., 2010; Credé and Harms, 2012).

6.3.2.2. INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS

Communication skills were measured using two scales, one for communicator competence developed by Monge et al. (1982), and another for active listening skills developed by Mishima et al. (2000). Both scales have 20 items (Appendix L). For each item, respondents have a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*). Sample items from this scale are ‘Has a good command of the language’, ‘Is easy to talk to’, and ‘Listens to other people trying to put himself in his/her shoes’. In other studies, the communicator competence scale reported internal reliability with a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.90 (Madlock, 2008), while active listening skills scale had 0.78 (Mishima et al., 2000).

6.3.2.3. LEARNING GOAL ORIENTATION

Learning goal orientation was assessed based on a 5-item measure (VandeWalle, 1997) as exhibited in Appendix L. Respondents were asked to rate from a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*) to what extent they felt identified with the statements. Examples of items include ‘I often read materials related to my work to improve my ability’, ‘I often look for opportunities to develop new skills and knowledge’, and ‘I prefer to work in situations that require a high level of ability and talent’. This scale had, in prior studies, an internal reliability (Cronbach’s alpha) of 0.84 (VandeWalle et al., 2001).

6.3.2.4. LEADERSHIP SELF-EFFICACY

LSE was assessed based on a 6-item measure (Appendix L) developed by Chan and Drasgow (2001), which was adapted from Feasel (1995). The items were responded, according to a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*). Examples of items include ‘I am not confident that I can lead others effectively’, ‘Leading others effectively is probably something I am good at’, and ‘I feel confident that I can be an effective leader in most of the groups that I work with’. This scale has internal reliability with Cronbach’s alpha ranging from 0.76 to 0.83 (Chan and Drasgow, 2001).

6.3.2.5. PROXIMAL WORKING RELATIONSHIP

This construct was operationalized using functional distance as a reflection of whether or not the team member is relatively distant from their leader in terms of their

working relationship (Napier and Ferris, 1993). Because leader-member exchange (LMX) theory has been used extensively to research into supervisor-subordinate relationships, this framework was used in this study. LMX was measured by seven items (Appendix L) based on works of Scandura and Graen (1984), Liden et al. (1993), Wayne et al. (1997), and Janssen and Van Yperen (2004). The items were responded, according to a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*). Examples of items include ‘I understand my team members’ problems and needs’, ‘I would defend my team members if they were not present to do so’, and ‘I would be personally inclined to help my team members solve problems in their work’. Internal consistency reported in other studies with Cronbach’s alpha above 0.89 (Hooper and Martin, 2008).

6.3.2.6. VISION ARTICULATION & REALIZATION

This construct was assessed using two different scales one for vision articulation (House, 1998), and another for vision realization (Kantabutra, 2008). Vision realization is based on Kantabutra’s (2003) vision theory that includes four components: (a) vision communication, (b) empowerment, (c) motivation, and (d) organizational alignment. Both scales have 15 items (Appendix L). For each item, respondents have a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*). Sample items from this scale are ‘I have a clear understanding of where we are going’, ‘I encourage employees to make more decisions regarding daily operations’, and ‘I set up new employee evaluation criteria according to the new vision’. Previous studies have reported Cronbach’s alphas of 0.82 for the vision articulation scale, and above 0.7 for all components of vision realization (Rafferty and Griffin, 2004; Kantabutra, 2008).

6.3.2.7. ADAPTIVE BEHAVIOUR

This construct was operationalized using self-monitoring theory (Snyder, 1974, 1979) which presumes consistent patterns of individual differences are based on the assumption that people regulate their self-presentation by adapting their actions in accordance with immediate situational cues (Lennox and Wolfe, 1984). The 13-item revised self-monitoring (Lennox and Wolfe, 1984) which measures only sensitivity to the expressive behavior of others and ability to modify self-presentation was used in the Leaders Form (Appendix L). For each item, respondents have a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*). Sample items from this scale are ‘I have the ability to control the way I come across to people, depending on the impression I wish to give them’, ‘I have found that I can adjust my behavior to meet the requirements of any situation I find myself in’, and ‘In conversations, I am sensitive to even the slightest change in the facial expression of the people I’m conversing with’. Previous studies have reported Cronbach’s alphas of 0.75 for the overall scale (Lennox and Wolfe, 1984).

Given that self-monitoring scale is a self-reporting instrument, we had to use another scale for team member raters. This scale is based on the concept of team member adaptivity (Griffin et al., 2007), which reflects the idea that individuals cope with, respond to, and/or support changes that affect their roles as members of a team. This concept is similar to “interpersonal adaptability” explained in section 5.3.5.3. (Pulakos et al., 2000). Thus, the 3-item team member adaptivity scale (Griffin et al., 2007) was selected. Respondents based on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*) rated items like ‘Dealt effectively with changes affecting your work unit’, ‘Learnt new skills or taken on new roles to cope with changes in the way your unit

works', and 'Responded constructively to changes in the way your unit works'. Previous studies have reported Cronbach's alphas of 0.79 (Griffin et al., 2007).

6.3.2.8. PROACTIVE BEHAVIOUR

This construct was measured using the 3-item team member proactivity scale (Griffin et al., 2007) as shown in Appendix L. Respondents based on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*) rated items like 'Suggested ways to make your work unit more effective', 'Developed new and improved methods to help your work unit to perform better', and 'Improved the way your unit does things'. Previous studies have reported Cronbach's alphas of 0.87 (Griffin et al., 2007).

6.3.2.9. OVERALL IMPACT ON ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

In order to capture a broader view, this construct was operationalized using a multi-dimensional approach based on the works of Bass and Avolio (1990b), Conger et al. (2000), and Griffin et al. (2007): (a) leader effectiveness, (b) group performance, and (c) organizational effectiveness. Leaders rated group performance and organizational effectiveness while team members rated all three dimensions. Both respondents have a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*). Overall, the three scales have 12 items (Appendix L). Sample items from the scales are 'He or she leads an effective group', 'We have high work performance', and 'He or she made suggestions to improve the overall effectiveness of the organization'. Previous studies have reported Cronbach's alphas of 0.85 for group performance, and 0.88 for organizational effectiveness scale (Conger et al., 2000; Griffin et al., 2007).

6.3.3. DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

Many scholars are increasingly using web-based surveys to collect data (e.g., Buchanan and Smith, 1999; Nesbary, 2000). According to Schmidt (1997), there are several advantages in terms of accessibility, time, and cost. In addition, the software can ensure that data from participants is free from common entry errors. However, this practice also involves some incidents like unacceptable responses, duplicate submissions, and web abuse. Researchers are strongly advised to monitor all data collected to avoid any inconsistencies. Thus, based on the aforementioned advantages this research used web-based survey to collect data.

Before collecting data, a pilot test was conducted with two sets of respondents. The twenty interview participants in the qualitative study composed the first set, while the second set included twenty-four PhD students. Data was collected using the web platform Qualtrics, and subsequently analyzed, but was not included in the current study. This pilot test aimed primarily to test the web platform and online survey instrument. Information was collected regarding the questions understanding, survey accessibility, and response time. Some errors were detected at this stage, like some optional fields that required the participants' input. Thus, additional corrections were introduced. Participants in the pilot test found some weaknesses such as the questionnaire's length and duration, and some questions difficult to understand. Additional improvements were introduced, like information regarding the average respondents' completion time, as well as a duration bar on each questionnaire's page. An important feature introduced was to enable participants to save all data collected in several stages, which allowed participants to complete the questionnaire whenever they wanted. Overall, the improvements contributed to a more accessible, understandable, and less time-consuming survey

instrument.

In this research, different types of respondents were used to do data triangulation. First, to reach a broad and diverse range of participants the weblink to the leader survey form was distributed by the following organizations: (1) Universidade de Lisboa, ISEG (School of Economics and Management); (2) Alumni ISEG; (3) APG (Associação Portuguesa de Técnicos de Gestão de Recursos Humanos). The weblink to the survey was also publicized in social networks like LinkedIn and Facebook. This instrument was targeted to entrepreneurs and managers from the private, public or state-owned sectors. Data collection occurred between 21 May and 20 September 2013, and during that period, 663 participants completed the survey. Second, the procedure involved an additional step to screening and cleaning data. All surveys without data in sections 2-9 were rejected. Then, data were assessed in terms of errors, outliers, and reverse coded questions checked for inconsistency. Finally, 247 usable questionnaires were considered for the current study.

Another subset of respondents was obtained with the collaboration of four organizations. A large bank and three medium size corporations from the pharmaceutical and manufacturing sectors. These organizations were invited to participate in an extensive study involving team leaders and members. First, a formal invitation was addressed to the HR director of each organization. After the approval, a massive collection of potential participants was conducted internally, and the participants' email contacts were sent to the researcher. A first email from the HR director was sent to the potential participants referring a description of the study and appealing to their participation. The researcher sent a second email with the weblink to the survey, and a notification that all responses would be strictly confidential, while the results would be only reported as statistical

summaries.

In this study, two different survey forms were used. The self-report questionnaire directed to leaders, and team members' questionnaires. Data collection occurred between 6 June and 26 August 2013. No additional emails were sent out, as the response rate was high, reaching 76% in both types of respondents. All the participant organizations received a full report with the main findings of the study. The same procedure involving screening and cleaning data was taken, and finally a total of 134 leaders and 686 team members' usable questionnaires were retained. The final procedure involved matching the team members with the respective team leader, which means that only 491 team members' questionnaires remained.

6.4. STATISTICAL TESTS

6.4.1. COMPARING SAMPLES

Given that we have two different samples for leaders, we used Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z and Mann-Whitney U Test to compare the medians for the two samples. Table 6-4 presents the results of these statistical tests applied to all items of the questionnaire. Both tests revealed no significant difference (for an alpha level of .01, $p \geq 0.01$) between the two groups, with the exceptions of three indicators: AMS6, LMX2, and LMX6. Therefore, we combined the two samples into a single set, which will be referred hereafter as *Combined Sample*.

Table 6-4 Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z and Mann-Whitney U Test Results

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	Mann-Whitney U	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
CC1	.189	1.000	16354	-.226	.821
AL1	.741	.643	14652	-2.091	.036
CC2	1.594	.012	13708	-3.131	.002
CC3	.582	.888	15003	-1.672	.095
CC4	.828	.500	15063	-1.659	.097
CC5	.445	.989	15405	-1.261	.207
AL5	.671	.759	14669	-2.132	.033
CC6	.498	.965	15896	-.703	.482
CC8	.866	.442	14191	-2.648	.008
CC9	1.594	.012	13723	-3.032	.002
AL8	.924	.361	14428	-2.351	.019
CC10	.826	.502	15164	-1.484	.138
CC11	.919	.368	14666	-1.994	.046
LGO1	.919	.366	14925	-1.834	.067
LGO2	.740	.643	15397	-1.272	.203
LGO3	1.039	.231	14638	-2.146	.032
LGO4	.207	1.000	16507	-.046	.963
LGO5	.382	.999	15611	-1.013	.311
PGO1	1.534	.018	14295	-2.259	.024
PGO2	.571	.900	15702	-.854	.393
PGO3	.703	.706	15078	-1.580	.114
PGO4	.505	.960	15748	-.819	.413
AGO1	.173	1.000	16430	-.121	.904
AGO2	.876	.426	14828	-1.810	.070
AGO3	.587	.881	15891	-.668	.504
AGO4	.593	.873	15406	-1.159	.247
AMS1	1.581	.013	13404	-3.489	.000
AMS2	.493	.968	15586	-1.034	.301
AMS3	.079	1.000	16440	-.112	.910
AMS4	.754	.620	15056	-1.611	.107
AMS5	.224	1.000	15954	-.649	.516
AMS6	1.645	.009	12721	-3.946	.000
AMS7	.647	.797	14668	-2.113	.035
SEB1	.610	.850	16103	-.473	.636
SEB2	.297	1.000	16380	-.178	.859
SEB3	.607	.855	16480	-.073	.942
SEB4	.125	1.000	16517	-.038	.970
SEB5	.585	.883	15611	-1.093	.274
SEB6	.204	1.000	16485	-.067	.947
LMX1	1.596	.012	13632	-3.318	.001
LMX2	1.835	.002	13206	-3.805	.000
LMX3	1.462	.028	13842	-3.121	.002

LMX4	1.270	.079	14182	-2.622	.009
LMX5	1.285	.074	14178	-2.688	.007
LMX6	1.752	.004	12883	-4.106	.000
LMX7	1.507	.021	13860	-3.013	.003
LSE1	1.443	.031	13775	-3.004	.003
LSE2	1.003	.267	14270	-2.462	.014
LSE3	1.337	.056	13748	-3.136	.002
LSE4	1.342	.055	13743	-3.080	.002
LSE5	.413	.996	15531	-1.169	.243
LSE6	.874	.429	15042	-1.546	.122
CB3	1.007	.262	14596	-2.169	.030
CB4	.536	.936	16480	-.073	.942
CB7	.629	.824	16004	-.613	.540
CB8	1.192	.116	13827	-2.928	.003
TMP1	.907	.383	14903	-1.845	.065
TMP2	1.131	.155	14440	-2.315	.021
TMP3	.482	.975	15590	-1.080	.280
OEF6	.812	.525	14698	-2.015	.044
OEF7	.589	.879	15212	-1.409	.159
OEF8	.951	.326	13975	-2.788	.005
AV1	1.175	.127	14122	-2.653	.008
AV2	.812	.525	15013	-1.636	.102
AV3	.973	.300	14341	-2.370	.018
VC1	.627	.826	14937	-1.785	.074
VC2	.338	1.000	16257	-.306	.760
EM1	.533	.939	15500	-1.159	.247
EM2	.149	1.000	16506	-.050	.960
EM3	.546	.927	15587	-1.060	.289
MO1	1.600	.012	12908	-3.864	.000
MO2	.790	.560	14524	-2.255	.024
MO3	1.109	.171	13779	-3.081	.002
MO4	.406	.997	15981	-.608	.543
OA1	1.362	.049	13907	-2.953	.003
OA2	1.163	.134	14110	-2.713	.007
GP1	1.055	.216	14163	-2.686	.007
GP2	.756	.617	14725	-2.095	.036
GP3	.836	.486	14406	-2.387	.017
GP4	.436	.991	16523	-.028	.978

6.4.2. TESTS OF NORMALITY

Tests of normality were conducted on all items of the questionnaire to assess if data came from a normal distribution. Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests applied to the items in the questionnaire in both samples (i.e., *combined sample* and *corporate team members sample*) showed that the data deviates from normality (Appendix M). Additionally, the actual shape of the distribution for each set of variables was confirmed in the Histogram and in the Normal Q-Q Plot as being non-normal, showing negative skewness and positive values of kurtosis (right-hand side of a graph and a pointy distribution). If the distribution is perfectly normal, the values of skewness and kurtosis should be zero (Field, 2005; Pallant, 2007). Therefore, parametric tests are not advised for this study because the assumption of normality was not achieved, instead transforming the variables is considered as a better alternative by Tabachnik and Fidell (2001), although this position doesn't reach consensus from the different authors, with some strongly supporting and others arguing against it (Pallant, 2007). As an alternative, non-parametric (assumption-free) tests can be used to test the hypotheses of interest as recommended by Field (2005).

6.5. ANALYTICAL DATA STRATEGY

Researchers are increasingly using statistical techniques that are more sophisticated to understand complex relationships in the social sciences. The surge of second-generation multivariate analysis techniques was a way to overcome some of the weaknesses and limitations of first-generation methods (Hair et al., 2014). There are two types of second-generation approaches, also referred as structural equation model (SEM)

methods. Covariance-based structural equation model (CB-SEM), which is primarily used to confirm theories, and variance-based or partial least squares structural equation model (PLS-SEM) primarily used to develop theories in exploratory research (Hair et al., 2014).

When theory is less developed and the main research objective is the prediction and explanation of constructs, researchers should consider the use of PLS-SEM instead of CB-SEM (Henseler et al., 2009; Hair et al., 2014). PLS-SEM uses the estimation procedure of ordinary least squares regression-based method with the objective of minimizing the residual variance of the endogenous constructs. Thus, PLS-SEM estimates path coefficients that maximize the R^2 value of the endogenous constructs. There are four critical considerations associated with the application of PLS-SEM on data, model properties, algorithm, and model evaluation issues (Table 6-5).

Table 6-5 Key Characteristics of PLS-SEM adapted from Hair et al. (2014)

Data Characteristics	
Sample Sizes	- Generally achieves high levels of statistical power with small sample sizes - Larger sample sizes increase the consistency of PLS estimations
Distribution	- PLS-SEM is a nonparametric method: no distributional assumptions
Missing Values	- Highly robust if missing values are below a reasonable level
Scale of Measurement	- Works with metric data, ordinal data, and binary coded variables (with some restrictions) - Some limitations when using categorical data to measure endogenous latent variables
Model Characteristics	
Number of Items in each Construct	- Handles construct measured with single and multi-item measures

Relationships between Constructs and their Indicators	- Incorporates both reflective and formative measurement models
Model Complexity	- Handles complex models with many structural model relations - Larger numbers of indicators are helpful to reduce PLS-SEM bias
Model Setup	- No causal loops allowed in the structural model (only recursive models)

PLS-SEM Algorithm Properties

Objective	- Minimizes the amount of unexplained variance (i.e., maximizes the R^2 values)
Efficiency	- Converges after a few iterations to the optimum solution
Construct Scores	- Estimated as linear combinations of their indicators - Used for predictive purposes - Can be used as input for subsequent analyses - Not affected by data inadequacies
Parameter Estimates	- Structural model relationships are generally underestimated (PLS-SEM bias) - Measurement model relationships are generally overestimated (PLS-SEM bias) - Consistency at large - High levels of statistical power

Model Evaluation Issues

Evaluation of the Overall Model	- No global <i>goodness-of-fit</i> criterion
Evaluation of the Measurement Models	- Reflective measurement models: reliability and validity assessments by multiple criteria - Formative measurement models: validity assessment, significance and relevance of indicator weights, indicator collinearity
Evaluation of the Structural Model	- Collinearity among sets of constructs, significance of path coefficients, coefficient of determination (R^2), effect size (f^2), predictive relevance (Q^2 and q^2 effect size)

PLS-SEM presents several strengths when compared to covariance-based methods. However, this method has some limitations as well. For instance, PLS-SEM cannot be applied in structural models with recursive relationships between constructs,

and for theory testing and confirmation has limited use, lacking an adequate global *goodness-of-fit* measure. Additionally, PLS-SEM parameter estimates are not optimal with regard to bias and consistency. In sum, the main characteristics of this method are: (1) the algorithm allows the unrestricted computation of cause-effect relationship models that employ both reflective and formative measurement models; (2) PLS can be used to estimate path models when sample sizes are small; (3) PLS path models can be very complex without leading to estimation problems; and (4) PLS path modeling can be used when data are non-normally distributed (Henseler et al., 2009; Hair et al., 2014).

The main goal of this research is to test the prediction capacity of a structural model based on previous qualitative findings, and grounded in existing theory. Further research addressing the predictive capacity of leadership models to explain organizational performance is still a priority in this field, especially for emerging models that incorporate an integrative perspective (e.g., Jaffe, 2001; Andersen, 2002; Avolio et al., 2009; Gardner et al., 2010). Given that PLS is regarded as an appropriate method for early stage research models where the emphasis is on theory exploration, extension, and prediction (Henseler et al., 2009; Hair et al., 2014), in this study, we follow this approach for several reasons. First, this research is exploratory, as the hypothesized model has not been tested in previous empirical studies. Second, the structural model is complex holding both formative and reflective constructs, and many associated indicators. Third, data are non-normally distributed (section 6.3.2) and PLS-SEM makes no assumptions regarding data distribution. Finally, this research aims to evaluate an intricate system of causal relationships between constructs.

Following the above reasoning, we selected Smart PLS 2.0 (Ringle et al., 2005) to evaluate the measurement and structural models. The PLS algorithm is essentially a

sequence of regressions in terms of weight vectors and follows a three-stage approach (Lohmöller, 1989). In the first stage, constructs' scores are estimated through a four-step iterative procedure. In the second stage, the algorithm estimates outer weights, loadings and path coefficients. Finally, in the last stage the algorithm estimates the location parameters.

Another important topic in PLS is the adequate sample size. As previously stated this method is suitable for small samples, and has a higher level of statistical power when compared to CB-SEM (Hair et al., 2011). However, there are some minimum requirements for a robust PLS path modelling. Usually, these are referred as the 10 times rule (Barclay et al., 1995), which indicates that the sample size should be equal to the larger of: (1) 10 times the largest number of formative indicators used to measure a single construct; or (2) 10 times the largest number of structural paths directed at a particular construct in the structural model. This rule of thumb means that the minimum sample size should be 10 times the maximum number of arrowheads directed to a construct anywhere in the PLS path model (Hair et al., 2014).

In this particular study, the largest number of formative indicators used to measure a single construct is 38 (ELB) in the *combined sample* and 26 (ELB) in the *corporate team members sample*. According to the above-mentioned rule of thumb, the minimum sample size should be respectively in each case, 380 and 260. Given that, the actual sample sizes are 381 and 491, we can conclude that the sample sizes are adequate for a robust PLS path modelling estimation. For evaluating the PLS results, since there is no established global goodness of fit criterion, the elements of the model structure are separately evaluated regarding certain quality criteria (1) for the reflective measurement models, (2) for the formative measurement models, and (3) for the structural model. These

evaluation processes are detailed in Sections 6.6. and 6.9.

6.6. EVALUATION OF THE MEASUREMENT MODELS

A single goodness-of-fit criterion is not available in PLS-SEM as it is for CB-SEM. In PLS-SEM, the term *fit* is derived from the discrepancies between the observed or approximated values of endogenous variables and the values predicted by the model. In this case, the evaluation of the measurement model is built on a set of non-parametric evaluation criteria using procedures such as bootstrapping and blindfolding (Hair et al., 2014). This evaluation involves a separate assessment process for each measurement model and for each sample.

6.6.1. EVALUATION OF THE MEASUREMENT MODELS FOR THE COMBINED SAMPLE

6.6.1.1. REFLECTIVE MEASUREMENT MODEL

Reflective measures represent the effects of an underlying construct. Therefore, causality is from the construct or latent variable to its indicators. These indicators should be highly correlated with each other, should be interchangeable, and any single item can be left out without changing the meaning of the construct (Hair et al., 2014). In the conceptual model proposed in Figure 5-1, the variables Learning Goal Orientation (LGO), Leadership Self-Efficacy (LSE), Proximal Working Relationship (PWR), and Proactive Behavior (PB) are modeled as reflective latent variables. In order to assess the reflective measurement model the following criteria are suggested by Hair et al. (2014): (a) internal consistency (composite reliability), (b) indicator reliability, (c) convergent

validity (average variance extracted), and (d) discriminant validity.

Internal Consistency Reliability

Reliability describes the overall consistency of a measure. A measure is said to have a high reliability if it produces similar results under consistent conditions. Thus, reliability reflects the degree to which items are free from random source error. The first criterion to be evaluated is Cronbach's alpha, which provides an estimate of the reliability based on the inter-correlations of the observed indicator variables. Nunally and Berstein (1994) have indicated 0.7 to be an acceptable reliability coefficient. As shown in Table 6-6, all constructs exhibit values above the threshold of 0.7. Cronbach's alpha assumes that all indicators are equally reliable (i.e., have equal outer loadings on the construct); however PLS-SEM prioritizes indicators according with their importance in the model. In this case, it is more appropriate to apply another criterion known as Composite Reliability that takes into account the different outer loadings of the indicator variables (Hair et al, 2014). Like Cronbach's alpha, this criterion also varies between 0 and 1, and values above 0.7 are regarded as satisfactory (Nunally and Berstein, 1994). The computed values for this criterion are also exhibited in Table 6-6, showing that all indicators have a Composite Reliability above 0.7. Therefore, all the reflective constructs considered in the model have good internal consistency reliability.

Indicator Reliability

Indicator reliability describes how much a construct has in common with its associated indicators. First, all indicators' outer loadings should be statistically

significant. Then, a common rule of thumb is that each indicator's outer loadings should be above 0.7. Nevertheless, before eliminating an indicator when its outer loading is below 0.70, researchers should carefully examine the effects of this item removal on the composite reliability and on the construct's content validity. Indicators with very low outer loadings (below 0.4) should always be removed from the scale (Hair et al., 2014). As exhibited in Table 6-6, all indicators have outer loadings statistically significant, and above the cutoff value of 0.4. There are four indicators between the range of 0.4 and 0.7, which are LSE1, LSE6, LMX2, and LMX7. However, those indicators were not eliminated because it would affect the construct's content validity, without significant impact on its composite reliability. Overall, the scales considered in the model have good indicator reliability.

Convergent Validity

Convergent validity represents the extent to which a measure correlates positively with alternate measures of the same construct. A common measure to assess the convergent validity is the average variance extracted (AVE). This criterion is defined as the sum of the squared loadings divided by the number of indicators (i.e., the communality of a construct). An established rule of thumb requires that AVE value is at least 50%, which indicates that, on average, the construct should explain more than half the variance of its indicators. All constructs have AVE values above 0.5.

Table 6-6 Reliability and Convergent Validity of Reflective Measurement Model

Reflective Multi-Item Constructs (Cronbach's alpha / Composite Reliability)		Indicator	Mean	SD	Loadings	Conv. Validity (t-statistic)
LGO	Learning Goal Orientation (0.86/0.90)	LGO1	0.781	0.030	0.78***	25.90
		LGO2	0.861	0.019	0.86***	46.14
		LGO3	0.862	0.017	0.86***	50.48
		LGO4	0.783	0.026	0.78***	30.43
		LGO5	0.697	0.040	0.70***	17.69
LSE	Leadership Self-Efficacy (0.84/0.88)	LSE1	0.693	0.041	0.69***	16.79
		LSE2	0.760	0.041	0.76***	18.25
		LSE3	0.794	0.031	0.79***	25.69
		LSE4	0.775	0.034	0.78***	22.58
		LSE5	0.800	0.021	0.80***	37.94
		LSE6	0.631	0.039	0.63***	16.06
PWR	Proximal Working Relationship (0.85/0.88)	LMX1	0.737	0.029	0.74***	25.56
		LMX2	0.678	0.039	0.68***	17.31
		LMX3	0.760	0.030	0.76***	25.10
		LMX4	0.741	0.025	0.74***	29.73
		LMX5	0.726	0.026	0.73***	28.04
		LMX6	0.742	0.029	0.74***	25.46
		LMX7	0.678	0.051	0.68***	13.24
PB	Proactive Behavior (0.84/0.90)	TMP1	0.864	0.015	0.86***	57.47
		TMP2	0.897	0.012	0.90***	75.10
		TMP3	0.850	0.021	0.85***	39.69

*p<0.10; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01

Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity represents the extent to which a construct is truly unique and distinct from other constructs. There are two criteria to establish discriminant validity. One criterion examines the indicators' cross loadings. Specifically, one indicator's outer loading on the respective construct should be greater than all of its loadings in other constructs. As shown in Table 6-7, all numbers in bold, which represent the indicator's outer loadings in its associated construct, are higher than any loadings in the other constructs (i.e., in the same row). The other method known as Fornell-Larcker criterion

compares the square root of the AVE values with the latent variable correlations. In particular, the square root of each construct's AVE should be higher than its highest correlation with other constructs (or in other words, AVE should exceed the squared correlation with any other constructs). As exhibited in Table 6-8, AVE values presented in the diagonal are higher than any of the squared correlations of the other constructs, with the exception of constructs PB and ELB. ELB is a second order construct composed of four dimensions, and as one of them is PB, the high bivariate correlation between the two constructs was expected. Overall, the constructs considered in the model show good discriminant validity.

Table 6-7 Cross Loadings between Indicators and respective Latent Variables

	LGO	LSE	PB	PWR
LGO1	0.781	0.267	0.333	0.328
LGO2	0.861	0.313	0.374	0.328
LGO3	0.862	0.364	0.425	0.402
LGO4	0.783	0.371	0.350	0.355
LGO5	0.699	0.339	0.321	0.286
LMX1	0.307	0.302	0.330	0.739
LMX2	0.321	0.397	0.315	0.676
LMX3	0.295	0.391	0.397	0.761
LMX4	0.271	0.294	0.323	0.741
LMX5	0.364	0.337	0.298	0.725
LMX6	0.289	0.322	0.346	0.741
LMX7	0.326	0.240	0.281	0.675
LSE1	0.241	0.693	0.216	0.264
LSE2	0.286	0.756	0.339	0.356
LSE3	0.359	0.794	0.382	0.379
LSE4	0.306	0.776	0.281	0.309
LSE5	0.411	0.800	0.398	0.412
LSE6	0.221	0.630	0.312	0.272
TMP1	0.397	0.396	0.864	0.436
TMP2	0.424	0.372	0.898	0.387
TMP3	0.364	0.379	0.850	0.362

Note: Numbers in bold correspond to the indicators' loadings of each latent variable.

Table 6-8 Discriminant validity of the instrument.

	AB	ELB	ICS	IOE	LGO	LSE	PB	PWR	VAR
AB	n/a								
ELB	0.345	n/a							
ICS	0.317	0.438	n/a						
IOE	0.199	0.594	0.237	n/a					
LGO	0.101	0.286	0.209	0.185	0.639				
LSE	0.131	0.316	0.256	0.193	0.174	0.554			
PB	0.090	0.783	0.214	0.450	0.206	0.193	0.758		
PWR	0.239	0.499	0.440	0.287	0.183	0.206	0.207	0.523	
VAR	0.177	0.692	0.340	0.398	0.230	0.313	0.366	0.362	n/a

Note: Diagonal numbers exhibit AVE; numbers below diagonal represent construct squared correlations. n/a values are for formative constructs, for which AVE calculation does not apply.

In summary, all the criteria referred above have met the minimum requirement, which means that the overall instrument has good psychometric characteristics.

6.6.1.2. FORMATIVE MEASUREMENT MODEL

Formative measurement models are based on the assumption that the indicators cause the constructs. An important characteristic of formative indicators is that they do not necessarily correlate high, and they are not interchangeable. In fact, each indicator captures an aspect of the construct's domain, which means that eliminating an indicator potentially changes the construct's nature (Hair et al., 2014). In the conceptual model proposed in Figure 5-1, the variables Interpersonal Communication Skills (ICS), Adaptive Behavior (AB), Vision Articulation & Realization (VAR), and Overall Impact on Organizational Effectiveness (IOE) are modeled as formative latent variables. In order to assess the formative measurement model the following criteria are suggested by Hair et al. (2014): (a) content validity, (b) convergent validity, (c) multicollinearity, and (d) significance and relevance of the formative indicators.

Content Validity

As mentioned previously, content validity is the first type of validity for the formative constructs. Following Hair et al. (2010) recommendation, we have conducted a thorough literature review and ensured a reasonable theoretical grounding for the formative constructs. In addition, we have compared the context specification mentioned in the literature with the underlying meaning obtained in the interviews. Then, we have included a comprehensive set of indicators to exhaust fully the formative constructs' domain referring to previous empirical studies (Section 6.3.2.).

Convergent Validity

Convergent validity describes the extent to which an indicator correlates positively with the other indicators of the same construct. To evaluate if a formative construct has convergent validity, it is used a redundancy analysis. More specifically, the formative construct is used as an exogenous variable predicting an endogenous variable operationalized through one or more reflective indicators. The strength of the path coefficients linking both constructs is indicative of the validity of formative indicators in capturing respective construct. Chin (1998) recommends a threshold of 0.8, which translates into an R^2 of at least 0.64. In this case, all the formative constructs are above the threshold as shown in Table 6-9.

Table 6-9 Convergent Validity of Formative Constructs

	Path	R ²
ICS ^{Formative} → ICS ^{Reflective}	0.809	0.655
AB ^{Formative} → AB ^{Reflective}	0.818	0.669
IOE ^{Formative} → IOE ^{Reflective}	0.838	0.703
VAR ^{Formative} → VAR ^{Reflective}	0.843	0.710

Multicollinearity

Formative indicators are not expected to exhibit high correlations between them. In fact, high correlations (i.e., collinearity) mean that those indicators are redundant and could be irrelevant to the formation of a construct. As such, high levels of collinearity is problematic and may affect the results of the analysis in regard to the ability to demonstrate that the estimated weights are significantly different from zero, and their weights may be incorrectly estimated or with a reversed sign. To assess the level of collinearity, there are two measures that can be used the Tolerance or the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). In the context of PLS-SEM, a tolerance value below or equal to 0.20 or a VIF value above or equal to 5 indicate a potential collinearity problem (Hair et al., 2011). VIF values were computed using SPSS to regress each block of formative indicators associated with the same construct. As exhibited in Table 6-10, all the formative indicators have VIF values below the threshold of 5. However, Diamantopoulos and Siguaaw (2006) have a more conservative approach, and consider an acceptable value for VIF below 3.33. One of the indicators OEF3 has a VIF value below 5 and above 3.33, while its bivariate correlation with another indicator OEF1 is high ($r_{\text{OEF6},\text{OEF8}} = 0.823$). In this case, Hair et al. (2011) advise to consider an item removal

only if the construct's content validity is not affected. After reviewing the whole construct's block of indicators, OEF3 was found to be similar to OEF1. Therefore, this item was deleted without compromising the construct's content validity.

Table 6-10 Multicollinearity Analysis of Formative Constructs

Formative Constructs		Indicator	Mean	SD	Weights	VIF
ICS	Interpersonal Communication Skills	AL1	0.098	0.077	0.11	1.851
		AL2	-0.032	0.065	-0.03	1.749
		AL3	-0.002	0.058	0.00	1.200
		AL4	-0.046	0.057	-0.05	1.471
		AL5	0.068	0.066	0.06	1.408
		AL6	-0.113	0.065	-0.12*	1.634
		AL7	0.080	0.065	0.08	1.212
		AL8	0.284	0.067	0.29****	1.713
		CC1	0.117	0.063	0.12*	1.312
		CC2	0.081	0.065	0.10	1.651
		CC3	0.156	0.055	0.16****	1.322
		CC4	0.110	0.068	0.11*	1.847
		CC5	0.191	0.067	0.19****	1.669
		CC6	0.037	0.071	0.05	1.814
		CC7	0.042	0.071	0.05	1.596
		CC8	0.205	0.068	0.21****	1.546
		CC9	0.100	0.066	0.10	1.646
		CC10	0.232	0.065	0.25****	1.475
		CC11	0.045	0.052	0.04	1.292
		CC12	0.010	0.048	0.01	1.296
AB	Adaptive Behavior	AMS1	0.182	0.099	0.19*	1.464
		AMS2	-0.095	0.114	-0.10	1.986
		AMS3	-0.074	0.107	-0.08	1.862
		AMS4	0.112	0.111	0.12	1.411
		AMS5	0.244	0.105	0.25**	1.541
		AMS6	0.007	0.093	0.01	1.162
		AMS7	0.289	0.094	0.30****	1.279
		SEB1	0.038	0.119	0.04	2.187
		SEB2	0.134	0.098	0.15	1.726
		SEB3	0.262	0.113	0.28**	2.026
		SEB4	0.207	0.105	0.22**	1.720
		SEB5	0.062	0.115	0.06	1.870
		SEB6	0.183	0.093	0.19**	1.664

VAR	Vision Realization	AV1	0.096	0.068	0.10	1.904
		AV2	0.064	0.061	0.06	1.689
		AV3	0.036	0.068	0.03	1.442
		VC1	0.243	0.057	0.25***	1.780
		VC2	0.008	0.067	0.01	1.904
		VC3	0.064	0.066	0.06	1.816
		EM1	0.004	0.078	0.01	2.032
		EM2	0.266	0.066	0.28***	1.986
		EM3	-0.045	0.068	-0.06	1.970
		MO1	0.124	0.060	0.13**	1.548
		MO2	0.139	0.073	0.14*	1.976
		MO3	0.171	0.071	0.17**	2.074
		MO4	0.041	0.067	0.04	1.715
		OA1	0.123	0.066	0.12*	1.687
		OA2	0.122	0.065	0.12*	1.626
IOE	Impact on Organizational Effectiveness	GP1	0.256	0.077	0.25***	1.896
		GP2	0.115	0.059	0.12**	1.709
		GP3	0.102	0.064	0.10	1.922
		GP4	-0.059	0.064	-0.06	2.066
		GP5	0.183	0.067	0.18***	1.560
		OEF1	0.523	0.075	0.53***	2.191
		OEF2	0.260	0.071	0.27***	2.160

Significance and Relevance of the Formative Indicators.

Another important criterion for evaluating the contribution of a formative indicator is its outer weights. These values result from a multiple regression, and can therefore be compared with each other to determine each indicator's relative importance to the construct. In the context of PLS, those outer weights are tested through the bootstrapping procedure to assess if they are significantly different from zero. The indicator's outer weights are influenced by the whole set of relationships in the model, which means that their relative importance depends on the endogenous variables considered. Constructs comprising a large set of indicators are more likely to have one or more indicators with low or even non-significant outer weights. In this case, Cenfetelli

and Bassellier (2009) recommend to group indicators into two or more distinct constructs that make sense from a theoretical and conceptual perspective and assess their outer weights. In the eventuality of finding non-significant indicator weights, it should also be considered the indicator's outer loadings. As a rule of thumb, Hair et al. (2014) suggest the following approach. If an indicator's outer weight is non-significant, but its outer loading is above 0.5, the indicator is important from an absolute standpoint but not from a relative one. In this situation, the indicator would generally be retained. If its outer loading is below 0.5, researchers should examine its significance and potential overlapping before considering its removal.

As shown in Table 6-11, several formative indicators have, as expected, non-significant outer weights. After following the authors' suggestions of (a) grouping the indicators, and (b) computing the indicator's outer loadings, all the formative indicators exhibit significant loadings, even when the loading values are below 0.5. Even in this case, all the indicators have a strong theoretical support for the formative construct. Therefore, if the theoretical conceptualization supports the construct's formation, Hair et al. (2014) recommend retaining the indicator.

Another problematic situation is the co-occurrence of negative and positive indicator weights. Cenfetelli and Bassellier (2009) raise this topic and present some recommendations. Generally, negative formative indicator weights are counterintuitive as it means that an increase in the indicator would diminish the associated construct. This situation can lead to a misinterpretation of the results. As indicated by these authors, a possible interpretation is that suppression effects are involved. This effect occurs when one of the predictor variables explains significant variance in other predictor variables. In this case, multicollinearity was already assessed in the formative indicators and was not

a problematic issue. In addition, the authors suggest that if negatively weighted items are (a) not suppressors or (b) not collinear, they should remain in the formative construct. Therefore, following the above recommendations, all the formative indicators were maintained in the associated constructs.

In summary, despite all the issues raised about non-significant and negative weights, all the formative constructs have a strong theoretical and conceptual support well grounded in the existing literature. In addition, these problematic situations only raise additional difficulties in interpreting the indicator's weights, and do not represent a threat to the measurement model quality nor to the results.

Table 6-11 Significance and Relevance of Formative Indicators

Formative Constructs		Sub-Group	Indicator	Initial Weights	After Grouping Weights	Outer Loadings
ICS	Interpersonal Communication Skills	Active	AL1	0.11	0.28***	0.60***
			AL2	-0.03	0.24***	0.50***
		Listening	AL3	0.00	0.13***	0.25***
			AL4	-0.05	0.20***	0.40***
			AL5	0.06	0.21***	0.43***
			AL6	-0.12*	0.14***	0.26***
			AL7	0.08	0.14***	0.32***
	Communication Competence	Communication Competence	AL8	0.29***	0.29***	0.66***
			CC1	0.12*	0.11***	0.36***
			CC2	0.10	0.17***	0.54***
			CC3	0.16***	0.13***	0.44***
			CC4	0.11*	0.20***	0.60***
			CC5	0.19***	0.21***	0.68***
			CC6	0.05	0.13***	0.39***
			CC7	0.05	0.12***	0.38***
			CC8	0.21***	0.19***	0.63***
			CC9	0.10	0.15***	0.48***
			CC10	0.25***	0.21***	0.69***
			CC11	0.04	0.10***	0.28***
			CC12	0.01	0.09***	0.29***
AB	Adaptive Behavior	Ability to	AMS1	0.19*	0.21***	0.39***

		Modify Self	AMS2	-0.10	0.23***	0.34***
		Presentation	AMS3	-0.08	0.23***	0.34***
			AMS4	0.12	0.22***	0.40***
			AMS5	0.25**	0.28***	0.59***
			AMS6	0.01	0.11***	0.20**
			AMS7	0.30***	0.25***	0.58***
		Sensitivity to	SEB1	0.04	0.23***	0.63***
		Expressive	SEB2	0.15	0.21***	0.59***
		Behaviors	SEB3	0.28**	0.25***	0.75***
			SEB4	0.22**	0.21***	0.65***
			SEB5	0.06	0.22***	0.59***
			SEB6	0.19**	0.21***	0.60***
VAR	Vision Realization	Articulate a Vision	AV1	0.10	0.47***	0.64***
			AV2	0.06	0.41***	0.56***
			AV3	0.03	0.35***	0.46***
	Vision Communication	Vision	VC1	0.25***	0.47***	0.73***
			VC2	0.01	0.38***	0.54***
			VC3	0.06	0.37***	0.53***
	Empowerment	Empowerment	EM1	0.01	0.37***	0.60***
			EM2	0.28***	0.42***	0.72***
			EM3	-0.06	0.38***	0.59***
	Motivation	Motivation	MO1	0.13**	0.29***	0.61***
			MO2	0.14*	0.34***	0.71***
			MO3	0.17**	0.35***	0.74***
			MO4	0.04	0.30***	0.62***
	Organizational Alignment	Organizational Alignment	OA1	0.12*	0.58***	0.67***
			OA2	0.12*	0.57***	0.65***
IOE	Impact on Organizational Effectiveness	Group Performance	GP1	0.25***	0.27***	0.61***
			GP2	0.12**	0.25***	0.54***
			GP3	0.10	0.27***	0.58***
			GP4	-0.06	0.25***	0.46***
			GP5	0.18***	0.23***	0.51***
	Organizational Effectiveness	Organizational Effectiveness	OEF1	0.53***	0.55***	0.85***
			OEF2	0.27***	0.53***	0.78***

6.6.2. EVALUATION OF THE MEASUREMENT MODELS FOR THE CORPORATE TEAM MEMBERS SAMPLE

To assess the measurement models for the *corporate team members sample*, we have undertaken the same procedures, as in section 6.6.1, evaluating the following criteria

for the reflective model: (a) internal consistency (composite reliability), (b) indicator reliability, (c) convergent validity (average variance extracted), and (d) discriminant validity; and then for the formative model: (a) content validity, (b) convergent validity, (c) multicollinearity, and (d) significance and relevance of the formative indicators.

6.6.2.1. REFLECTIVE MEASUREMENT MODEL

Internal Consistency Reliability

All the reflective constructs exhibited in Table 6-12 have Cronbach's alpha and Composite Reliability above the threshold of 0.7. Therefore, all the reflective constructs considered in the model have good internal consistency reliability.

Indicator Reliability

All indicators have outer loadings statistically significant and above the cutoff value of 0.4. There are only two indicators between the range of 0.4 and 0.7, which are LSE1 and LSE4. However, those indicators were not eliminated because it would affect the construct's content validity, without significant impact on its composite reliability. Overall, the scales considered in the model have good indicator reliability.

Convergent Validity

All constructs exhibited in Table 6-14 have AVE values above the threshold of 0.5, as an indication that, on average, the construct explains more than half the variance of its indicators.

Discriminant Validity

As shown in Table 6-13, all numbers in bold, which represent the indicator's outer loadings in its associated construct, are higher than any loadings in the other constructs (i.e., in the same row). In addition, AVE values (Table 6-14) presented in the diagonal are higher than any of the squared correlations of the other constructs, with the exception of constructs AB and ELB. ELB is a second order construct composed of four dimensions, and as one of them is AB, the high bivariate correlation between the two constructs was expected. The indicator LMX7 was removed to improve its associated construct's AVE value without compromising its reliability. Overall, the constructs considered in the model show good discriminant validity.

Table 6-12 Reflective Measurement Model Internal Reliability

Reflective Multi-Item Constructs (Cronbach's alpha / Composite Reliability)		Indicator	Mean	SD	Loadings	Conv. Validity (t-statistic)
LGO	Learning Goal Orientation (0.85/0.89)	LGO1	0.777	0.032	0.78***	24.32
		LGO2	0.861	0.024	0.86***	35.43
		LGO3	0.800	0.033	0.80***	24.50
		LGO4	0.871	0.015	0.87***	59.83
		LGO5	0.627	0.051	0.63***	12.37
LSE	Leadership Self-Efficacy (0.82/0.86)	LSE1	0.521	0.084	0.52***	6.21
		LSE2	0.858	0.017	0.86***	50.95
		LSE3	0.840	0.017	0.84***	49.06
		LSE4	0.581	0.092	0.58***	6.32
		LSE5	0.834	0.019	0.84***	44.78
		LSE6	0.576	0.057	0.58***	10.20
PWR	Proximal Working Relationship (0.93/0.95)	LMX1	0.829	0.017	0.83***	49.47
		LMX2	0.881	0.019	0.88***	45.67
		LMX3	0.876	0.014	0.88***	63.27
		LMX4	0.837	0.019	0.84***	44.89
		LMX5	0.873	0.016	0.87***	55.39
		LMX6	0.897	0.012	0.90***	75.95
PB	Proactive Behavior (0.93/0.96)	TMP1	0.922	0.008	0.92***	111.96
		TMP2	0.952	0.005	0.95***	202.41
		TMP3	0.939	0.006	0.94***	157.21
AB	Adaptive Behavior (0.90/0.94)	TMP1	0.919	0.009	0.92***	101.78
		TMP2	0.904	0.010	0.90***	89.35
		TMP3	0.922	0.009	0.92***	108.85

*p<0.10; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01

Table 6-13 Cross Loadings between Indicators and respective Latent Variables

	AB	LGO	LSE	PB	PWR
AB1	0.919	0.000	0.090	0.799	0.684
AB2	0.904	0.018	0.020	0.779	0.628
AB3	0.922	0.033	0.086	0.733	0.698
LMX1	0.641	-0.021	0.047	0.586	0.828
LMX2	0.618	-0.011	0.019	0.557	0.880
LMX3	0.654	0.021	0.056	0.552	0.876
LMX4	0.561	-0.006	0.028	0.474	0.837
LMX5	0.681	0.003	0.054	0.621	0.873
LMX6	0.640	0.022	0.054	0.545	0.897
PB1	0.747	-0.003	0.043	0.922	0.586
PB2	0.797	-0.005	0.087	0.952	0.602
PB3	0.823	-0.005	0.068	0.940	0.625
LGO1	-0.093	0.780	0.226	-0.091	-0.075
LGO2	-0.028	0.863	0.282	-0.081	-0.033
LGO3	-0.039	0.801	0.242	-0.072	-0.031
LGO4	0.023	0.872	0.415	-0.004	-0.004
LGO5	0.130	0.629	0.377	0.145	0.095
LSE1	0.103	0.067	0.522	0.105	0.092
LSE2	0.001	0.435	0.861	0.019	-0.001
LSE3	0.093	0.298	0.841	0.099	0.082
LSE4	0.005	0.137	0.579	-0.016	-0.007
LSE5	0.065	0.448	0.840	0.050	0.036
LSE6	0.090	0.056	0.579	0.075	0.039

Note: Numbers in bold correspond to the indicators' loadings of each latent variable.

Table 6-14 Discriminant validity of the instrument.

	AB	ELB	ICS	IOE	LGO	LSE	PB	PWR	VAR
AB	0.837								
ELB	0.906	n/a							
ICS	0.575	0.640	n/a						
IOE	0.672	0.751	0.458	n/a					
LGO	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.007	0.630				
LSE	0.005	0.008	0.011	0.013	0.174	0.516			
PB	0.709	0.863	0.490	0.639	0.000	0.005	0.880		
PWR	0.537	0.583	0.737	0.432	0.000	0.003	0.415	0.749	
VAR	0.648	0.817	0.701	0.605	0.002	0.008	0.577	0.692	n/a

Note: Diagonal numbers exhibit AVE; numbers below diagonal represent construct squared correlations.
n/a values are for formative constructs, for which AVE calculation does not apply.

6.6.2.2. FORMATIVE MEASUREMENT MODEL

Convergent Validity

Convergent validity describes the extent to which an indicator correlates positively with the other indicators of the same construct. To evaluate if a formative construct has convergent validity, it is used a redundancy analysis. Specifically, the formative construct is used as an exogenous variable predicting an endogenous variable operationalized through one or more reflective indicators. The strength of the path coefficients linking both constructs is indicative of the validity of formative indicators in capturing respective construct. Chin (1998) recommends a threshold of 0.8, which translates into an R^2 of at least 0.64. In this case, all the formative constructs are above the threshold as shown in Table 6-15.

Table 6-15 Convergent Validity of Formative Constructs

	Path	R^2
ICS ^{Formative} --> ICS ^{Reflective}	0.920	0.846
IOE ^{Formative} → IOE ^{Reflective}	0.904	0.816
VAR ^{Formative} --> VAR ^{Reflective}	0.919	0.845

Multicollinearity

As exhibited in Table 6-16, all the formative indicators have VIF values below the threshold of 5. However, the following indicators had a VIF value below 5 and above the more conservative level of 3.33: AL1, CC2, CC4, CC5, CC6, MO2, GP1, GP2, GP3, GP4, LEF1, LEF2, LEF3 and OEF3. Those indicators were removed to avoid any

multicollinearity problems without compromising the construct's content validity.

Table 6-16 Multicollinearity analysis of Formative Constructs

Formative Constructs		Indicator	Mean	SD	Weights	VIF
ICS	Interpersonal	AL2	0.045	0.042	0.04	2.426
		AL3	0.013	0.031	0.02	1.787
	Communication Skills	AL4	0.116	0.043	0.12***	2.692
		AL5	0.151	0.043	0.16***	2.482
		AL6	0.076	0.038	0.08**	2.236
		AL7	0.050	0.033	0.05	1.524
		AL8	0.161	0.041	0.16***	2.251
		CC1	0.027	0.039	0.03	1.452
		CC3	0.103	0.036	0.10***	1.656
		CC7	0.044	0.028	0.05	1.624
		CC8	0.161	0.049	0.16***	2.327
		CC9	0.031	0.037	0.03	1.731
		CC10	0.278	0.047	0.28***	2.718
		CC11	0.052	0.032	0.05	1.800
		CC12	0.060	0.038	0.06	1.772
VAR	Vision Realization	AV1	0.078	0.044	0.08*	2.703
		AV2	0.023	0.036	0.02	2.181
		AV3	0.051	0.031	0.05*	1.453
		VC1	0.080	0.041	0.08**	2.347
		VC2	0.046	0.038	0.05	2.283
		VC3	0.030	0.044	0.03	2.432
		EM1	-0.008	0.031	-0.01	1.736
		EM2	0.128	0.041	0.13***	2.298
		EM3	0.097	0.038	0.10**	2.632
		MO1	0.357	0.047	0.36***	2.965
		MO3	0.019	0.041	0.02	2.909
		MO4	0.098	0.040	0.10**	2.089
		OA1	0.216	0.042	0.22***	2.265
		OA2	0.078	0.041	0.08*	2.598
IOE	Impact on Organizational Effectiveness	GP5	0.096	0.051	0.09*	2.708
		LEF4	0.053	0.049	0.05	2.718
		OEF1	0.465	0.049	0.47***	3.142
		OEF2	0.522	0.051	0.52***	3.134

Significance and Relevance of the Formative Indicators.

As presented in Table 6-17, several formative indicators have non-significant outer weights. However, all the formative indicators exhibit significant loadings, even when the loading values are below 0.5.

Table 6-17 Significance and Relevance of the Formative Indicators

Formative Constructs		Subgroup	Indicator	Weights	Outer Loadings
ICS	Interpersonal Communication Skills	Active	AL2	0.04	0.75***
			AL3	0.02	0.64***
		Listening	AL4	0.12***	0.78***
			AL5	0.16***	0.80***
			AL6	0.08**	0.74***
			AL7	0.05	0.56***
	Communication Competence		AL8	0.16***	0.76***
			CC1	0.03	0.54***
			CC3	0.10***	0.63***
			CC7	0.05	0.15**
			CC8	0.16***	0.77***
			CC9	0.03	0.33***
VAR	Vision Realization	Articulate a Vision	CC10	0.28***	0.87***
			CC11	0.05	0.63***
			CC12	0.06	0.63***
		Vision Communication	AV1	0.08*	0.75***
			AV2	0.02	0.65***
			AV3	0.05*	0.44***
		Empowerment	VC1	0.08**	0.70***
			VC2	0.05	0.53***
			VC3	0.03	0.54***
		Motivation	EM1	-0.01	0.56***
			EM2	0.13***	0.75***
			EM3	0.10**	0.80***
		Organizational Alignment	MO1	0.36***	0.89***
			MO3	0.02	0.80***
			MO4	0.10**	0.74***
			OA1	0.22***	0.78***
			OA2	0.08*	0.76***
IOE	Impact on Organizational Effectiveness	Group Performance	GP5	0.09*	0.43***
		Organizational Effectiveness	LEF4	0.05	0.43***
			OEF1	0.47***	0.94***
			OEF2	0.52***	0.95***

6.7. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Combined Sample

Table 6-18 show the respondents' characteristics of *Samples Leaders 1* and 2, and the *Combined Sample*. As exhibited in the last column, respondents are predominantly male (62%), with an average age of 43 years. The majority of respondents work in the private sector (83%), mainly in banking (40%), services industry (27%), and manufacturing industry (9%). All hierarchical levels are well represented in the sample: board and C-level (23%), first management level (26%), and intermediate management level (39%). Respondents have a high level of education: graduate/master or PhD degree (51%), and undergraduate (38%). Most of the respondents have a stable working relationship. For instance, 60% of the respondents work in the same company for more than 10 years. However, 50% of the respondents have job tenures of less than 3 years.

Table 6-18 Respondents' Characteristics

	Sample Leaders 1 Frequency (n=247)		Sample Leaders 2 Frequency (n=134)		Combined Sample Frequency (n=381)	
		%		%		%
Gender						
Male	149	60%	88	66%	237	62%
Female	96	39%	46	34%	142	37%
Missing Values	2	1%	0	0%	2	1%
Age						
Less than 31 years	26	11%	1	1%	27	7%
Between 31 and 40 years	69	28%	72	54%	141	37%
Between 41 and 50 years	92	37%	46	34%	138	36%
Between 51 and 65 years	58	23%	15	11%	73	19%
Over 65 years	2	1%	0	0%	2	1%
Education						
High School	0	0%	25	19%	25	7%
Technical Training	3	1%	3	2%	6	2%
Bachelor	4	2%	6	4%	10	3%

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Undergraduate	81	33%	64	48%	145	38%
Graduate / Master	152	62%	33	25%	185	49%
PhD	5	2%	3	2%	8	2%
Missing Values	2	1%	0	0%	2	1%
Tenure in the Company						
Less than 1 year	24	10%	1	1%	25	7%
Between 1 and 3 years	41	17%	7	5%	48	13%
Between 4 and 9 years	53	21%	17	13%	70	19%
Between 10 and 15 years	56	23%	61	46%	117	32%
Between 16 and 24 years	41	17%	40	30%	81	22%
Over 25 years	14	6%	8	6%	22	6%
Missing Values	18	7%	0	0%	18	5%
Job Tenure						
Less than 1 year	22	9%	18	13%	40	11%
Between 1 and 3 years	69	28%	71	53%	140	39%
Between 4 and 9 years	75	30%	34	25%	109	30%
Between 10 and 15 years	44	18%	3	2%	47	13%
Over 15 years	19	8%	8	6%	27	7%
Missing Values	18	7%	0	0%	18	5%
Hierarchical Level						
Board	47	19%	6	4%	53	14%
General Management	32	13%	3	2%	35	9%
Management – 1 st Level	71	29%	29	22%	100	26%
Intermediate Managem.	59	24%	90	67%	149	39%
Other	20	8%	6	4%	26	7%
Missing Values	18	7%	6	4%	18	5%
Industry						
Manufacturing	24	10%	11	8%	35	9%
Distribution	27	11%	0	0%	27	7%
Pharmaceuticals	7	3%	12	9%	19	5%
Services	103	42%	0	0%	103	27%
ITC	27	11%	0	0%	27	7%
Banking	41	17%	111	83%	152	40%
Missing Values	18	7%	0	0%	18	5%
Shareholder Control						
Private Sector	185	75%	134	100%	319	84%
State Owned	35	14%	0	0%	35	9%
Third Sector (NGOs)	9	4%	0	0%	9	2%
Missing Values	18	7%	0	0%	18	5%

Corporate Team Members Sample

Table 6-19 show the respondents' characteristics of *corporate team members sample*. Respondents are also predominantly male (60%), with an average age of 44 years. All the respondents work in the private sector (100%), mainly in banking (82%), pharmaceuticals (9%), and manufacturing industry (9%). The majority of the respondents are in lower hierarchical levels (66%), while only 20% are in an intermediate management level, and 10% are in the first management level. Respondents have a good level of education: graduate/master or PhD degree (14%), and undergraduate (38%), and yet a considerable number of respondents have only concluded high school (35%). Most of the respondents have a very stable working relationship. For example, 77% of the respondents work in the same company for more than 10 years. However, 35% of the respondents have job tenures of less than 3 years, and 33% work with the same leader for less than one year.

Table 6-19 Respondents' Characteristics

	Frequency (n=491)	%
Gender		
Male	293	60%
Female	184	37%
Missing Values	14	3%
Age		
Less than 30 years	10	2%
Between 31 and 40 years	167	34%
Between 41 and 50 years	201	41%
Between 51 and 65 years	98	20%
Over 65 years	1	0%
Missing Values	14	3%
Education		
High School	171	35%

Technical Training	15	3%
Bachelor	33	7%
Undergraduate	189	38%
Graduate / Master	68	14%
PhD	1	0%
Missing Values	14	3%
Tenure in the Company		
Less than 1 year	7	1%
Between 1 and 3 years	16	3%
Between 4 and 9 years	75	15%
Between 10 and 15 years	103	21%
Between 16 and 24 years	211	43%
Over 25 years	65	13%
Missing Values	14	3%
Job Tenure		
Less than 1 year	39	8%
Between 1 and 3 years	133	27%
Between 4 and 9 years	168	34%
Between 10 and 15 years	83	17%
Over 15 years	54	11%
Missing Values	14	3%
Tenure with the Leader		
Less than 1 year	163	33%
Between 1 and 3 years	242	49%
Between 4 and 9 years	58	12%
Between 10 and 15 years	12	2%
Over 15 years	2	0%
Missing Values	14	3%
Hierarchical Level		
Board	5	1%
General Management	2	0%
Management - First Level	48	10%
Management - Intermediary	98	20%
Other	324	66%
Missing Values	14	3%
Industry		
Manufacturing	42	9%
Pharmaceuticals	45	9%
Banking	404	82%
Shareholder Control		

Private Sector	491	100%
State Owned	0	0%
Third Sector (NGOs)	0	0%

6.8. COMMON METHOD AND OTHER SOURCES OF POTENTIAL BIAS

Common method bias may be problematic in studies using self-reporting data. When measures of two or more variables come from the same source, any defect in that source contaminates both measures, presumably in the same fashion and in the same direction (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986). In this research, method bias was reduced by using: (1) different sources (individual respondents, firms, and external database), (2) different respondents (leaders, and team members), and (3) different measures for the endogenous and exogenous variables.

Additionally, we performed Harman's one-factor test as suggested by Podsakoff and Organ (1986), which is a statistical procedure to control for common method variance. In this procedure, we conduct a factor analysis to all variables of interest and we examine the results of the unrotated factor solution to determine the number of factors necessary to account for the variance in the variables. The basic assumption of this technique is that if a substantial amount of common method variance is present, either a single factor will emerge from the factor analysis, or one 'general' factor will account for the majority of the covariance in the independent and criterion variables (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986).

Table 6-20 presents the results of this procedure concerning the *Combined Sample*, where data were collected using self-reporting measures. Results show that

twenty factors are present, and the higher covariance explained by a single factor is approximately 23%. Thus, we can conclude that a common method variance is not a problematic source of bias in this study.

Table 6-20 Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	19.713	22.922	22.922	19.713	22.922	22.922
2	4.170	4.849	27.772	4.170	4.849	27.772
3	3.177	3.695	31.466	3.177	3.695	31.466
4	2.983	3.469	34.935	2.983	3.469	34.935
5	2.589	3.011	37.946	2.589	3.011	37.946
6	2.401	2.791	40.738	2.401	2.791	40.738
7	2.205	2.564	43.301	2.205	2.564	43.301
8	1.935	2.249	45.551	1.935	2.249	45.551
9	1.845	2.145	47.696	1.845	2.145	47.696
10	1.715	1.994	49.690	1.715	1.994	49.690
11	1.544	1.796	51.485	1.544	1.796	51.485
12	1.505	1.750	53.236	1.505	1.750	53.236
13	1.347	1.566	54.802	1.347	1.566	54.802
14	1.328	1.544	56.346	1.328	1.544	56.346
15	1.250	1.453	57.799	1.250	1.453	57.799
16	1.149	1.336	59.135	1.149	1.336	59.135
17	1.132	1.316	60.451	1.132	1.316	60.451
18	1.102	1.282	61.733	1.102	1.282	61.733
19	1.057	1.229	62.962	1.057	1.229	62.962
20	1.026	1.193	64.155	1.026	1.193	64.155

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Another source of potential bias in this study is the highly concentrated response from the banking sector (82% of total respondents) in the *corporate team members sample*. In order to analyze the possible impact of these responses on the study results, the sample was separated into two groups: group 1 - respondents from the banking sector (n = 404); group 2 - respondents from other sectors (n = 87). We used Kolmogorov-

Smirnov Z and Mann-Whitney U Test to compare the medians for the two samples. Table 6-21 presents the results of these statistical tests applied to all items of the questionnaire. Both tests revealed no significant difference (for an alpha level of .01, $p \geq 0.01$) between the two groups, with the exceptions of seven indicators: AL3, PB1, PB3, VC1, VC2, VC3, and OA2. Thus, we can conclude that there is no statistically significant difference between the medians of both groups of respondents, and that this potential bias does not appear to be a concern in the data set.

Table 6-21 Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z and Mann-Whitney U Test Results

	Kolmogorov -Smirnov Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	Mann- Whitney U	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
CC1	.451	.987	25650.500	-1.229	.219
AL1	.543	.930	25225.500	-1.430	.153
CC2	.439	.991	26039.500	-.942	.346
AL2	.310	1.000	27399.000	-.110	.912
CC3	.545	.927	25449.000	-1.336	.182
AL3	1.649	.009	21466.000	-3.682	.000
CC4	.261	1.000	26874.500	-.442	.658
AL4	.864	.444	25536.500	-1.246	.213
CC5	.640	.807	25144.500	-1.528	.126
AL5	.555	.917	26877.000	-.439	.661
CC6	.590	.877	25815.500	-1.071	.284
CC7	.342	1.000	26552.500	-.619	.536
AL6	.660	.776	25623.500	-1.217	.224
CC8	1.010	.260	24388.500	-2.018	.044
AL7	.364	.999	27501.500	-.045	.964
CC9	.805	.536	25524.500	-1.250	.211
AL8	.755	.619	25442.500	-1.290	.197
CC10	1.301	.068	24382.500	-1.965	.049
CC11	.912	.376	24340.000	-1.996	.046
CC12	1.324	.060	22462.500	-3.219	.001
LMX1	.503	.962	26562.500	-.647	.517
LMX2	.291	1.000	27529.500	-.028	.978
LMX3	.320	1.000	26676.000	-.575	.566
LMX4	.439	.991	26631.500	-.595	.552
LMX5	.584	.885	25556.000	-1.263	.207

LMX6	.634	.817	26162.000	-.880	.379
LMX7	.640	.807	24654.000	-1.804	.071
CB1	1.267	.080	23226.000	-2.633	.008
CB2	.693	.724	25169.500	-1.443	.149
CB3	1.165	.132	24868.500	-1.616	.106
CB4	1.195	.115	23875.000	-2.219	.026
CB5	.369	.999	27240.500	-.201	.841
CB6	.463	.983	27067.500	-.303	.762
CB7	.598	.867	26477.000	-.659	.510
CB8	1.641	.009	22572.500	-3.039	.002
CB9	1.045	.225	24918.000	-1.549	.121
PB1	1.808	.003	21376.500	-3.760	.000
PB2	1.522	.019	22014.000	-3.325	.001
PB3	1.893	.002	21713.000	-3.533	.000
AB1	1.057	.214	23873.500	-2.260	.024
AB2	.999	.271	24132.500	-2.070	.038
AB3	.361	.999	26066.000	-.911	.362
PB4	.938	.342	24298.500	-1.993	.046
PB5	.740	.644	25610.000	-1.188	.235
PB6	.422	.994	25952.000	-.984	.325
AB4	.809	.529	25150.500	-1.480	.139
AB5	1.239	.093	22736.500	-2.968	.003
AB6	.752	.624	24610.500	-1.823	.068
AV1	.537	.935	27306.500	-.168	.866
AV2	1.001	.269	25307.000	-1.376	.169
AV3	.405	.997	26022.500	-.954	.340
VC1	1.947	.001	21772.500	-3.699	.000
VC2	3.282	0.000	15948.500	-7.038	.000
VC3	3.860	0.000	13779.000	-8.439	.000
EM1	.687	.733	25176.000	-1.528	.126
EM2	.460	.984	26825.000	-.471	.637
EM3	.825	.504	24916.500	-1.630	.103
MO1	.876	.427	25775.500	-1.071	.284
MO2	.740	.644	26634.500	-.562	.574
MO3	.234	1.000	26661.500	-.568	.570
MO4	.731	.659	24455.500	-1.854	.064
OA1	1.227	.098	24457.500	-1.970	.049
OA2	1.980	.001	22115.500	-3.388	.001
OEF1	.153	1.000	26870.500	-.004	.997
OEF2	.452	.987	26188.500	-.429	.668
OEF3	.616	.842	26448.000	-.283	.777
GP1	.469	.980	25782.000	-.718	.472
GP2	.509	.958	26017.000	-.564	.573
GP3	.428	.993	26154.500	-.480	.631

GP4	.620	.837	26225.500	-.425	.671
GP5	.252	1.000	26866.500	-.007	.994
LEF1	.295	1.000	26605.000	-.176	.861
LEF2	.808	.531	24037.500	-1.773	.076
LEF3	1.267	.081	21138.000	-3.513	.000
LEF4	.811	.527	23508.500	-2.064	.039

Additionally, we performed the same tests regarding a potential bias emerging from the high number of respondents that are working with their team leader for less than 1-year (33%). The sample was separated into two groups: group 1 - respondents working with their team leader for less than 1-year (n = 163); group 2 - respondents working with their team leader for at least 1-year (n = 314). Table 6-22 presents the results showing that there is no significant difference (for an alpha level of .01, $p \geq 0.01$) between the two groups regarding all the indicators, and that there is no bias in this data set.

Table 6-22 Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z and Mann-Whitney U Test Results

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	Mann-Whitney U	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
CC1	0.098	1.000	25447.000	-0.115	0.908
AL1	0.288	1.000	25332.500	-0.196	0.844
CC2	0.538	0.935	25199.500	-0.300	0.764
AL2	0.410	0.996	25006.000	-0.457	0.648
CC3	0.322	1.000	24615.000	-0.765	0.444
AL3	0.726	0.668	23261.000	-1.741	0.082
CC4	0.595	0.871	24858.000	-0.580	0.562
AL4	0.790	0.561	24151.000	-1.098	0.272
CC5	0.409	0.996	24946.500	-0.506	0.613
AL5	0.539	0.933	24962.500	-0.497	0.619
CC6	0.573	0.898	24824.500	-0.581	0.561
CC7	0.321	1.000	24747.500	-0.636	0.525
AL6	0.490	0.970	24525.500	-0.828	0.408

CC8	0.156	1.000	25056.500	-0.423	0.672
AL7	0.229	1.000	25489.000	-0.077	0.938
CC9	0.383	0.999	25280.000	-0.237	0.813
AL8	0.770	0.594	25250.000	-0.257	0.797
CC10	0.383	0.999	24572.000	-0.777	0.437
CC11	0.572	0.900	25007.000	-0.446	0.656
CC12	0.398	0.997	25379.500	-0.165	0.869
LMX1	0.243	1.000	25486.000	-0.084	0.933
LMX2	0.767	0.599	23390.500	-1.674	0.094
LMX3	0.418	0.995	25090.000	-0.399	0.690
LMX4	0.401	0.997	24272.000	-1.036	0.300
LMX5	0.220	1.000	24922.500	-0.521	0.602
LMX6	0.663	0.772	24074.500	-1.172	0.241
LMX7	0.210	1.000	25415.000	-0.135	0.892
CB1	0.291	1.000	24960.000	-0.476	0.634
CB2	0.382	0.999	25145.500	-0.332	0.740
CB3	0.195	1.000	25421.500	-0.126	0.900
CB4	0.617	0.840	24258.500	-0.994	0.320
CB5	0.350	1.000	24736.500	-0.640	0.522
CB6	0.210	1.000	25473.500	-0.087	0.931
CB7	0.461	0.984	24711.500	-0.654	0.513
CB8	0.351	1.000	24885.500	-0.531	0.596
CB9	0.425	0.994	24972.000	-0.449	0.653
PB1	0.819	0.513	23738.500	-1.387	0.165
PB2	0.824	0.505	24485.000	-0.822	0.411
PB3	0.920	0.365	23212.000	-1.781	0.075
AB1	0.282	1.000	24855.000	-0.559	0.576
AB2	0.921	0.365	24355.500	-0.924	0.355
AB3	0.685	0.736	24236.000	-1.018	0.309
PB4	1.188	0.119	23025.500	-1.935	0.053
PB5	1.053	0.218	22789.500	-2.106	0.035
PB6	0.553	0.920	24563.000	-0.775	0.439
AB4	0.635	0.815	25248.000	-0.259	0.795
AB5	0.464	0.983	25462.000	-0.098	0.922
AB6	0.280	1.000	25461.500	-0.099	0.921
AV1	0.205	1.000	25269.500	-0.250	0.802
AV2	0.557	0.916	23992.000	-1.201	0.230
AV3	0.382	0.999	24413.000	-0.900	0.368
VC1	0.463	0.983	24977.500	-0.485	0.628
VC2	0.569	0.903	24116.000	-1.108	0.268
VC3	0.481	0.975	24205.500	-1.051	0.293
EM1	0.685	0.737	23422.500	-1.739	0.082
EM2	0.400	0.997	24118.000	-1.158	0.247

EM3	0.280	1.000	25287.000	-0.232	0.817
MO1	0.260	1.000	25288.000	-0.224	0.823
MO2	0.418	0.995	25276.000	-0.234	0.815
MO3	0.391	0.998	25422.500	-0.131	0.896
MO4	0.569	0.902	25199.000	-0.291	0.771
OA1	0.422	0.994	24575.500	-0.804	0.421
OA2	0.420	0.995	25188.000	-0.309	0.757
OEF1	0.281	1.000	24621.500	-0.770	0.441
OEF2	0.472	0.979	25119.000	-0.361	0.718
OEF3	0.317	1.000	25271.500	-0.254	0.799
GP1	0.543	0.930	24549.000	-0.835	0.404
GP2	0.460	0.984	23734.000	-1.489	0.136
GP3	0.279	1.000	24922.000	-0.540	0.590
GP4	0.263	1.000	25051.500	-0.426	0.670
GP5	0.156	1.000	25177.500	-0.334	0.738
LEF1	0.310	1.000	24824.500	-0.603	0.546
LEF2	0.946	0.332	22453.000	-2.402	0.016
LEF3	0.932	0.350	23368.000	-1.656	0.098
LEF4	0.823	0.508	23189.500	-1.789	0.074

6.9. EVALUATING THE STRUCTURAL MODEL

After the confirmation that our reflective and formative measurement models have good psychometric properties, the next step requires an assessment of the structural model results. In the context of PLS-SEM, a systematic approach involves the examination of the model's predictive capabilities and the relationship between the constructs in five steps: (1) assess structural model for collinearity issues, (2) assess the significance and relevance of the structural model relationships, (3) assess the level of R^2 , (4) assess the effect sizes f^2 , and (5) assess the predictive relevance Q^2 and the q^2 effect sizes (Henseler et al., 2009; Hair et al., 2014). PLS-SEM, unlike CB-SEM, does not hold an overall accepted measure of goodness-of-fit (Rigdon, 2012; Hair et al., 2014). Instead, the structural model is assessed based on heuristic criteria to evaluate how well it predicts the

endogenous variables. In the following sections, these criteria will be examined.

6.9.1. FIVE-STEP ASSESSMENT OF THE STRUCTURAL MODEL

In this section, we will use a five-step assessment procedure to examine thoroughly the structural model. This involves examining the model's predictive capabilities and the relationships among the constructs across the two samples. Thus, PLS-SEM analysis was performed for each of the constructs of interest for the *combined sample* (N = 381), and the *corporate team members sample* (N=491) as well.

Collinearity Issues

The same measures used in sections 6.6.1.2. and 6.6.2.2. to examine collinearity are applied to check whether there are significant levels of collinearity between each set of predictor variables. In this case, it is examined the following predictor variable blocks: (1) ICS and LGO as predictors of LSE, and (2) PWR, VAR, AB and PB as predictors of IOE. Similarly, to the assessment of formative measurement models, the threshold values for tolerance and VIF are respectively above 0.2 and below 5. If collinearity is problematic in the model, Hair et al. (2014) suggest considering eliminating constructs, merge predictors into a single construct, or create high order constructs. The computed values for VIF are for blocks: (1) 1.2 for ICS and 1.1 for LGO, and (2) 1.1 for PWR, 1.1 for VAR, 1.1. for AB, and 1.3 for PB, respectively. Thus, the structural model has no collinearity issues.

Significance and Relevance of the Structural Model Relationships

PLS-SEM gives estimates for the structural model relationships (i.e., path coefficients), which represent the hypothesized relationships among constructs. These can be interpreted as standardized beta coefficients of ordinary least squares regressions (Henseler et al., 2009). Coefficient values close to -1 represent a strong negative relationship while values close to +1 represent a strong positive relationship. Usually, values close to zero are non-significant and represent weak relationships. The significance of path coefficients was computed through bootstrapping routine using 500 random samples of size 381 for the *combined sample*, and of size 491 for the *corporate team members sample*.

The results, presented in Table 6-23 and Figure 6-3, show that, in the *combined sample*, all path coefficients are significant with the exception of LSE → AB. In Table 6-24, total effects account for each construct's sum of direct and indirect effect. Constructs have indirect effects via one or more mediating constructs. Results show that LSE has mediating effects between the two exogenous variables ICS and LGO, and all of the effective leadership behaviors: PWR, VAR, AB and PB. Additionally, results presented in Table 6-24 and Figure 6-4, show that, in the *corporate team members sample*, all path coefficients are significant with the exception of PWR → ELB. The relevance and signs of the path coefficients should be examined to evaluate the relative importance of the model relationships. This analysis will be conducted in the Chapter 7 where all findings will be interpreted and discussed in light of the theoretical background.

Table 6-23 Results of the Structural Model Path Coefficients (Combined Sample n=381)

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Hypotheses	Path Coefficients	Total Effects	f^2 Effect Size	Q^2	q^2 Effect Size	R^2
Leadership Self-Efficacy (LSE)	ICS	H5	0.399***	0.399***	0.179	0.164	0.082	0.300
	LGO	H7	0.235***	0.235***	0.062		0.030	
Proximal Working Relationship (PWR)	ICS	H1	0.584***	0.647***	0.464	0.238	0.172	0.459
	LSE	H8	0.158***	0.158***	0.012		0.004	
Vision Articulation & Realization (VAR)	ICS	H2	0.337***	0.459***	0.132			0.463
	LSE	H9	0.306***	0.306***	0.123			
	LGO	H6	0.198***	0.270***	0.051			
Adaptive Behavior (AB)	ICS	H3	0.511***	0.552***	0.259			0.325
	LSE	H10	0.104	0.104	-0.017			
Proactive Behavior (PB)	ICS	H4	0.322***	0.433***	0.106	0.204	0.075	0.271
	LSE	H11	0.277***	0.277***	0.087		0.063	
Effective Leadership Behaviors (ELB)	PWR	H12	0.165**	0.165**	n/a			0.990
	VAR	H12	0.304***	0.304***	n/a			
	AB	H12	0.210***	0.210***	n/a			
	PB	H12	0.563***	0.563***	n/a			
Overall Impact on Organizational Effectiveness (IOE)	ELB	H13	0.771***	0.771***	0.658			0.594

* $p < 0.1$

** $p < 0.05$

*** $p < 0.01$

Figure 6-3 Structural Full Model Path Coefficients (Combined Sample n=381)

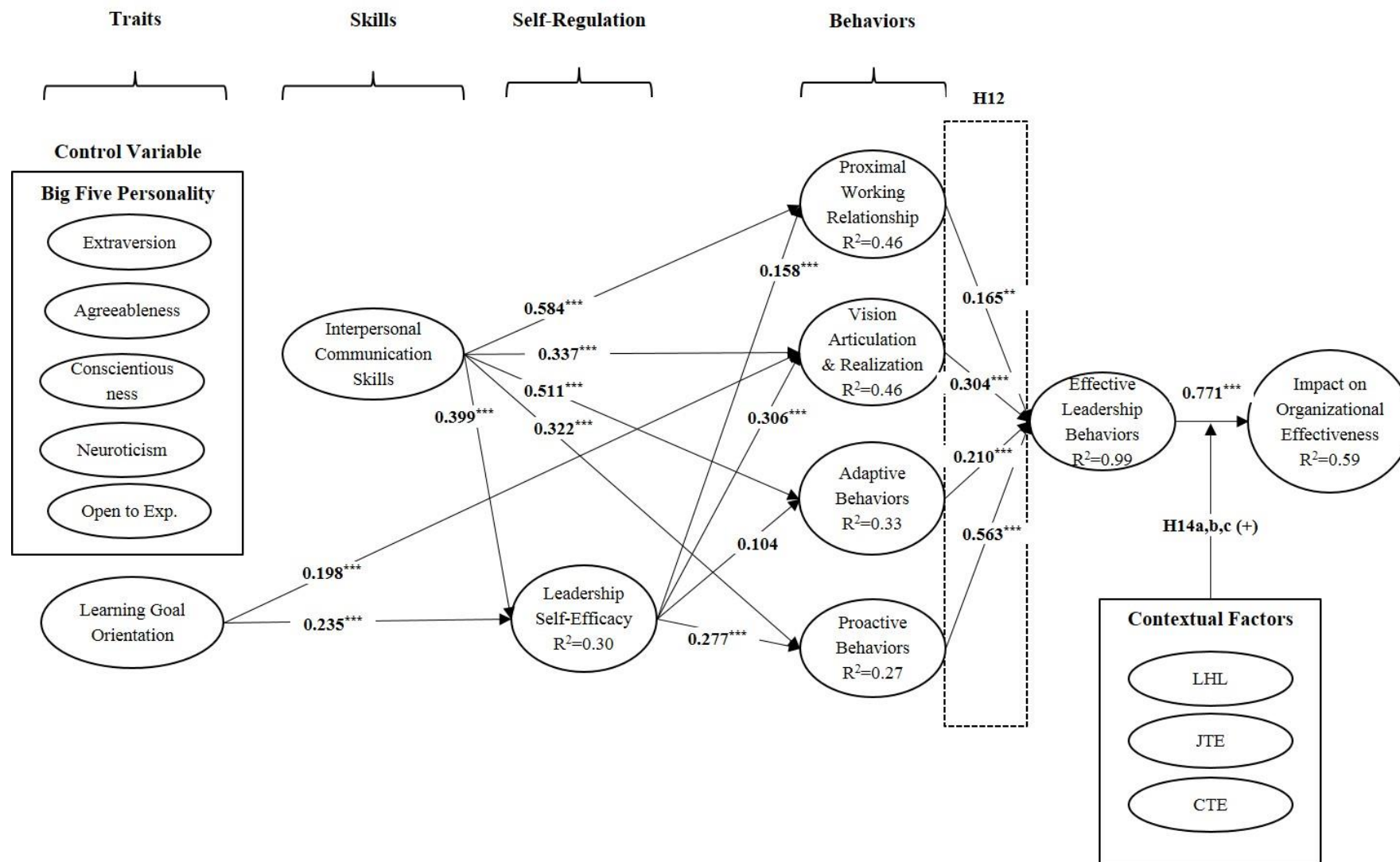
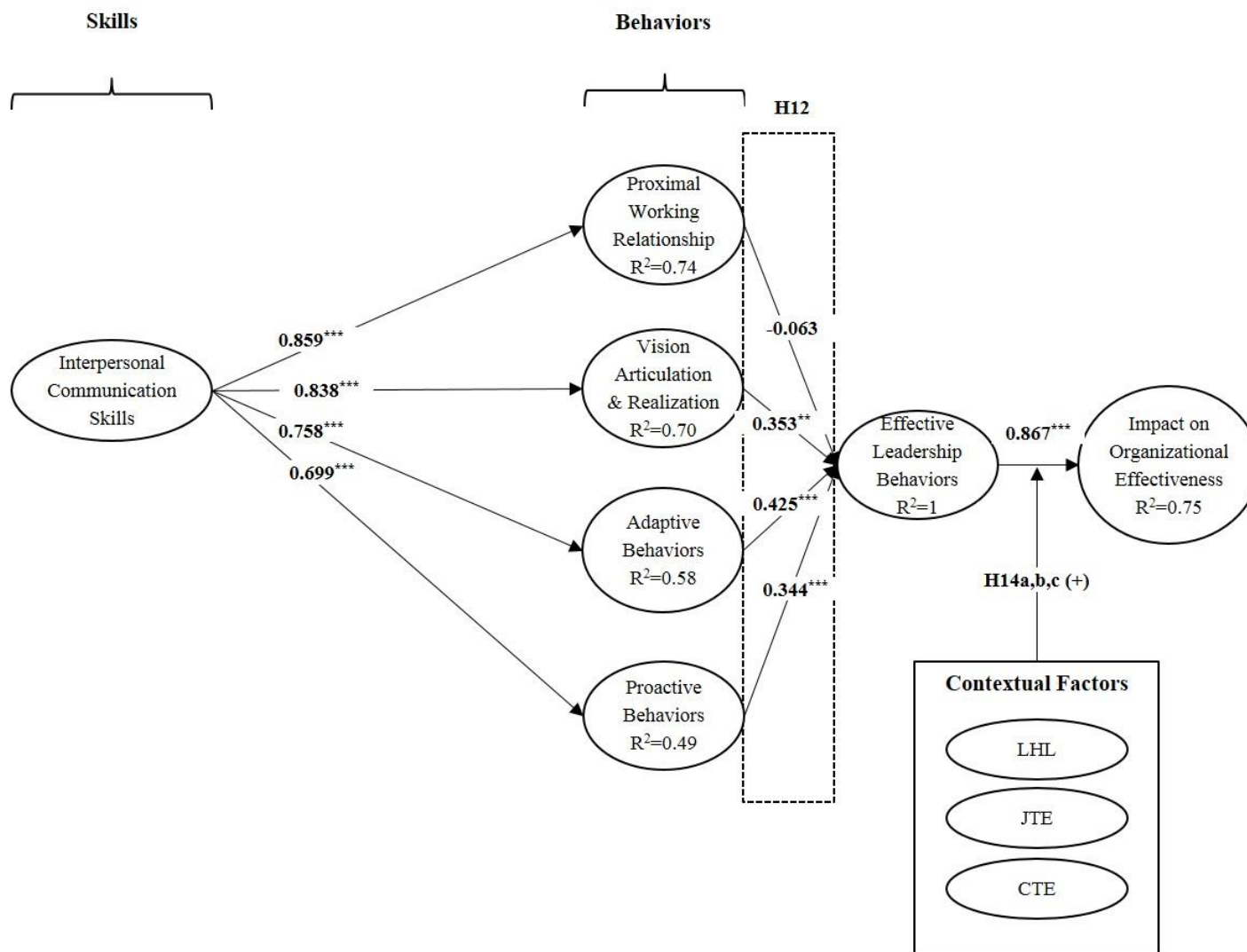


Table 6-24 Results of the Structural Model Path Coefficients (Corporate Team Members Sample n=491)

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Hypotheses	Path Coefficients	Total Effects	f ² Effect Size	Q ²	q ² Effect Size	R ²
Proximal Working Relationship (PWR)	ICS	H1	0.859***	0.859***	n/a	0.547	n/a	0.738
Vision Articulation & Realization (VAR)	ICS	H2	0.838***	0.838***	n/a	n/a	n/a	0.702
Adaptive Behavior (AB)	ICS	H3	0.758***	0.758***	n/a	0.477	n/a	0.575
Proactive Behavior (PB)	ICS	H4	0.699***	0.699***	n/a	0.427	n/a	0.489
Effective Leadership Behaviors (ELB)	PWR	H12	-0.063	-0.063	n/a	n/a	n/a	0.995
	VAR	H12	0.353***	0.353***	n/a		n/a	
	AB	H12	0.425***	0.425***	n/a		n/a	
	PB	H12	0.344***	0.344***	n/a		n/a	
Overall Impact on Organizational Effectiveness (IOE)	ELB	H13	0.867***	0.867***	1.084	n/a	n/a	0.751

Figure 6-4 Structural Model Path Coefficients (Corporate Team Members Sample n=491)



Level of R^2

The most commonly used measure to assess the structural model is the coefficient of determination of the endogenous latent variables (i.e., R^2). This coefficient is a measure of the model's predictive accuracy and represents the exogenous latent variables' combined effects on the endogenous latent variable (i.e., the percentage of variance of the endogenous latent variable that is explained by the model). R^2 values range from 0 to 1 with higher levels, indicating higher levels of predictive accuracy. In marketing research, R^2 values of 0.67, 0.33, and 0.19 for endogenous latent variables, may be considered as substantial, moderate or weak (Chin, 1998).

Results shown in Table 6-23 indicate that almost all predictor latent variables are roughly near or above the threshold of 0.33, with the exception of PB, which indicate a moderate effect of the exogenous variables. To note that in this model, we wanted to test the effect of other predictor variables in leadership effectiveness, beyond the effect of the most extensively researched Big Five personality variables. For this purpose, we evaluated the theoretical model and controlled for the Big Five personality variables. The whole procedure is explained in section 6.9.3.

Effect Size f^2

This effect occurs when a specific exogenous variable is omitted from the model to evaluate if that construct has a substantial effect on the endogenous constructs. The effect size is calculated as:

$$f^2 = \frac{R^2_{\text{included}} - R^2_{\text{excluded}}}{1 - R^2_{\text{included}}} \quad (4)$$

where R^2_{included} and R^2_{excluded} are the R^2 values of the endogenous latent variable when a selected exogenous latent variable is included in or excluded from the model (Hair et al., 2014).

R^2 values are calculated by estimating PLS-SEM path model twice. First, the model is estimated with the exogenous latent variable included (i.e., R^2_{included}). Then, the model is estimated with the exogenous latent variable excluded (i.e., R^2_{excluded}). According to Cohen (1988) f^2 values of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 respectively, correspond to small, medium, and large effects. In this case, the path model shown in table 6-23 has two exogenous constructs with large effects on the endogenous constructs, which are ICS on PWR, and ELB on IOE. All the other exogenous constructs have small and medium effects.

Predictive Relevance Q^2 and the q^2 Effect Size

Another important effect to evaluate is the Stone-Geisser's Q^2 value (Geisser, 1974; Stone, 1974) as an indicator of the model's predictive relevance. Although, this criterion only applies to reflective endogenous constructs, which present a limited application in the current model with only three reflective endogenous constructs. Q^2 values above 0 indicate the path model's predictive relevance for that specific construct while values of 0 and below indicate a lack of predictive relevance. This measure is obtained through blindfolding procedure for an omission distance of 7 as suggested by Hair et al. (2014).

This procedure compares the original values with the predicted values. If the prediction is close to the original value, there is a small prediction error, and the path model has a high predictive accuracy. Similar to the f^2 effect size calculation to assess R^2

values, the relative impact of predictive relevance can also be computed through the measure q^2 effect size as follows:

$$q^2 = \frac{Q^2_{\text{included}} - Q^2_{\text{excluded}}}{1 - Q^2_{\text{included}}} \quad (5)$$

Hair et al. (2014) suggest that q^2 values of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 indicate that an exogenous construct has a small, medium, and large predictive relevance for a certain endogenous construct. As exhibited in Table 6-23, all the reflective constructs have Q^2 values above 0, which confirm a high predictive accuracy of the path model. The q^2 values of the exogenous constructs have small and medium predictive relevance for the associated endogenous constructs.

6.9.2. MEDIATING ROLE OF LEADERSHIP SELF-EFFICACY

Results from Table 6-23 suggest that leadership self-efficacy mediate the relationship between interpersonal communication, learning goal orientation and the effective leadership behaviors. These findings indicate that leaders who are likely to behave in a more effective way tend to have higher qualities as interpersonal communicators, are more likely to be oriented to goals, and are confident in their own leadership abilities. The Sobel test was used to investigate whether indirect effects were significant (Sobel, 1982; Baron and Kenny, 1986). Results in Table 6-25 demonstrated that interpersonal communication skills and learning goal orientation have an indirect effect through leadership self-efficacy on the effective leadership behaviors, with the exception of adaptive behavior. Therefore, we can conclude that leadership self-efficacy

mediates the relationship between both interpersonal communication skills and learning goal orientation, and all the effective leadership behaviors excluding adaptivity.

Table 6-25 Results of the Sobel Test Statistic

	Sobel test statistic	<i>p</i>
ICS->LSE->PWR	3.298	< 0.50
ICS->LSE->VAR	4.453	< 0.50
ICS->LSE->AB	1.638	> 0.50
ICS->LSE->PB	4.254	< 0.50
LGO->LSE->VAR	3.594	< 0.50

6.9.3. SECOND-ORDER FORMATIVE CONSTRUCT: EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS

As described in section 5.3.7., the construct effective leadership behaviors can be defined at a higher level of abstraction. Specifically, this construct can be represented by four first-order constructs that capture different dimensions such as behaviors oriented to (1) working relationships, (2) vision accomplishment, (3) adaptivity to different situations or people, and (4) proactivity to change. In the context of PLS-SEM, to establish this high-order models or hierarchical component models involve testing second-order structures that contain two layers of constructs (Lohmöller, 1989; Hair et al., 2014).

Conceptually, hierarchical component models can be established following a bottom-up or top-down approach. In the first approach, several constructs are combined

into a single and more general construct. Alternatively, following the second approach involves the creation of a general construct that consists of several sub dimensions. According to Hair et al. (2014), there are three main reasons to include high-order models in PLS-SEM: (1) researchers can reduce the number of relationships in the structural model, making the overall model more parsimonious; (2) if constructs are highly correlated, a second-order construct can reduce such collinearity and discriminant validity problems; and (3) if formative indicators exhibit high levels of collinearity, researchers can split up the set of indicators and establish separate high-order constructs whereas supported by theory.

In this study, second-order construct ELB (i.e., effective leadership behaviors) is represented in Figures 6-3 and 6-4. Results in Tables 6-23 and 6-24 show that the R^2 value is almost equal to one since the formative second-order constructs are fully explained by their first order constructs. The paths from the four first-order constructs to the second-order construct are significant and of high magnitude. Therefore, on both theoretical and empirical grounds, the conceptualization of ELB as a second-order construct seems justified.

6.9.4. CONTROL VARIABLE: BIG FIVE PERSONALITY FACTORS

Previous research has examined the personality traits as (distal) predictors of leadership effectiveness (e.g., Judge et al., 2002a; Hendricks and Payne, 2007) finding evidence that supports this causal relationship. Thus, in the current study, we have included personality traits as a control variable to evaluate the incremental validity of our theoretical model. Personality traits were operationalized as a reflective construct based

on the Big Five factor structure (see Section 6.3.2.1.). The reflective measurement model was evaluated undertaking the same procedures described in Section 6.6.

Internal Consistency was evaluated using the Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability, both with thresholds above 0.7. Table 6-26 shows values for both criteria. All constructs have Cronbach's alpha below the threshold value. Two of the constructs, EX and NE have composite reliability below the threshold value, even though within the acceptable level, with values between 0.60 and 0.70 (Hair et al., 2014). As explained in Section 6.3.2.1., this instrument is a shorter version of the five-factor model personality traits derived from the original IPIP - International Personality Item Pool, which might explain the lower levels found. Thus, the instrument has not high internal consistency, but it is within the acceptable range.

Indicator reliability was assessed by the indicator's loadings, which should be greater than 0.7. As shown in Table 6-26, several indicators have loadings below that value, although all of them are above the cutoff of 0.4. Overall, the instrument presents acceptable indicator reliability.

Table 6-26 Internal Reliability and Convergent Validity of the Reflective Measurement Model

Reflective Multi-Item Constructs (Cronbach's alpha / Composite Reliability)		Indicator	Mean	SD	Loadings	Conv. Validity (t-statistic)
EX	Extraversion (0.42/0.67)	EX1	0.663	0.097	0.68***	7.07
		EX2	0.321	0.145	0.33**	2.28
		EX3	0.670	0.093	0.68***	7.35
		EX4	0.597	0.125	0.61***	4.86
AG	Agreeableness (0.61/0.75)	AG1	0.718	0.066	0.73***	11.04
		AG2	0.533	0.107	0.54***	5.06
		AG3	0.823	0.054	0.83***	15.47
		AG4	0.495	0.116	0.50***	4.31
CO	Conscientiousness (0.49/0.71)	CO1	0.563	0.148	0.58***	3.93
		CO2	0.627	0.108	0.66***	6.13
		CO3	0.491	0.150	0.51***	3.41
		CO4	0.702	0.120	0.71***	5.98
NE	Neuroticism (0.39/0.66)	NE1	0.442	0.170	0.46***	2.70
		NE2	0.644	0.123	0.68***	5.51
		NE3	0.415	0.175	0.42**	2.43
		NE4	0.699	0.094	0.71***	7.61
OE	Openness to Experience (0.60/0.76)	OE1	0.628	0.111	0.63***	5.70
		OE2	0.543	0.116	0.55***	4.76
		OE3	0.693	0.091	0.71***	7.78
		OE4	0.754	0.055	0.77***	13.99

Convergent validity requires AVE values to be greater than 0.5, indicating that the construct represents one dimension and can explain more than half of the variance of its indicators. AVE values for each construct are 0.35 for EX, 0.44 for AG, 0.39 for CO, 0.34 for NE, and 0.45 for OE (Table 6-28). All the values are below the threshold of 0.5, showing that convergent validity is problematic in this instrument.

Finally, discriminant validity was evaluated using two criteria: the cross loading analysis and the Fornell-Larcker. Table 6-27 shows that all indicators have higher correlations with their associated constructs than with any other construct, while Table 6-28 shows that AVE is above the squared correlations for all constructs. Overall, the

instrument has good discriminant validity.

Table 6-27 Cross Loadings between Indicators and respective Latent Variables

	AG	CO	EX	LGO	LSE	NE	OE	PB	PWR
AG1	0.733	0.213	0.212	0.143	0.097	-0.119	0.187	0.065	0.232
AG2	0.542	0.290	0.070	0.066	0.089	-0.143	0.247	0.098	0.213
AG3	0.828	0.218	0.315	0.084	0.125	-0.057	0.197	0.142	0.276
AG4	0.501	0.313	0.159	0.042	0.043	-0.128	0.358	0.053	0.161
EX1	0.249	0.014	0.685	0.115	0.156	-0.072	0.143	0.100	0.196
EX2	0.094	0.131	0.331	0.117	0.109	-0.055	0.154	-0.004	0.075
EX3	0.287	0.065	0.681	0.203	0.067	-0.125	0.139	0.195	0.163
EX4	0.090	0.230	0.609	0.194	0.276	-0.149	0.290	0.144	0.128
LGO1	0.091	0.130	0.178	0.781	0.267	-0.133	0.173	0.333	0.328
LGO2	0.081	0.092	0.189	0.861	0.312	-0.124	0.231	0.375	0.328
LGO3	0.122	0.149	0.208	0.862	0.364	-0.140	0.243	0.425	0.402
LGO4	0.105	0.113	0.264	0.783	0.371	-0.136	0.294	0.350	0.355
LGO5	0.116	0.083	0.202	0.699	0.338	-0.061	0.265	0.321	0.286
LMX1	0.331	0.155	0.178	0.307	0.302	-0.196	0.148	0.330	0.740
LMX2	0.267	0.091	0.210	0.321	0.397	-0.217	0.123	0.315	0.677
LMX3	0.198	0.200	0.152	0.295	0.391	-0.218	0.100	0.397	0.760
LMX4	0.186	0.140	0.155	0.271	0.293	-0.095	0.107	0.323	0.740
LMX5	0.214	0.225	0.146	0.364	0.336	-0.195	0.139	0.298	0.725
LMX6	0.257	0.196	0.227	0.289	0.321	-0.227	0.129	0.346	0.741
LMX7	0.240	0.138	0.173	0.326	0.240	-0.060	0.118	0.281	0.676
LSE1	0.050	0.158	0.188	0.241	0.696	-0.241	0.170	0.215	0.264
LSE2	0.129	0.158	0.163	0.286	0.754	-0.140	0.133	0.339	0.356
LSE3	0.070	0.140	0.198	0.359	0.792	-0.190	0.143	0.382	0.379
LSE4	0.072	0.180	0.192	0.306	0.778	-0.217	0.161	0.281	0.309
LSE5	0.175	0.170	0.238	0.411	0.798	-0.206	0.181	0.398	0.412
LSE6	0.116	0.200	0.171	0.221	0.632	-0.142	0.263	0.312	0.272
NE1	0.043	-0.138	0.078	-0.028	-0.139	0.458	-0.089	-0.070	-0.074
NE2	-0.101	0.040	-0.179	-0.138	-0.168	0.676	-0.080	-0.101	-0.182
NE3	-0.082	-0.173	-0.077	-0.018	-0.094	0.425	-0.128	0.024	-0.150
NE4	-0.144	-0.129	-0.150	-0.113	-0.176	0.713	-0.006	-0.115	-0.154
OE1	0.295	0.082	0.287	0.257	0.190	0.001	0.632	0.196	0.132
OE2	0.113	0.028	0.112	0.154	0.025	-0.045	0.554	0.090	0.043
OE3	0.165	0.151	0.158	0.190	0.152	-0.159	0.708	0.132	0.107
OE4	0.234	0.233	0.199	0.194	0.194	-0.082	0.768	0.187	0.143
TMP1	0.159	0.107	0.238	0.397	0.396	-0.154	0.213	0.863	0.436
TMP2	0.098	0.101	0.159	0.424	0.371	-0.114	0.223	0.898	0.386
TMP3	0.111	0.170	0.157	0.364	0.379	-0.075	0.184	0.850	0.362

Note: Numbers in bold correspond to the indicators' loadings of each latent variable.

Table 6-28 Discriminant validity of the instrument.

	AB	AG	CO	ELB	EX	ICS	IOE	LGO	LSE	NE	OE	PB	PWR	VAR
AB	n/a													
AG	0.089	0.442												
CO	0.017	0.118	0.387											
ELB	0.338	0.066	0.039	n/a										
EX	0.039	0.098	0.028	0.073	0.354									
ICS	0.317	0.130	0.074	0.433	0.058	n/a								
IOE	0.194	0.014	0.012	0.594	0.047	0.233	n/a							
LGO	0.100	0.017	0.020	0.286	0.069	0.209	0.185	0.639						
LSE	0.129	0.020	0.050	0.313	0.067	0.255	0.189	0.174	0.554					
NE	0.019	0.020	0.018	0.043	0.031	0.095	0.027	0.022	0.064	0.339				
OE	0.038	0.102	0.040	0.064	0.089	0.057	0.029	0.093	0.054	0.011	0.449			
PB	0.091	0.020	0.021	0.790	0.045	0.214	0.454	0.206	0.193	0.018	0.056	0.758		
PWR	0.241	0.113	0.051	0.492	0.060	0.441	0.283	0.183	0.205	0.059	0.029	0.207	0.523	
VAR	0.176	0.048	0.032	0.691	0.052	0.339	0.397	0.231	0.311	0.048	0.034	0.367	0.363	n/a

Note: Diagonal numbers exhibit AVE; numbers below diagonal represent construct squared correlations. n/a values are for formative constructs, for which AVE calculation does not apply.

To assess the structural model, we followed Fichman and Kemerer's (1997) suggestion. We estimated two models: (1) the theoretical model (i.e., the structural model), and (2) the full model comprised the theoretical model and control variables. An examination of the results, in Table 6-29, for the full model reveals that the path coefficients from the theoretical constructs are all statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). The comparison between the two models shows that the full model only explains an incremental variance of 1% (60% - 59%). These results suggest that the theoretical model is substantive enough to explain a large proportion of the variance of the endogenous variable.

Table 6-29 shows that when considering the full model the positive direct path between leadership self-efficacy and adaptive behavior becomes significant (at p level of 0.05). This finding suggests that personality traits have indirect effects on adaptive behavior, which are mediated by leadership self-efficacy. In this case, self-confident leaders engage in more adaptive behaviors only when they have a specific personality pattern comprising dispositional traits like extroversion, conscientiousness, emotional stability and non-agreeableness.

Additionally, we notice interesting relationships between the Big Five factors and the theoretical constructs. First, we find that agreeableness and conscientiousness have a significant and positive direct path to interpersonal communication skills, while neuroticism (vs. emotional stability) has a significant and negative direct path to the same construct. These findings suggest that agreeable, conscious and emotionally stable leaders are more likely to exhibit higher interpersonal communication skills.

Second, we observe that extraversion, and openness to experience are positively related with learning goal orientation, and neuroticism is negatively associated with the

same construct. This pattern suggests that leaders with higher learning goal orientation tend to be those who are more extrovert, who have the disposition to be creative, and who exhibit good emotional adjustment.

Third, we find significant and positive path coefficients between extroversion, conscientiousness and leadership self-efficacy, unlike agreeableness and neuroticism, which have a negative direct path. These relationships suggest that leaders highly self-confident are those who are more extrovert, who are more conscious of their roles, who are less warm, gentle, and caring, and who have higher emotional stability.

Fourth, we notice that almost all the direct paths to effective leadership behaviors, including proximal working relationship, vision articulation & realization, adaptive and proactive behaviors, are non-significant with the exception of agreeableness in relation to proximal working relationship and adaptive behavior, and openness to experience in relation to proactive behavior. Interestingly, this suggests that leaders high in proximal working relationships and adaptive behavior tend to be those who are more agreeable, warm and caring. As expected, leaders high in proactive behavior are the ones who have the disposition to be more creative, imaginative, nonconforming and autonomous.

Finally, we uncover the only significant relationship with the endogenous variable overall organizational effectiveness. This finding suggests that leaders who have a higher impact on organizational effectiveness are the ones who have a tendency to be less gentle, warm and caring. All the other personality factors have non-significant direct relationships with the endogenous variable confirming that personality traits are in fact distal predictors of leadership effectiveness.

Table 6-29 Results of the Structural Model Path Coefficients with Control Variable Big Five Personality (Combined Sample N=381)

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Hypotheses	Path Coefficient (Theoretical Model)	Path Coefficient (Full Model)	R ² (Theoretical Model)	R ² (Full Model)
Leadership Self-Efficacy (LSE)	ICS	H5	0.399***	0.365***	0.300	0.332
	LGO	H7	0.235***	0.191***		
Proximal Working Relationship (PWR)	ICS	H1	0.584***	0.534***	0.459	0.479
	LSE	H8	0.158***	0.160***		
Vision Articulation & Realization (VAR)	ICS	H2	0.337***	0.323***	0.463	0.465
	LSE	H9	0.306***	0.309***		
	LGO	H6	0.198***	0.209***		
Adaptive Behavior (AB)	ICS	H3	0.511***	0.484***	0.325	0.339
	LSE	H10	0.104	0.115**		
Proactive Behavior (PB)	ICS	H4	0.322***	0.332***	0.271	0.286
	LSE	H11	0.277***	0.252***		
Effective Leadership Behaviors (ELB)	PWR	H12	0.165**	0.159**	0.990	0.990
	VAR	H12	0.304***	0.304***		
	AB	H12	0.210***	0.204***		
	PB	H12	0.563***	0.571***		
Overall Impact on Organizational Effectiveness (IOE)	ELB	H13	0.771***	0.787***	0.594	0.603
ICS	EX			0.066		
	AG			0.240***		
	CO			0.142**		
	NE			-0.249***		
	OE			0.087		
LGO	EX			0.177***		
	AG			-0.042		
	CO			0.070		
	NE			-0.089*		
	OE			0.245***		

UNDERSTANDING LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS IN ORGANIZATIONAL SETTINGS

LSE	EX	0.106**
	AG	-0.113**
	CO	0.093*
	NE	-0.089*
	OE	0.063
PWR	EX	0.049
	AG	0.117**
	CO	0.004
	NE	-0.002
	OE	-0.049
VAR	EX	0.016
	AG	0.047
	CO	-0.018
	NE	-0.007
	OE	-0.046
AB	EX	0.026
	AG	0.124*
	CO	-0.072
	NE	0.055
	OE	0.026
PB	EX	0.064
	AG	-0.058
	CO	-0.008
	NE	0.047
	OE	0.106**
IOE	EX	0.035
	AG	-0.088**
	CO	-0.021
	NE	-0.013
	OE	-0.008

* p<0.1

** p<0.05

*** p<0.01

6.9.5. MODERATING EFFECTS OF CONTEXTUAL VARIABLES

Based on previous literature, we examined the moderating effect of several variables in the PLS path model, including the leader hierarchical level, job and company tenure using PLS-MGA (i.e., partial least squares – multigroup analysis). Most commonly, heterogeneity may occur across two or more groups of respondents, when path coefficients significantly differ in those groups. Thus, the comparison between groups of respondents is beneficial to capture significant differences in the model relationships. On the other hand, failure to consider heterogeneity may lead to incorrect conclusions and be a threat to the validity of PLS-SEM results (Hair et al., 2014).

To find whether there is a significant difference in the path coefficients between groups, we used PLS-SEM parametric approach to multigroup analysis proposed by Keil et al. (2002). In this approach, a modified version of a two-independent-samples *t* test is used to compare path coefficients across two groups of data. For this purpose, we have to (1) know the number of observations in each group (i.e., $n_1, n_2, \dots, n_n$); (2) estimate the path coefficients for each group, or in other words, obtain separate PLS path models for each group; and (3) determine the standard errors of the parameter estimates for each group through the bootstrapping procedure. After obtaining these elements, we use them to perform a statistical test whose form depends whether the standard errors are equal or not in the population. For this purpose, we compute Levene's test for equality of standard errors. The resulting *p* value should be lower than 0.05 or higher than 0.95 to reject the null hypothesis of equal standard errors. Then, taking this assumption we perform the final two-independent-samples *t* tests (Hair et al., 2014).

First, we started to analyze the effect of hierarchical level in the structural model. Thus, we computed PLS path models for three separate groups: (1) group 1 is composed

of the highest hierarchical level, including board members and CEOs ($n_1 = 88$), (2) group 2 is composed of first level management ($n_2 = 100$), and group 3 is composed of intermediate management ($n_3 = 149$). In addition, we performed bootstrapping procedures and tested for the equality of standard errors. All missing data were withdrawn of this analysis.

Table 6-30 exhibits the results of the three PLS path models with the moderating effect of hierarchical level. Consistently, the majority of the path coefficients remains significant across the three groups. The exceptions refer to LSE $\rightarrow$ VAR in group 2, LGO $\rightarrow$ VAR in group 2, LSE $\rightarrow$ AB in groups 2 and 3, LSE $\rightarrow$ PWR in group 3, PWR $\rightarrow$ ELB in groups 2 and 3, and finally, AB $\rightarrow$ ELB in group 2. In Table 6-31, the results of the test for the equality of standard errors are presented. Although, not all of these differences are statistically significant. Therefore, we will focus the analysis on the path coefficient differences that are significant, such as PWR $\rightarrow$ ELB and VAR $\rightarrow$ ELB in groups 1 vs. 2, PWR $\rightarrow$ ELB and ELB $\rightarrow$ IOE in groups 1 vs. 3, and ICS $\rightarrow$ PB, VAR $\rightarrow$ ELB, and ELB $\rightarrow$ IOE in groups 2 vs. 3.

As expected, results show significant differences in the path coefficients directed to the endogenous variable, overall impact on organizational effectiveness, across groups 1 vs. 3 and groups 2 vs. 3, which may be interpreted as the moderating effect of hierarchical level on the endogenous variable. Thus, the impact of effective leadership behaviors on overall impact on organizational effectiveness is significantly higher ($p < 0.05$) in the top two hierarchical levels (i.e., board members, CEOs, and first level management) than in the third level (i.e., intermediate management). In addition, managers use a different combination of behavioral mechanisms depending on their hierarchical level. For instance, board members and CEOs consistently use all four

identified effective leadership behaviors (i.e., proximal working relationships, vision articulation & realization, adaptive, and proactive behaviors), while first level management use more behaviors like vision articulation & realization and proactive behaviors, and finally intermediate management use less proximal working relationship. Overall, the effect of proximal working relationship on effective leadership behaviors is significantly higher ($p < 0.10$) in board members and CEOs when compared with the first level and intermediate managers, while the effect of vision articulation & realization is significantly higher ($p < 0.05$) in first level managers when compared with board members, CEOs, and intermediate level. Finally, the effect of interpersonal communication skills on proactive behavior is significantly higher ($p < 0.10$) in first level managers than in the intermediate level.

Second, we have examined the effect of job tenure on the structural model. In the analysis, we used three groups: group 1 is comprised of respondents with a job tenure of less than 4 years ($n_1 = 180$), group 2 is comprised of respondents with a job tenure between 4 and 9 years ($n_2 = 109$), and group 3 includes respondents with a job tenure above 9 years ($n_3 = 74$). We use the same procedures previously described.

Table 6-32 shows the results of the three PLS path models with the moderating effect of job tenure. Almost all of the path coefficients remain significant across the three groups, with the exceptions of LSE $\rightarrow$ AB in groups 1 and 3, VAR $\rightarrow$ ELB in group 1, LGO $\rightarrow$ LSE in group 2, LSE $\rightarrow$ PWR in groups 2 and 3, PWR $\rightarrow$ ELB in group 2, AB $\rightarrow$ ELB in groups 2 and 3, LSE $\rightarrow$ VAR in group 3, LGO $\rightarrow$ VAR in group 3, and finally, LSE $\rightarrow$ PB in group 3. In Table 6-33, the results of the test for the equality of standard errors are exhibited, and the significant differences in path coefficients. As shown, we have path coefficient differences that are significant, such as ICS $\rightarrow$ LSE in groups 1 vs.

2, $ELB \rightarrow IOE$, $VAR \rightarrow ELB$, $PB \rightarrow ELB$, and $ICS \rightarrow VAR$ in groups 1 vs. 3, and finally $ELB \rightarrow IOE$ and $LSE \rightarrow PB$ in groups 2 vs. 3.

Interestingly, results show significant differences between the path coefficients directed to the endogenous variable, overall impact on organizational effectiveness, across groups 1 vs. 3 and groups 2 vs. 3, which may be interpreted as the moderating effect of job tenure on the endogenous variable. Thus, the impact of effective leadership behaviors on overall impact on organizational effectiveness is significantly higher ($p < 0.01$) in the group 3 (i.e., leaders with job tenure above 9 years) than in groups 1 and 2 (i.e., leaders with job tenure less or equal to 9 years). Also across these groups, managers use different behavioral mechanisms depending on their job tenure. For example, leaders with job tenure less than 4 years use predominantly proximal working relationships, adaptive and proactive behaviors, leaders with job tenure between 4 and 9 years use more vision articulation & realization and proactive behaviors, while leaders with job tenure above 9 years use consistently proximal working relationships, vision articulation & realization and proactive behaviors. The effect of vision articulation & realization on effective leadership behaviors is significantly higher ($p < 0.05$) in leaders with job tenure above 9 years when compared with leaders with job tenure, lower than 4 years, while the effect of proactive behavior is significantly higher ($p < 0.05$) in group 1 than in group 3. Finally, the effect of interpersonal communication skills on leadership self-efficacy is significantly higher ($p < 0.01$) in leaders with job tenure between 4 and 9 years than in leaders with job tenure lower than 4 years. The effect of interpersonal communication skills on vision articulation & realization is significantly higher ($p < 0.10$) in leaders with job tenure above 9 years when compared with leaders with job tenure lower than 4 years. Furthermore, the effect of leadership self-efficacy on proactive behavior is significantly

higher in leaders with job tenure between 4 and 9 years than in leaders with job tenure above 9 years.

Third, we have examined the effect of company tenure on the structural model. In the analysis, we used three groups: group 1 is comprised of respondents with a company tenure of less than 4 years ($n_1 = 73$), group 2 is comprised of respondents with a company tenure between 4 and 10 years ($n_2 = 70$), and group 3 includes respondents with a company tenure above 10 years ($n_3 = 200$). We use the same procedures previously described.

Table 6-34 exhibits the results of the three PLS path models with the moderating effect of company tenure. As shown, the majority of the path coefficients is significant, especially across groups 2 and 3. The exceptions refer largely to group 1 with the following non-significant paths: $ICS \rightarrow PWR$, $LSE \rightarrow PWR$, $ICS \rightarrow VAR$, $LGO \rightarrow VAR$, $ICS \rightarrow AB$, $ICS \rightarrow PB$, $PWR \rightarrow ELB$, and $AB \rightarrow ELB$. In addition, other non-significant paths are reported in the other groups, $LSE \rightarrow VAR$ in group 2, $LGO \rightarrow VAR$ in group 2, $LSE \rightarrow AB$ in groups 2 and 3, $LSE \rightarrow PWR$ in groups 2 and 3, $LGO \rightarrow VAR$ in group 2, $LSE \rightarrow AB$ in groups 2 and 3, $VAR \rightarrow ELB$ in group 2, and finally, $AB \rightarrow ELB$ in groups 2 and 3. In Table 6-35, the results of the test for the equality of standard errors are presented. Although, not all of these differences are statistically significant. Therefore, we will focus the analysis on the path coefficient differences that are significant, such as $ICS \rightarrow AB$ and $VAR \rightarrow ELB$ in groups 1 vs. 2, $LSE \rightarrow VAR$, $ICS \rightarrow AB$, $LSE \rightarrow AB$, and $ELB \rightarrow IOE$ in groups 1 vs. 3, and $ELB \rightarrow IOE$ in groups 2 vs. 3.

Not surprisingly, results show significant differences between the path coefficients directed to the endogenous variable, overall impact on organizational effectiveness, across groups 1 vs. 3 and groups 2 vs. 3, which may be interpreted as the

moderating effect of company tenure on the endogenous variable. Thus, the impact of effective leadership behaviors on overall impact on organizational effectiveness is significantly higher ($p < 0.01$) in the groups 1 and 2 (i.e., leaders with company tenure of less than or equal to 10 years) than in group 3 (i.e., leaders with company tenure above 10 years). Paradoxically, managers use a different combination of behavioral mechanisms depending on their company tenure. For example, leaders with company tenure less than 4 years use predominantly two effective leadership behaviors (i.e., vision articulation & realization and proactive behaviors), while leaders with company tenure between 4 and 10 years use more consistently behaviors like proximal working relationship and proactive behavior, and finally leaders with longer company tenure (i.e., above 10 years) use primarily three effective leadership behaviors (i.e., proximal working relationship, vision articulation & realization, and proactive behaviors). Interestingly, the effect of vision articulation & realization in effective leadership behaviors is significantly higher ($p < 0.10$) in leaders with lower company tenure (i.e., under 4 years) when compared with leaders of longer company tenure (i.e., between 4 and 10 years). Finally, the effect of interpersonal communication skills on adaptive behavior is significantly higher ($p < 0.10$) in more senior leaders (i.e., company's tenure above and equal to 4 years) than in less senior leaders. The effects of leadership self-efficacy on both vision articulation & realization and adaptive behavior is significantly higher ($p < 0.05$) in less senior leaders when compared with leaders more senior.

The previous analysis has however some important limitations that we have to acknowledge. For instance, researchers when using PLS-MGA need to ensure that the number of observations in each group meets the rules of thumb for minimum size requirements described in section 6.4. (Hair et al., 2014). As stated in that section, we

would need 380 observations in each group to comply with the 10 times rule for the *combined sample* which is not the case in the multigroup analysis conducted. However, if we take into account a statistical power analysis for multiple regression models, 65 observations per group are needed to detect R^2 values of around 0.25 at a significance level of 5% and a power level of 80% for a maximum number of 4 arrows pointing at a construct (i.e., the number of direct arrows to construct ELB), according to more differentiated rules of thumb provided by Cohen (1992). All the groups under analysis are above this limit and thus we can conclude that the group-specific sample sizes can be considered sufficiently large for the current analysis (Hair et al., 2014).

Another limitation of PLS-MGA is the measurement invariance, which occurs when the construct measures are invariant across the groups. Measurement invariance implies that the categorical moderator variable's effect is restricted to the path coefficients and does not entail group-related differences in the measurement models (Hair et al., 2014). In some cases, the measurement invariance assumption is questionable or even implausible. Thus, researchers are advised to express appropriate caution in interpreting results from PLS path analysis involving multiple groups (Rigdon et al., 2010; Hair et al., 2014).

Finally, PLS-MGA follows a parametric approach that assumes that the data has a normal distribution. Despite some additional approaches with nonparametric procedures to execute PLS-MGA have already been introduced, they are not yet available in software packages (Hair et al., 2014). Hence, in this study, we used the available parametric approach.

Table 6-30 Results of the Structural Model Path Coefficients with Moderating Effect of Hierarchical Level (Combined Sample N=381)

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Group 1 Path Coefficient (n = 88)	Group 2 Path Coefficient (n = 100)	Group 3 Path Coefficient (n = 149)	Group 1 R ² (n = 88)	Group 2 R ² (n = 100)	Group 3 R ² (n = 149)
Leadership Self-Efficacy (LSE)	ICS	0.437***	0.387***	0.408***	0.423	0.300	0.302
	LGO	0.301***	0.273***	0.221***			
Proximal Working Relationship (PWR)	ICS	0.635***	0.576***	0.673***	0.470	0.515	0.493
	LSE	0.080*	0.231***	0.053			
Vision Articulation & Realization (VAR)	ICS	0.370***	0.486***	0.501***	0.586	0.449	0.590
	LSE	0.272***	0.184	0.168**			
	LGO	0.266***	0.142	0.258***			
Adaptive Behavior (AB)	ICS	0.504***	0.693***	0.618***	0.361	0.543	0.466
	LSE	0.143**	0.083	0.112			
Proactive Behavior (PB)	ICS	0.420***	0.254**	0.472***	0.307	0.258	0.375
	LSE	0.189***	0.333***	0.216***			
Effective Leadership Behaviors (ELB)	PWR	0.373***	-0.027	0.134	0.962	0.971	0.982
	VAR	0.207**	0.552***	0.203*			
	AB	0.182***	0.101	0.203*			
	PB	0.429***	0.571***	0.622***			
Overall Impact on Organizational Effectiveness (IOE)	ELB	0.884***	.871***	.803***	0.782	0.759	0.645

Notes: Group 1 - Board Members & CEOs; Group 2 - First Level Management; Group 3 - Intermediate Management.

**Table 6-31 Results of the Test for Equality of Standard Errors – Grouped by Hierarchical Level
(Combined Sample N=381)**

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Group 1 vs. Group 2			Group 1 vs. Group 3			Group 2 vs. Group 3		
		Path Coefficient Gap	t Value	p Value	Path Coefficient Gap	t Value	p Value	Path Coefficient Gap	t Value	p Value
Leadership Self-Efficacy (LSE)	ICS	0.050	0.506	0.614	0.029	0.265	0.792	-0.021	0.176	0.860
	LGO	0.028	0.264	0.792	0.080	0.796	0.427	0.052	0.447	0.655
Proximal Working Relationship (PWR)	ICS	0.059	0.585	0.559	-0.038	0.492	0.623	-0.097	0.965	0.336
	LSE	-0.151	1.461	0.146	0.027	0.930	0.770	0.178	1.645	0.101
Vision Articulation & Realization (VAR)	ICS	-0.116	0.808	0.420	-0.131	1.103	0.271	-0.015	0.103	0.918
	LSE	0.088	0.585	0.559	0.104	0.933	0.352	0.016	0.103	0.918
	LGO	0.124	1.050	0.295	0.008	0.072	0.943	-0.116	0.886	0.376
Adaptive Behavior (AB)	ICS	-0.189	1.413	0.159	-0.114	0.967	0.335	0.075	0.551	0.582
	LSE	0.060	0.430	0.668	0.031	0.229	0.819	-0.029	0.190	0.849
Proactive Behavior (PB)	ICS	0.166	1.353	0.178	-0.052	0.470	0.636	-0.218	1.668	0.097
	LSE	-0.144	1.234	0.219	-0.027	0.240	0.810	0.117	0.913	0.362
Effective Leadership Behaviors (ELB)	PWR	0.400	3.166	0.002	0.239	1.769	0.078	-0.161	1.062	0.289
	VAR	-0.345	2.221	0.028	0.004	0.025	0.980	0.349	2.111	0.036
	AB	0.081	0.546	0.585	-0.021	0.142	0.887	-0.102	0.606	0.545
	PB	0.142	1.019	0.310	-0.193	1.241	0.216	-0.051	0.315	0.753
Overall Impact on Organizational Effectiveness (IOE)	ELB	0.013	0.542	0.589	0.081	2.495	0.013	0.068	2.185	0.030

Notes: Group 1 - Board Members & CEOs; Group 2 - First Level Management; Group 3 - Intermediate Management.

Table 6-32 Results of the Structural Model Path Coefficients with Moderating Effect of Job Tenure (Combined Sample N=381)

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Group 1 Path Coefficient (n = 180)	Group 2 Path Coefficient (n = 109)	Group 3 Path Coefficient (n = 74)	Group 1 R ² (n = 180)	Group 2 R ² (n = 109)	Group 3 R ² (n = 74)
Leadership Self-Efficacy (LSE)	ICS	0.283***	0.577***	0.400***	0.237	0.403	0.399
	LGO	0.287***	0.121	0.315***			
Proximal Working Relationship (PWR)	ICS	0.633***	0.640***	0.578***	0.494	0.480	0.412
	LSE	0.140**	0.081	0.102			
Vision Articulation & Realization (VAR)	ICS	0.394***	0.359***	0.702***	0.52	0.588	0.577
	LSE	0.333***	0.356***	0.052			
	LGO	0.178**	0.229***	0.045			
Adaptive Behavior (AB)	ICS	0.502***	0.476***	0.711***	0.292	0.417	0.512
	LSE	0.081	0.230*	0.007			
Proactive Behavior (PB)	ICS	0.395***	0.367**	0.406**	0.350	0.387	0.152
	LSE	0.306***	0.324***	-0.029			
Effective Leadership Behaviors (ELB)	PWR	0.153**	0.110	0.244*	0.981	0.968	0.956
	VAR	0.141	0.393**	0.609***			
	AB	0.235***	0.269	-0.005			
	PB	0.675***	0.425***	0.316**			
Overall Effective Leadership Impact on the Organization (IOE)	ELB	0.840***	.784***	.926***	0.706	0.614	0.857

Notes: Group 1 - Job Tenure less than 4 years; Group 2 - Job Tenure between 4 and 9 years; Group 3 - Job Tenure above 9 years.

Table 6-33 Results of the Test for Equality of Standard Errors – Grouped by Job Tenure (Combined Sample N=381)

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Group 1 vs. Group 2			Group 1 vs. Group 3			Group 2 vs. Group 3		
		Path Coefficient Gap	t Value	p Value	Path Coefficient Gap	t Value	p Value	Path Coefficient Gap	t Value	p Value
Leadership Self-Efficacy (LSE)	ICS	-0.294	2.714	0.007	-0.117	0.768	0.443	0.177	1.263	0.209
	LGO	0.166	1.622	0.106	-0.028	0.225	0.822	-0.194	1.383	0.169
Proximal Working Relationship (PWR)	ICS	-0.007	0.070	0.945	0.055	0.375	0.709	0.062	0.392	0.695
	LSE	0.059	0.534	0.594	0.038	0.283	0.778	-0.021	0.142	0.888
Vision Articulation & Realization (VAR)	ICS	0.035	0.250	0.802	-0.308	1.950	0.052	-0.343	1.992	0.048
	LSE	-0.023	0.169	0.866	0.281	1.523	0.131	0.304	1.588	0.115
	LGO	-0.051	0.467	0.641	0.133	0.833	0.407	0.184	1.136	0.258
Adaptive Behavior (AB)	ICS	0.026	0.163	0.871	-0.209	1.418	0.158	0.235	1.556	0.121
	LSE	-0.149	0.867	0.387	0.074	0.412	0.681	0.223	1.198	0.233
Proactive Behavior (PB)	ICS	0.028	0.231	0.817	-0.011	0.059	0.953	-0.039	0.195	0.846
	LSE	-0.018	0.146	0.884	0.335	1.955	0.053	0.353	1.883	0.062
Effective Leadership Behaviors (ELB)	PWR	0.043	0.280	0.780	0.038	0.283	0.778	0.134	0.682	0.496
	VAR	-0.252	1.238	0.217	-0.468	2.545	0.012	0.216	0.870	0.386
	AB	-0.034	0.189	0.850	0.240	1.413	0.160	0.274	1.229	0.221
	PB	0.250	1.451	0.149	0.359	2.108	0.037	0.109	0.507	0.613
Overall Impact on Organizational Effectiveness (IOE)	ELB	0.056	1.575	0.116	-0.086	3.569	0.000	-0.142	4.416	0.000

Notes: Group 1 - Job Tenure less than 4 years; Group 2 - Job Tenure between 4 and 10 years; Group 3 - Job Tenure above 10 years.

Table 6-34 Results of the Structural Model Path Coefficients with Moderating Effect of Company Tenure (Combined Sample N=381)

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Group 1 Path Coefficient (n = 73)	Group 2 Path Coefficient (n = 70)	Group 3 Path Coefficient (n = 200)	Group 1 R ² (n = 73)	Group 2 R ² (n = 70)	Group 3 R ² (n = 200)
Leadership Self-Efficacy (LSE)	ICS	0.458***	0.451***	0.413***	0.237	0.484	0.253
	LGO	0.250**	0.332***	0.148**			
Proximal Working Relationship (PWR)	ICS	0.335	0.701***	0.653***	0.494	0.624	0.487
	LSE	0.221	0.130	0.083			
Vision Articulation & Realization (VAR)	ICS	0.197	0.361*	0.449***	0.520	0.622	0.470
	LSE	0.529***	0.388**	0.184***			
	LGO	0.186	0.159	0.200***			
Adaptive Behavior (AB)	ICS	-0.035	0.653***	0.599***	0.292	0.520	0.380
	LSE	0.558**	0.100	0.034			
Proactive Behavior (PB)	ICS	0.221	0.353***	0.445***	0.350	0.527	0.272
	LSE	0.367**	0.448***	0.131**			
Effective Leadership Behaviors (ELB)	PWR	0.095	0.321*	0.161*	0.981	0.945	0.980
	VAR	0.424***	-0.036	0.489***			
	AB	0.230	0.280	0.102			
	PB	0.426***	0.588***	0.446***			
Overall Impact on Organizational Effectiveness (IOE)	ELB	0.895***	.909***	.770***	0.706	0.826	0.593

Notes: Group 1 - Company Tenure less than 4 years; Group 2 - Company Tenure between 4 and 10 years; Group 3 - Company Tenure above 10 years.

**Table 6-35 Results of the Test for Equality of Standard Errors – Grouped by Company Tenure
(Combined Sample N=381)**

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Group 1 vs. Group 2			Group 1 vs. Group 3			Group 2 vs. Group 3		
		Path Coefficient Gap	t Value	p Value	Path Coefficient Gap	t Value	p Value	Path Coefficient Gap	t Value	p Value
Leadership Self-Efficacy (LSE)	ICS	0.007	0.045	0.964	0.045	0.341	0.733	0.038	0.292	0.770
	LGO	-0.082	0.524	0.601	0.102	0.831	0.407	0.184	1.534	0.126
Proximal Working Relationship (PWR)	ICS	-0.366	1.463	0.147	-0.318	1.369	0.175	0.048	0.420	0.675
	LSE	0.091	0.399	0.691	0.138	0.694	0.490	0.047	0.348	0.728
Vision Articulation & Realization (VAR)	ICS	-0.164	0.629	0.524	-0.252	1.402	0.164	-0.088	0.415	0.679
	LSE	0.141	0.638	0.524	0.345	2.289	0.024	0.204	1.090	0.279
	LGO	0.027	0.138	0.890	-0.014	0.094	0.925	-0.041	0.262	0.794
Adaptive Behavior (AB)	ICS	-0.688	2.486	0.014	-0.634	2.635	0.010	0.054	0.326	0.745
	LSE	0.458	1.610	0.110	0.524	2.155	0.034	0.066	0.359	0.721
Proactive Behavior (PB)	ICS	-0.132	0.618	0.538	-0.224	1.157	0.250	-0.092	0.702	0.483
	LSE	-0.081	0.423	0.673	0.236	1.410	0.162	0.317	2.435	0.016
Effective Leadership Behaviors (ELB)	PWR	-0.226	1.009	0.315	-0.067	0.451	0.653	0.159	0.747	0.457
	VAR	0.460	1.707	0.090	-0.065	0.322	0.748	-0.525	2.184	0.031
	AB	-0.050	0.194	0.846	0.128	0.742	0.460	0.178	0.807	0.422
	PB	-0.162	0.617	0.538	-0.022	0.111	0.911	0.142	0.601	0.549
Overall Impact on Organizational Effectiveness (IOE)	ELB	-0.014	0.513	0.609	0.125	3.949	0.000	0.139	0.853	0.000

Notes: Group 1 - Company Tenure less than 4 years; Group 2 - Company Tenure between 4 and 10 years; Group 3 - Company Tenure above 10 years.

6.9.6. OTHER CATEGORICAL VARIABLES: MODERATING EFFECT OF GENDER

Following the same approach of the previous section, we analyze the effect of gender on the structural model. For this purpose, we computed PLS path models for two separate groups: (1) group 1 is composed of male leaders ($n_1 = 237$), and (2) group 2 is composed of female leaders ($n_2 = 142$). We performed bootstrapping procedures and tested for the equality of standard errors. All missing data were also withdrawn of this analysis.

Table 6-36 exhibits the results of the two PLS path models with the moderating effect of gender. Consistently, the majority of the path coefficients remains significant across the two groups with the exceptions of LSE $\rightarrow$ VAR in both groups, PWR $\rightarrow$ ELB, and VAR $\rightarrow$ ELB in the female group. In Table 6-37, the results of the test for the equality of standard errors are presented. As shown, only the effect of proactive behavior on effective leadership behaviors is significantly higher in the female group.

Interestingly, the results show no significant differences between the path coefficients directed to the endogenous variable, overall impact on organizational effectiveness, across male and female groups. Therefore, the impact of effective leadership behaviors on overall impact on organizational effectiveness is not significantly different between both groups. Women leaders use, however a different combination of behavioral mechanisms when compared to men leaders. For instance, men consistently use all four identified effective leadership behaviors (i.e., proximal working relationships, vision articulation & realization, adaptive behaviors, and proactive behaviors), while women use predominantly adaptive and proactive behaviors. These results highlight the relevance of proactive behaviors in female leaders. Surprisingly, women leaders do not

exhibit a strong orientation to working relationships.

Table 6-36 Results of the Structural Model Path Coefficients with Moderating Effect of Gender (Combined Sample N=381)

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Group 1 Path Coefficient (n = 237)	Group 2 Path Coefficient (n = 142)	Group 1 R ² (n = 237)	Group 2 R ² (n = 142)
Leadership Self-Efficacy (LSE)	ICS	0.462***	0.336***	0.377	0.249
	LGO	0.239***	0.259***		
Proximal Working Relationship (PWR)	ICS	0.620***	0.562***	0.491	0.429
	LSE	0.127**	0.171**		
Vision Articulation & Realization (VAR)	ICS	0.432***	0.340***	0.497	0.483
	LSE	0.238***	0.318***		
	LGO	0.168***	0.230**		
Adaptive Behavior (AB)	ICS	0.569***	0.413***	0.413	0.234
	LSE	0.116	0.129		
Proactive Behavior (PB)	ICS	0.388***	0.264***	0.326	0.224
	LSE	0.251***	0.294***		
Effective Leadership Behaviors (ELB)	PWR	0.189***	0.001	0.988	0.966
	VAR	0.410***	0.211		
	AB	0.163**	0.305**		
	PB	0.431***	0.709***		
Overall Impact on Organizational Effectiveness (IOE)	ELB	0.818***	0.787***	0.669	0.620

Notes: Group 1 - Male Leaders; Group 2 - Female Leaders.

**Table 6-37 Results of the Test for Equality of Standard Errors – Grouped by Gender
(Combined Sample N=381)**

Group 1 vs. Group 2				
Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Path Coefficient Gap	t Value	p Value
Leadership Self-Efficacy (LSE)	ICS	0.126	1.127	0.261
	LGO	-0.020	0.223	0.824
Proximal Working Relationship (PWR)	ICS	0.058	0.657	0.512
	LSE	-0.044	0.493	0.622
Vision Articulation & Realization (VAR)	ICS	0.092	0.802	0.423
	LSE	-0.080	0.668	0.505
	LGO	-0.062	0.589	0.556
Adaptive Behavior (AB)	ICS	0.156	1.149	0.251
	LSE	-0.013	0.089	0.929
Proactive Behavior (PB)	ICS	0.124	1.094	0.275
	LSE	-0.043	0.404	0.686
Effective Leadership Behaviors (ELB)	PWR	0.188	1.420	0.157
	VAR	0.199	1.181	0.238
	AB	-0.142	1.044	0.297
	PB	-0.278	1.911	0.057
Overall Impact on Organizational Effectiveness (IOE)	ELB	0.031	0.822	0.412

Notes: Group 1 - Male Leaders; Group 2 - Female Leaders.

6.10. SUMMARY OF HYPOTHESES TESTING

Overall, the path coefficients allow us to evaluate if our empirical data collected by the questionnaires, support the research hypotheses presented in Section 5.4. If paths hold an algebraic sign contrary to what was expected, they do not support the a priori developed hypotheses. Additionally, if paths are not significant, even though they have the expected algebraic sign, it is not possible to support the hypotheses. Table 6-38 shows the summary of the hypotheses testing results that will be discussed in Chapter 7.

Table 6-38 Summary of Hypotheses Testing

Hypotheses	Findings	
	Combined Sample	Corporate Team Members Sample
H 1. Interpersonal communication skills will positively relate to proximal working relationship (a) above and beyond the Big Five.	Supported	Supported
H 2. Interpersonal communication skills will positively relate to vision articulation and realization (a) above and beyond the Big Five.	Supported	Supported
H 3. Interpersonal communication skills will positively relate to adaptive behavior (a) above and beyond the Big Five.	Supported	Supported
H 4. Interpersonal communication skills will positively relate to proactive behavior (a) above and beyond the Big Five.	Supported	Supported
H 5. Interpersonal communication skills will positively relate to leadership self-efficacy (a) above and beyond the Big Five.	Supported	Supported
H 6. Learning goal orientation will positively relate to vision articulation and realization (a) above and beyond the Big Five.	Supported	n/a
H 7. Learning goal orientation will positively relate to leadership self-efficacy (a) above and beyond the Big Five.	Supported	n/a

H 8. Leadership self-efficacy will positively relate to proximal working relationship (a) above and beyond the Big Five.	Supported	n/a
H 9. Leadership self-efficacy will positively relate to vision articulation and realization (a) above and beyond the Big Five.	Supported	n/a
H 10. Leadership self-efficacy will positively relate to adaptive behavior (a) above and beyond the Big Five.	Not Supported	n/a
H 11. Leadership self-efficacy will positively relate to proactive behavior (a) above and beyond the Big Five.	Supported	n/a
H 12. Effective leadership behaviors is a second order formative construct comprised by the following dimensions: (1) proximal working relationship, (2) vision articulation and realization, (3) adaptive behavior, and (4) proactive behavior.	Supported	Partially Supported
H 13. Effective leadership behaviors will positively relate to the overall impact on organizational effectiveness (a) above and beyond the Big Five.	Supported	Supported
H 14a. Leader hierarchical level will have a moderating effect on overall organizational effectiveness above and beyond the Big Five.	Supported	n/a
H 14b. Leader job tenure will have a moderating effect on overall organizational effectiveness above and beyond the Big Five.	Supported	n/a
H 14c. Leader company tenure will have a moderating effect on overall organizational effectiveness above and beyond the Big Five.	Supported	n/a

(a) Only applies to the combined sample.

From Tables 6-23 and 6-24, we notice a generally similar pattern of path coefficients across the two samples. First, we find that interpersonal communication skills have significant and relatively strong direct paths to leadership self-efficacy, proximal working relationship, vision articulation & realization, adaptive and proactive behaviors. This provides support for Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 respectively, all of which refer to interpersonal communication skills as an antecedent of leadership self-efficacy and effective leadership behaviors. Then, we find that learning goal orientation has significant and positive direct paths to vision articulation & realization and to leadership self-

efficacy, which supports hypotheses 6 and 7.

Moreover, findings show significant path coefficients from leadership self-efficacy to effective leadership behaviors with the exception of adaptivity. Thus, our data give support to Hypotheses 8, 9, and 11, while Hypothesis 10 is not supported. In addition, results from Sobel test demonstrated that leadership self-efficacy mediate the relationship between interpersonal communication, learning goal orientation and the effective leadership behaviors with the exception of adaptive behavior. These findings tell us that leaders who are likely to behave in a more effective way tend to have higher qualities as interpersonal communicators, are more likely to be oriented to goals, and are confident in their own leadership abilities.

The results of the *combined sample* analysis indicate that ELB is a second order construct composed by four dimensions: (1) working relationships, (2) vision accomplishment, (3) adaptivity to different situations or people, and (4) proactivity to change. All these dimensions have significant direct paths to ELB. However, proximal working relationship has the lowest path coefficient directed to ELB. Interestingly, this coefficient path is non-significant in the *corporate team members sample*. This suggests that team members perceive their effective leaders as more likely to exhibit behaviors oriented to vision accomplishment, adaptivity to different situations or people, and proactivity to change than behaviors oriented to working relationships. Thus, these results give a full support to hypothesis 12 in the case of the *combined sample*, and a partial support in the case of the *corporate team members sample*.

Interestingly, effective leadership behaviors have a very strong and significant direct path to IOE in both samples. These results give support to hypothesis 13. Furthermore, the variance accounted for by the model was consistently high across the

two samples, with R^2 values of 0.59 for the *combined sample*, and 0.75 for the *corporate team members sample*. This suggests that the model is complete in its specification of the antecedents of the endogenous variable in both samples.

Finally, the results show moderating effects of leader hierarchical level, job and company tenure on organizational effectiveness. From Section 6.9.4., there is evidence to support hypotheses 14a, 14b, and 14c. These results suggest that the impact of effective leadership behaviors on overall organizational effectiveness is significantly higher in the top two hierarchical levels (i.e., board members, CEOs, and First level management) than in the third level (i.e., intermediate management), in leaders with lower seniority (i.e., leaders with company tenure of less than or equal to 10 years), and in high-experienced leaders (i.e., leaders with job tenure above 9 years).

6.11. CONCLUSION

This Chapter has presented the findings from the second phase of the mixed methods study, which sought to test a structural path model to explain organizational effectiveness. This objective was successfully achieved using data from different samples. The analysis entailed a comprehensive examination of the relationships between antecedents, mediators, and proximal predictors that explain the endogenous variable. The PLS-SEM analysis found that the components of leadership effectiveness under study, namely interpersonal communication, learning goal orientation, leadership self-efficacy, and effective leadership behaviors, have a significant impact on organizational effectiveness, after controlling for personality traits. Thus, these findings support an integrative perspective of leadership effectiveness to explain a substantial amount of

variance of organizational effectiveness.

CHAPTER 7 – DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

7.1. INTRODUCTION

Research into leadership effectiveness has traditionally treated causal factors as independent processes that ultimately affect organizational performance. Consequently, an overall frame with a combination of leader's individual characteristics, skills, behaviors and leadership processes has remained forgotten and unaccounted for, leaving an important gap in our full understanding on how leadership effectiveness unfolds in organizations. In an attempt to address these issues, this thesis aims to explore an integrative model that draws broadly on the combination of several theoretical approaches to explain leadership effectiveness (i.e., trait, skills, and behavioral).

In this Chapter, we discuss the overall findings from both qualitative and quantitative research studies and review them in relation to the existing literature on leadership effectiveness. First, these findings are discussed in view of the respective research questions addressed in each of the research phases. Qualitative findings bring the discussion to the set of propositions while quantitative findings follow a review of the proposed hypotheses. Then, the Chapter presents the main implications of these findings both on a theoretical and managerial perspective. Finally, we discuss the main strengths and limitations of this research in light of the mixed methods research approach conducted, and suggest future research areas.

7.2. PURPOSE, RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND OBJECTIVES

According to many scholars (e.g., Kirpatrick and Locke, 1991; Mumford et al., 2000a; Zaccaro et al., 2004), some leaders are more effective than others are, depending

on their individual characteristics, skills, behavioral mechanisms, and the contextual environment of the organization. To identify these key factors is helpful to create a leadership frame that might enhance the overall effectiveness of the leadership process. Therefore, the main purpose of this thesis is to understand “How are some leaders more effective than others?” In light of the aforementioned considerations, we have selected the following research questions to guide our thesis:

RQ 1 — What are the main components of leadership effectiveness?

RQ 2 — What is the impact of the organizational context on leadership effectiveness?

RQ 3 — What are the measures used to assess leadership effectiveness?

RQ 4 — What is the model of leadership effectiveness that can be used to explain organizational effectiveness?

RQ 5 — What is the relationship between contextual factors and organizational effectiveness?

These questions were investigated using a comprehensive theoretical framework based on the integration of trait, skills, and behavioral approaches of leadership effectiveness. This theoretical foundation served as a baseline for the fieldwork. Following the suggestion of leading scholars in this field (e.g., Gordon and Yukl, 2004; Avolio et al., 2009; Gardner et al., 2010), we used a pragmatic perspective combining qualitative and quantitative research to improve the understanding of this complex social process inside organizations. For each research phase, we have selected the following objectives:

Qualitative Study

Objective 1 — To identify the characteristics of effective leaders.

Objective 2 — To explore the factors that drive leadership effectiveness (to identify the mechanisms that leaders use to achieve corporate goals).

Objective 3 — To explore the effect that organizational context has on leadership effectiveness.

Objective 4 — To collect information on the most relevant measures to assess leadership effectiveness.

Objective 5 — To offer a definition and a hierarchical taxonomy for leadership effectiveness.

Quantitative Study

Objective 1 — To develop a model of leadership effectiveness.

Objective 2 — To test the relationship between the main characteristics of effective leaders identified in the exploratory stage and organizational effectiveness.

Objective 3 — To test the relationship between the main factors that drive leadership effectiveness identified in the exploratory stage and organizational effectiveness.

Objective 4 — To test the moderating role of contextual factors on organizational effectiveness.

7.3. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The findings from this mixed methods research provide valuable insights into the explanatory and contextual factors perceived to be related to leadership effectiveness, and new evidence of significant causal relationships that affect organizational outcomes. A summary of the principal findings from the qualitative and quantitative phases of the study is presented in the sections below. Section 7.3.1. begins by outlining the key findings from the qualitative analysis, highlighting the main factors of leadership effectiveness. Building on this evidence, Section 7.3.2. then expands upon these findings by demonstrating through path modeling the causal relationships among some of those factors that impact organizational outcomes.

7.3.1. QUALITATIVE FINDINGS

Three research questions guiding our qualitative study were developed and presented in Chapter 4. In the following sections, these research questions are revisited, and the main findings are interpreted in light of extant literature. Hence, we will explore the main components of leadership effectiveness, the impact of contextual factors, and the main measures used to assess leadership effectiveness.

7.3.1.1. MAIN COMPONENTS OF LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

RQ 1 — What are the main components of leadership effectiveness?

In Chapter 4, we have conducted a qualitative study to identify the main components of effective leadership. Through our analysis, we have reached several

conclusions. First, we have derived a more precise definition for leadership effectiveness that encapsulates an orientation toward corporate sustainability. Second, we have an additional support that leadership effectiveness is a multidimensional construct comprised of four dimensions: (1) traits, (2) skills, (3) behaviors, and (4) processes. Finally, we have collected evidence that effective leadership behaviors have four different orientations in relation to: (1) change, (2) task, (3) relational, and (4) context. Hereafter, we revisit each one of these findings in light of the theoretical background used in our investigation.

A) *Definition for Leadership Effectiveness*

Based on the responses obtained through the interviews, it was found that the participants defined an effective leader as the one who is able to produce results in due time, involving the whole team, and enhancing the organization's sustainable growth. As illustrated by the majority of the interviewees, effective leaders achieve results involving the team and corporate members. This evidence follows Yukl (1989) suggestion that a leader is effective when his/her group or organization performs its tasks successfully and achieves its goals. In addition, participants emphasize that corporate leaders' are increasingly oriented to corporate sustainability. These results give support to a definition of leadership effectiveness that includes recent trends on organizational sustainability-orientation (e.g., Wong, 2003; Svensson and Wood, 2006). Therefore, we can conclude that:

Finding 1 — *Leadership effectiveness refers to the leader's ability to influence his team, group and organization toward the achievement of common goals to enhance corporate long-term performance and sustainability.*

A) Leadership Effectiveness and ELB are multidimensional constructs

Notably, several categories related to leadership effectiveness emerged from the qualitative analysis. These categories were grouped into four dimensions associated with leadership effectiveness, such as traits, skills, behaviors and processes (Table 4-7) as depicted on previous theoretical approaches (e.g., House, 1977; Bass, 1985; Lord et al., 1986; Conger and Kanungo, 1994; Mumford et al., 2000a). All the managers' interviewed mentioned categories belonging to these four dimensions. Therefore, we report the main qualitative findings grouped into each of the aforementioned dimensions.

First, the results from the current analysis of the qualitative study report several visible traits of effective leaders (Figure 4-2). Specifically, these leaders are perceived by the interviewees as trusting others and trustworthy, able to exhibit positive emotions and control their negative ones. These leaders have the cognitive ability to understand complexity and context, a strong belief in their own capabilities, are very determined in reaching their goals, and are role models of integrity and ethical behavior. They also care for others, are able to read others' emotions and to feel empathy, and are very open and transparent in their relationships.

Previous studies have reported similar characteristics of effective leaders. For example, trust has been associated with leader's perceived effectiveness (Gillespie and Mann, 2004), team performance (Dirks, 1999), and organizational performance (Salamon

and Robinson, 2008). Research has also found that leaders' emotional regulation affects the ratings of leadership effectiveness (Bono and Ilies, 2006), and task/team performance (Ashby and Isen, 1999; Feyerherm and Rice, 2002). In addition, general intelligence is found to be a strong predictor of leadership effectiveness (Avolio et al., 1996; Atwater et al., 1999), and job performance (Ree and Earles, 1992; Schmidt and Hunter, 1998). Research also found support for self-efficacy or self-confidence as a significant and positive correlate of job performance (Stajkovic and Luthans, 1998), and as associated with behaviors that can affect leadership outcomes (Anderson et al., 2008). Scholars have found evidence that learning goal orientation has a positive relationship with task and sales performance (Dweck and Leggett, 1988; VandeWalle et al., 2001). Further empirical support comes to the association of a leader's emotional intelligence and effective outcomes (Caruso et al., 2002; Salovey et al., 2002; Avolio, 2003). Other studies have associated leader's level of openness and transparency with evaluations of leadership effectiveness (Norman et al., 2010).

Overall, the categories mentioned above generate a general agreement among scholars concerning its relationship with leadership effectiveness. However, two of the categories depicted in the qualitative study are still controversial in the academic community, such as integrity and caring for others. In fact, the understanding on how integrity and leadership are interrelated is still emerging in the leadership literature with studies disclosing opposite results (e.g., Hooijberg et al., 2010) depending on the unit of assessment (i.e., managers, peers, direct reports, or bosses). On the other hand, many scholars consider altruism as important for effective leadership and with an indirect effect on group performance (Kanungo and Mendonca, 1996; Singh and Krishnan, 2007). Nevertheless, interviewees shared completely different opinions regarding effective

leaders characterizing them as more or less altruistic, and even some of them as being extremely self-centered.

Second, findings refer to the most salient skills of effective leaders (Figure 4-3). In particular, interviewees perceive effective leaders as being good interpersonal communicators, often communicating with their soul to inspire others, as good and attentive listeners, as excelling in social skills, specifically in one-to-one relationships or small groups, and as strategic thinkers who are oriented to the long run. Similarly, research has found that leader's communication competence is a predictor of employee job satisfaction (Madlock, 2008), while leaders' communication effectiveness is positively related with leadership effectiveness (Saiyadain, 2003), and leaders' performance (Talukder, 2012). In addition, leadership studies indicate that active listening skills account for a significant amount of variance in effective leadership (Kramer, 1997). Skills like social ability to relate and influence others are also associated with the satisfaction with the leader, and the perceived leader performance (Riggio et al., 2003). Other skills developed by leaders as thinking and acting strategically are found to be related to leadership effectiveness as well (Stumpf and Mullen, 1991). In sum, all the categories mentioned are assumed by the academic community to be related to leadership effectiveness.

Third, the results show that effective leaders have four behavioral orientations to change, task, relational and contextual (Figure 4-4). For instance, leaders oriented to change have a clear strategic vision, are agile and strong decision-makers, challenge their team members to give their best, and communicate well the vision. Leaders oriented to task focus on results, are concerned with the strategic implementation, have an efficiency-orientation, and conduct a continuous process of organizational alignment. Relational-

oriented leaders build high-proximity relationships with their direct reports, have the ability to develop people around them, have a collaborative approach, contribute to empowering others, give guidance and support, and know how to motivate their team members. Context-driven leaders have the ability to be flexible and to adapt their behavior to different situations.

Previous literature classified effective leadership behaviors into three main orientations: change, task, and relations (Yukl et al., 2002). Change-oriented leaders conduct actions like establishing and communicating a vision, involving followers in the transformation process, encouraging creative thinking and innovation. Research on visionary leadership found a positive relationship with employees' extra effort, and firm performance (House et al., 1997; Dorfman et al., 2004; Sully de Luque et al., 2008), while vision communication was found to be an indirect predictor of staff and customer satisfaction (Kantabutra, 2007; 2008, 2010). Likewise, leadership is both direct and indirect related with consensus decision making, and with the reported effectiveness of top management teams (Flood et al., 2000). In addition, leaders that challenge and intellectually stimulate followers have been associated with perceptions of leadership effectiveness, and organizational performance (Lowe et al., 1996).

Task-oriented leaders define expectations and standards for performance, and use those standards to influence followers' commitment, motivation, behavior and performance. Researchers agree with the perspective that leadership influences group and organizational performance (Bennis and Nanus, 1997; Alchian, 1986; Yukl, 1998). Strategic implementation is an important component of the leadership effectiveness process influencing both performance's quality and quantity (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1996). Despite the trade-off between efficiency and innovative adaptation (Yukl, 2008),

many effective leaders are efficiency-oriented in the sense that they aim to minimize the cost of people and resources to carry out essential operations, and optimize working processes. Research has shown that reducing unnecessary costs can improve a company's performance (Lieberman and Demester, 1999; Ebben and Johnson, 2005; Key et al., 2005). Moreover, in a series of studies, organizational alignment was found to be an indirect predictor of staff satisfaction, and a direct predictor of customer satisfaction (Kantabutra, 2007, 2008, 2010).

Relational-oriented leaders develop close relationships with their team members, and try to recognize, satisfy, and expand their current needs to develop their full potential. Research has found that relationship closeness has a positive impact on performance (Bauer and Green, 1996), and job satisfaction (Harris et al., 2009). While supervisory coaching behavior is positively related to employees' job satisfaction and performance (Ellinger et al., 2003), and with leadership effectiveness (Hamlin, 2004; Hamlin et al., 2006). In addition, collaborative approach, through the similar concept of shared leadership, has been associated with, and a significant predictor of team effectiveness, and team performance (Pearce and Sims, 2002; Carson et al., 2007). Empowerment is a direct predictor of staff and customer satisfaction (Kantabutra, 2007, 2008; 2010). Supportive leadership has a significant and positive relationship with follower satisfaction and motivation, and leadership effectiveness (Judge et al., 2004). Finally, motivation is a direct predictor of staff and customer satisfaction (Kantabutra, 2007, 2008, 2010).

The other dimension depicted in the qualitative findings, which was not included in Yukl's (2008) classification, is the leader's behavior oriented to context. Despite not being referred as one of the most effective behaviors by Yukl (2008), context-orientation has been increasingly mentioned in the leadership research as a leader's need to cope

constantly with changes in his/her workplace in a constructive and effective way (Ilgen and Pulakos, 1999; Blass and Ferris, 2007). Empirical studies conducted in different settings have found a significant and positive relationship between leader's adaptive behaviors and job performance (Lan, 1996; Biais et al., 2005).

Finally, qualitative findings show evidence that effective leaders use additional processes to engage people and produce organizational outcomes such as the management of emotions and collective efficacy (Figure 4-5). More specifically, effective leaders show their emotions to create emotional contagion and positive arousal, and make their team members believe it is possible to achieve superior results. Leaders use these additional mechanisms to create an overall positive organizational climate to foster team members' performance. Emerging research give support to the argument that effective leaders use affective and efficacy processes to generate enthusiasm, confidence and optimism among their team members (Dasborough and Ashkanasy, 2002; Hannah et al., 2008). Thus, several studies found a positive relationship between positive affect and followers' perception of leadership effectiveness (Newcombe and Ashkanasy, 2002; McColl-Kennedy and Anderson, 2002; Bono and Ilies, 2006; Van Kleef et al., 2009), and that leaders high in leadership efficacy achieve superior results both in terms of individual and team members' performance (Paglis, 2010).

In sum, the four dimensions that emerged from the qualitative analysis give support to the argument that leadership effectiveness is a multidimensional construct. By grouping the categories found in the qualitative data, we could identify four main dimensions corresponding to: (1) traits, (2) skills, (3) behaviors and (4) processes. Moreover, the evidence collected on effective leadership behaviors expands on previous research to point out four different behavioral orientations in relation to: (1) change, (2)

task, (3) relational, (4) context. These dimensions and respective categories might be organized in a hierarchical taxonomy for leadership effectiveness (Figure 4-6). Hence, we can conclude that:

Finding 2 — *Leadership effectiveness is a multidimensional construct comprised of four dimensions: (1) traits, (2) skills, (3) behaviors, and (4) processes.*

Finding 3 — *Effective leadership behaviors is a multidimensional construct comprised of four behavioral dimensions: (1) change-orientation, (2) task-orientation, (3) relational-orientation, and (4) context-orientation.*

7.3.1.2. ORGANIZATIONAL CONTEXT

RQ 2 — What is the impact of the organizational context on leadership effectiveness?

In this study, qualitative findings support the argument that leadership and context are mutually interdependent, and jointly affect organizational effectiveness. This bidirectional relationship between leadership and context has been mentioned in the literature (e.g., Pettigrew and Whipp, 1991; Gardner, 1993). However, empirical studies, including contextual factors are still lacking in this field. Most of the research conducted focuses on organizational culture whereby scholars have examined its role as a mediator or a moderator variable between leadership and firm performance (e.g., Ogbonna and Harris, 2000; Kim et al., 2004). Explicitly, interviewees illustrated that contextual factors

such as the economic situation (crisis vs. growth), volatility and turbulence, control of the company (private vs. public and multinational vs. national), leader's autonomy and empowerment, team seniority, longevity and size of the organization, complexity of the business, and orientation of the company (national vs. global), might affect leadership effectiveness. Conversely, leadership may influence the organizational context in the sense that the leader's attitudes and behaviors affect the overall climate, stress levels, team emotions, employee satisfaction levels, relationship with society, corporate reputation, organizational culture and values. These results give support to the argument that leadership and contextual factors are interconnected, and jointly affect organizational outcomes. Therefore, we summarize:

Finding 4 — *Leadership effectiveness and contextual factors interact with each other and jointly determine the performance of an organization.*

7.3.1.3. MEASURES TO ASSESS LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

RQ 3 — What are the measures used to assess leadership effectiveness?

As noted earlier, interviewees report the use of mixed metrics to evaluate leadership effectiveness. In line with previous research (DeRue et al., 2011; Parry and Proctor-Thompson, 2002), qualitative findings refer to subjective ratings and objective organizational goals such as the satisfaction of customers, satisfaction of employees, relationship with direct managers, level of motivation, performance evaluation, employee

attrition and absenteeism, level of innovation, organizational climate, financial results (short, medium, and long term) among others. Based on these findings, we infer that:

Finding 5 — *Companies use a mix of objective and subjective measures to assess leadership effectiveness.*

7.3.2. QUANTITATIVE FINDINGS

In Chapter 5, we have introduced the research questions that guided the quantitative study. In the following sections, each one of the research questions is revisited, and the main findings are interpreted based on the theoretical background. Hence, we will refer to a causal relationship model, including the dimensions of leadership effectiveness to explain organizational effectiveness, and to the moderating role of contextual factors.

7.3.2.1. CAUSAL EFFECTS OF LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS ON ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

RQ 4 — What is the model of leadership effectiveness that can be used to explain organizational effectiveness?

In the previous Chapter, we have tested a structural path model to explain organizational effectiveness using two different samples. Through our analysis, we have reached several conclusions. First, the variance accounted for by the model was

consistently high across the two samples, which suggests that the model is substantive enough in identifying significant predictors for organizational effectiveness. Second, we find that interpersonal communication skills have significant and relatively strong direct paths to proximal working relationship, vision articulation & realization, adaptive and proactive behaviors. Third, the results show that interpersonal communication skills and learning goal orientation are significant antecedents of leadership self-efficacy. Fourth, the findings provide evidence that leadership self-efficacy has a mediating role between both antecedents and effective leadership behaviors, with the exception of adaptivity. Fifth, the findings give support to the argument that effective leadership behaviors is a multidimensional construct comprised of proximal working relationship, vision articulation & realization, adaptivity, and proactivity to change. However, team members perceived proximal working relationship with their leaders was not found to be significant. Finally, we have support for the significant and positive relationship between effective leadership behaviors and impact on overall organizational effectiveness. Hereafter, we revisit each one of these findings in light of the theoretical background used in our investigation.

A) *Structural Model of Leadership Effectiveness*

Not surprisingly, Figures 6-3 and 6-4 show that leaders with higher impact on organizational effectiveness tend to exhibit a combination of certain traits, skills, self-regulatory mechanisms and behaviors. More specifically, we notice significant relationships between the different predictors elicited in the model to explain organizational effectiveness, with the exception of the relationship between leadership self-efficacy and adaptive behaviors in the *combined sample*, and between proximal

working relationship and effective leadership behaviors in the *corporate team members* sample. As previously reported in Chapter 6, the relationship between leadership self-efficacy and adaptivity becomes significant when considering the full model with the personality traits, while the relationship between proximal working relationship and effective leadership behaviors is only significant for corporate leaders. Additionally, our model is capable of explaining a large proportion of the variance of the impact on organizational effectiveness. These findings might suggest that leaders that are learning goal-oriented, good interpersonal communicators, self-confident, and that exhibit behaviors oriented to working relationships, vision accomplishment, context adaptation, and proactivity to change are more likely to be highly effective and to have a greater impact on organizational effectiveness.

These findings bring additional and interesting insights to advocate for an integrative perspective of leadership effectiveness based on a synthesis of the most prominent theories (e.g., House, 1977; Bass, 1985; Lord et al., 1986; Conger and Kanungo, 1998; Mumford et al., 2000a; Yukl, 2008). Findings from the qualitative study detailed in Chapter 4 corroborate this perspective further suggesting that leadership effectiveness is a multidimensional construct comprised of traits, skills, behaviors, and processes. Therefore, we can conclude that the combination of trait, skills, self-regulation, and behavioral theories of leadership enabled the development of a set of predictors that are able to explain a substantial amount of variance of organizational effectiveness:

Finding 6— *The structural model is comprised of significant predictors, including traits, skills, self-regulation, and behaviors that affect the overall impact on organizational effectiveness.*

B) ICS is a Predictor of Effective Leadership Behaviors

As expected, results show positive and significant direct coefficient paths from interpersonal communication skills to proximal working relationships (Hypothesis 1). These results confirm previous research, which refers to this leader's ability to listen actively, and communicate effectively as a factor to improve working relationships through the reduction of conflicts, strengthening cooperation, and fostering understanding among team members (Berman and Hellweg, 1989; Mineyama et al. 2007, Talukder, 2012).

Results also show positive and significant direct coefficient paths from interpersonal communication skills to vision articulation & realization (Hypothesis 2). Previous research refers that leaders communicate their vision to make their team members feel more identified with the purpose and meaning of the organization, and to involve them in the vision implementation process (Bryman, 1992; Yukl, 2000; Kohles et al., 2012). Thus, leaders with strong communication skills use vision communication to attract and persuade their team members, and to increase their commitment and performance (Francis, 1989; Kohles et al., 2012).

In addition, results show positive and significant direct coefficient paths from interpersonal communication skills to adaptive behaviors (Hypothesis 3). Extant research supports these findings, showing that leaders rated higher in communication skills also have the ability to adapt their own behaviors to a particular situation to create a greater impact on their team members (Sypher and Sypher, 1983). These leaders understand the importance of communication as a way to adapt their behaviors to specific situations as for instance to create a favorable impression in the audience (Kolb, 1998).

At last, results show positive and significant direct coefficient paths from interpersonal communication skills to proactive behaviors (Hypothesis 4). These findings are in consonance with previous research that reveals how critical communication is for leaders who have to deal with resistance to change from their workforce (Kanter, 1984; Handy, 1988). Therefore, leaders require good communication skills to lead and induce others to change (Burke and Litwin, 1992; Denning, 2005; Gilley et al., 2009).

Im summary, interpersonal communication skills are found to be a significant predictor of all the effective leadership behaviors. These results suggest that leaders high in interpersonal communication skills are more likely to exhibit behaviors oriented to proximal working relationship, vision articulation & realization, adaptive and proactive behaviors. These findings are in line with the insights of previous research indicating that communication skills are the true foundation for leaders to exert their social influence among team members. As such, effective leaders communicate with their team members frequently, and engage in active listening, to gain their trust and total engagement, so they can perform better (Bass, 1990a; Neufeld et al., 2010; Talukder, 2012). Hence, we can conclude that:

Finding 7 — *Interpersonal communication skills have significant and relatively strong direct paths to proximal working relationship, vision articulation & realization, adaptive behaviors and proactive behaviors.*

C) *ICS and LGO are Predictors of Leadership Self-Efficacy*

As illustrated in Figures 6-3 and 6-4, results demonstrate that interpersonal communication skills and learning goal orientation are significant predictors of leadership self-efficacy. These two predictors have significant direct path coefficients to leadership self-efficacy (Hypotheses 5 and 7). Both constructs explain a significant amount of variance of leadership self-efficacy. These findings add to the extant literature by suggesting two major sources of leadership self-efficacy. For Bandura (1997), the main roots of self-efficacy are actual and vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and psychological states. In this study, we confirm that leaders that believe in their ability to carry out effectively the behaviors necessary for their leadership role require, above all, dispositional traits oriented to learning from experience and good communication skills. These findings suggest that leaders with a predisposition to learn from their own mistakes, and excelling in communication skills are more likely to have higher confidence in their own ability to perform as leaders. Thus, we might conclude that:

Finding 8 — *Interpersonal communication skills and learning goal orientation are found to be significant antecedents of leadership self-efficacy.*

D) *Mediating Role of LSE*

According to the results reported in Tables 6-24, and 6-38, we find that leadership self-efficacy plays a mediating role between its two antecedents (i.e., interpersonal communication skills and learning goal orientation) and the effective leadership behaviors. Specifically, These findings indicate a mediating effect of leadership self-

efficacy, confirmed through the Sobel test (Table 6-25), which tell us whether leadership self-efficacy significantly carries the influence of the two independent variables, interpersonal communication skills and learning goal orientation to the endogenous variable, effective leadership behaviors (Hypotheses 8, 9, 10, and 11). The exception regards to adaptive behavior whereby the mediating effect of leadership self-efficacy only occurs when the full model (including the Big Five personality traits) is tested, which also suggests that the mediator carries indirect effects of the Big Five personality factors. Furthermore, we have confirmation of this mediating effect of leadership self-efficacy between learning goal orientation and vision articulation & realization (Table 6-25).

This mediating role of leadership self-efficacy has been widely examined in the literature, especially for the relationship between personality traits, learning goal orientation and leadership outcomes (e.g., Chan and Drasgow, 2001; Hendricks and Payne, 2007; Ng et al., 2008). However, findings from this study represent a step further in confirming the mediating role of leadership self-efficacy in relation to interpersonal communication skills and leadership behaviors. In fact, these findings uncover additional intermediate relationships that allow us to understand how leadership self-efficacy affect leadership outcomes, which were not yet examined in the leadership literature. For instance, results suggest that self-confident leaders feel more comfortable in exhibiting behaviors necessary to develop mature working relationship, to influence the goal level attainment as well as the effort and persistence to achieve them, to adapt their leadership style based on follower's attributes, and to engage in taking charge of organizational change. Overall, these findings tell us that leaders who are likely to behave in a more effective way tend to have higher qualities as interpersonal communicators, are more likely to have a learning orientation to goals, and are confident in their own leadership

abilities. Therefore, we can conclude that:

Finding 9 — *Leadership self-efficacy mediates the relationship between both interpersonal communication skills and learning goal orientation, and all the effective leadership behaviors excluding adaptivity.*

E) ELB is a Second Order Construct

Preliminary evidence that effective leadership behaviors is a multidimensional construct comes from the leadership literature (e.g., Fleishman, 1953; Blake and Mouton, 1985; Yukl et al., 2002; Yukl, 2008), and from our qualitative findings. In our research, we have extended Yukl's (2008) typology to four behavioral orientations in relation to: (1) change, (2) task, (3) relational and (4) context. These behavioral orientations were studied during the quantitative phase, however, using a different typology as explained in Section 5.4.5. Results presented in Table 6-23 and 6-24 show significant path coefficients from the four effective leadership behaviors in relation to the second-order construct (Hypothesis 12). These findings provide interesting insights to answering the question of what are the behavioral mechanisms used by effective leaders. Interestingly, they suggest a leadership behavioral frame which is different from previous leadership behavioral theories (e.g., transformational, transactional, and charismatic). Thus, according to these results we might conclude that a leader's behavior is most effective when he or she is able to develop mature leadership relationships, to articulate and accomplish a vision through effective communication, organizational alignment, empowerment and motivation, to adapt and cope with different situations in the workplace in a constructive and effective

way, and finally to raise awareness and guide the team members towards organizational change. In sum, our data support the argument that effective leadership behaviors is a multidimensional construct as stated below:

Finding 10 — *Effective leadership behaviors is a second order construct composed of four dimensions: (1) proximal working relationship, (2) vision accomplishment, (3) adaptivity, and (4) proactivity to change. Team members perceived proximal working relationship with their leaders was not found to be significant.*

F) ELB is a Predictor of Organizational Effectiveness

Evidence for a strong positive and significant relationship between effective leadership behaviors and the overall impact on overall organizational effectiveness is shown in Figures 6-3 and 6-4. Explicitly, effective leadership behaviors have a significant direct coefficient path to overall organizational effectiveness (Hypothesis 13). Overall, effective leadership behaviors explain a significant amount of variance of organizational effectiveness in both samples.

In line with these findings, previous studies examining each one of the effective leadership behaviors have found evidence of their impact on organizational effectiveness. First, research on change-oriented behaviors found a positive relationship with employees' extra effort, which in turn relates to firm performance (House et al., 1997; Dorfman et al., 2004; Sully de Luque et al., 2008). Second, studies conducted on relational-oriented behaviors found that relationships of high-quality are rated as having an impact on performance, and job satisfaction (Duarte et al., 1994; Bauer and Green,

1996; Harris et al., 2009). Third, investigation on task-oriented behaviors found a positive association with improved followers' performance and effectiveness (Hunt and Schuller, 1976; Klimoski and Hayes, 1980; Peters and Waterman, 1982). Finally, research on context-oriented behaviors found that highly adaptable leaders have a positive and significant relationship with job performance (Caldwell and O'Reilly, 1982; Lan, 1996; Biais et al., 2005).

Notwithstanding, our findings reinforce the theoretical perspective that leadership behaviors are more proximal predictors of organizational effectiveness, and build on previous research bringing together a new taxonomy for effective leadership behaviors. Specifically, these findings suggest that leaders who exhibit specific behaviors—orientated to develop mature leadership relationships, to articulate and accomplish a vision, to adapt and to cope with different situations, and to raise awareness and guide team members towards organizational change—are more likely to affect team members' behaviors that ultimately have a strong positive impact on overall organizational effectiveness. Hence, our data allow us to conclude that:

Finding 11 — *Effective leadership behaviors has a significant and positive impact on overall organizational effectiveness.*

7.3.2.2. CAUSAL EFFECTS OF CONTEXTUAL FACTORS ON ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

RQ 5 — What is the relationship between contextual factors and organizational effectiveness?

Throughout Chapter 6, we have examined the moderating effect of several contextual factors. Our investigation allows us to reach several conclusions. First, top level leaders (i.e., board members, CEOs, and first level management) exhibit a combination of behaviors that have a higher impact on overall organizational effectiveness. Second, highly experienced leaders (i.e., with job tenure above 9 years) behave in a more effective way than less experienced leaders. Finally, leaders with lower seniority (i.e., leaders with company tenure of less than or equal to 10 years) are more effective in terms of their behaviors than leaders with higher seniority. Hereafter, we revisit each one of these findings in light of the theoretical background used in our investigation.

A) Top-level Leaders have a Higher Impact on Organizational Effectiveness

As noted earlier, the leader hierarchical level is an important factor associated with the impact of leadership on followers' behaviors, and ultimately on organizational effectiveness. A previous stream of research has examined this moderator effect based on the argument that leaders at different levels enact different behaviors (Lowe et al., 1996; Antonakis, 2001; Antonakis and Atwater, 2002). According to our findings, we confirm that the leader hierarchical level has a moderating effect on the overall organizational effectiveness (Hypothesis 14a). As illustrated in Tables 6-30 and 6-31, there are

significant differences in the path coefficients directed to the overall impact on leadership effectiveness across the three groups. More specifically, the impact of effective leadership behaviors on overall organizational effectiveness is significantly higher in the top two hierarchical levels (i.e., board members, CEOs, and first level management) than in the third level (i.e., intermediate management). Moreover, board members and CEOs consistently are found to exhibit all four identified effective leadership behaviors, while first level managers use more behaviors associated with vision accomplishment, and proactivity to change, and intermediate managers exhibit more proactive behaviors than the other two groups.

These findings provide support to the assumption that top-level leaders exhibit more behaviors directed to change (i.e., more transformational style) and develop mature relationships with their team members (i.e., more relational style). First level leaders use behaviors more oriented to change (i.e., more transformational style), and to vision implementation (i.e., more task-oriented). Intermediate level leaders enact more behaviors focusing on change, adaptivity, and vision implementation. Consistently, across the three groups, leaders exhibit this orientation to change, which might be explained by the necessity of those leaders to introduce change in their organizations in the face of the adverse economic environment experienced since 2008. Therefore, these results lead us to conclude that:

Finding 12 — *Top-level leaders (i.e., board members, CEOs, and first level management) appear to exhibit behaviors different from lower level leaders, which have a higher impact on overall organizational effectiveness.*

B) *Highly Experienced Leaders and Leaders with lower Seniority have a higher Impact on Organizational Effectiveness*

Previous research has investigated whether the previous leader's experience accounted or not for some variance in firm performance (e.g., Virany et al., 1992; Waldman et al., 2001; Howell et al., 2005). According to Tables 6-32 and 6-33, results show that the impact of effective leadership behaviors is significantly higher in high-experienced leaders (i.e., leaders with job tenure above 9 years) than in low-experienced leaders (Hypothesis 14b). In addition, as illustrated in Tables 6-34 and 6-35, leaders with lower seniority (i.e., leaders with company tenure of less than or equal to 10 years) have a higher impact on overall organizational effectiveness than more senior leaders (Hypothesis 14c). Paradoxically, highly experienced leaders appear to be more effective than less experienced leaders, while leaders with more seniority in the company are likely to be less effective than more junior leaders. This might be explained by the fact that some senior leaders are more effective, but only for a certain period (i.e., during the early years of their company tenure), while later, due to institutionalization, they become more averse to change, and sometimes even an oppositional force inside the company (Howell et al., 2005). Following the above reasoning, we can conclude that:

Finding 13 — *Highly experienced leaders (i.e., leaders with job tenure above 9 years) appear to exhibit behaviors different from less experienced leaders, which have a higher impact on overall organizational effectiveness.*

Finding 14 — *Leaders with lower seniority (i.e., leaders with company tenure of less than or equal to 10 years) appear to exhibit behaviors different from leaders with higher seniority, which have a higher impact on overall organizational effectiveness.*

7.4. THEORETICAL CONTRIBUTIONS

An impressive body of knowledge concerning leadership effectiveness has emerged in recent years with the main purpose to create frameworks for developing leaders to achieve high-performance levels (e.g., Bass, 1985, Conger and Kanungo, 1987; Bass and Avolio, 1992, 2008; Avolio et al., 2004b; Greenleaf, 2008). However, little effort was made to create an integrative approach for the leadership theory, whereas important gaps as the identification of causal and underlying mechanisms that link leadership to outcomes are still dominant, preventing us to have a full understanding of the whole process. Therefore, answering the question of how are some leaders more effective than others is still a topical discussion in the leadership research. This thesis contributes to this debate in a number of ways.

First, this research improves the understanding of leadership in the organizations by presenting an integrative perspective, which includes antecedents of leadership, self-regulatory mechanisms, leadership behaviors, affective/efficacy processes, and contextual factors, responding to a call made to the academic community by several researchers (e.g., Avolio, 2007, Gardner et al., 2010, DeRue et al., 2011). Together, the qualitative and quantitative findings present strong evidence for an integrative model of leadership effectiveness. Therefore, this thesis provides an important contribution to the leadership literature in demonstrating the greater understanding that can be achieved from

adopting an integrative approach to the study of leadership in organizations. In addition, these findings give support to the emerging approach that leadership effectiveness may be seen as a complex system of interrelated variables (e.g., Chan and Drasgow, 2001; Hendricks and Payne, 2007; Ng et al., 2008), against studies focusing on only one side of the full spectrum (i.e., on traits or behaviors) as previously criticized by DeRue et al. (2011) due to the question of independent effects on effectiveness. From an integrative approach, the findings from the quantitative analysis reveal important insights on how these variables interact with each other to explain organizational outcomes.

Second, this thesis adds to the extant research by offering a formal definition, a hierarchical taxonomy, and a set of measures to assess leadership effectiveness. As highlighted earlier in Chapter 4, this thesis builds on previous definitions of leadership effectiveness (e.g., Stogdill, 1950; Yukl, 1989; Hogan et al., 1994) to incorporate recent trends on organizational sustainability-orientation (e.g., Quazi, 2001; Wong, 2003; Svensson and Wood, 2006). Moreover, this study brings additional insights organized into a new hierarchical taxonomy, including complementary facets of leadership effectiveness. Specifically, this taxonomy provides a parsimonious and a meaningful conceptual framework that shows how the different categories are interrelated, helps to integrate findings from previous research, and serves as a baseline to derive comprehensive theories of leadership effectiveness. Given the growing interest on integrated measures of leadership, this study also contributes with a set of measures reported by the interviewees. These findings add to the extant literature by offering a full range of complementary measures to have a more reliable assessment of leadership effectiveness.

Third, this study brings additional insights to the ongoing debate on the elements

that form the basis of leadership effectiveness and provide a foundation for organizational performance (e.g., Bennis and Nanus, 1997; Alchian, 1986; Hogan et al., 1994; Yukl, 1998), by offering a nomological network that specifies and explains its associations to other variables, and by demonstrating the ability of several causal variables to predict leadership effectiveness. In addition, it provides additional empirical support to confirm the relationship between leadership and organizational performance as requested by several scholars (Thomas, 1993; Jaffe, 2001; Andersen, 2002). Specifically, quantitative evidence supports the idea that leaders with higher impact on organizational effectiveness tend to exhibit a combination of certain traits, skills, self-regulatory mechanisms and behaviors. As previously reported in Chapter 6, our model is capable of explaining a large proportion of the variance of organizational effectiveness, which suggests that leaders that are learning goal-oriented, good interpersonal communicators, self-confident, and that exhibit behaviors oriented to working relationships, vision accomplishment, context adaptation, and proactivity to change are more likely to be highly effective and to have a greater impact on organizational effectiveness.

Fourth, the evidence collected on effective leadership behaviors expands on previous research (Yukl, 2008) to point out four different behavioral orientations in relation to: (1) change, (2) task, (3) relational, and (4) context. Findings support the additional leader's behavioral context-orientation based on the assumption that leaders require this additional orientation constantly to cope with changes in their workplace in a constructive and effective way, especially when facing uncertainty and extreme volatility in the markets (Lan, 1996; Ilgen and Pulakos, 1999; Biais et al., 2005; Blass and Ferris, 2007). This expanded typology for effective leadership behaviors received additional support from quantitative findings, which lead us to conclude that leaders' behavior is

mostly effective when they are able to develop mature leadership relationships, to articulate and accomplish a vision through effective communication, organizational alignment, empowerment and motivation, to adapt and cope with different situations in their workplace in a constructively and effective way, and finally to raise awareness and guide team members towards organizational change.

Finally, this thesis addresses recent calls for the use of mixed methods research in the study of leadership (e.g., Gordon and Yukl, 2004; Avolio et al., 2009; Gardner et al., 2010), by following a pragmatic perspective with a sequential exploratory strategy. As discussed by many scholars from the leadership field, qualitative studies can reveal the complexity and dynamism behind the leadership process (Conger, 1998), while quantitative studies can provide clarity and precision about the significance of the causal system of hypothesized relationships (Babbie, 1990). In the first phase of the study, the qualitative data enabled the researcher to make more meaningful interpretations informed by the specific context of the interviewees' experiences. Subsequently, in the second phase, the statistical analysis enabled the researcher to identify a causal system of relationships, and to capture a comprehensive understanding of the nature of leadership effectiveness. Thus, in adopting mixed methods approach, this study has substantially improved the knowledge and understanding of the intricate social process of leadership inside the organizations.

7.5. MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

The understanding of the causal and underlying mechanisms that link leadership to outcomes is important to foster corporate long-term performance and sustainability.

Especially in a context of uncertainty and turbulence in the markets, whereby leadership actions are even more salient yielding business success or deterioration, depending on whether leaders were able or not to initiate a virtuous cycle of improvement (Davis-Blake and Pfeffer, 1989). Therefore, the findings of our research present many practical implications for leadership selection, training and development, by clarifying the impacts of leadership effectiveness on organizational performance.

In particular, our findings show that a number of leadership antecedents if assessed at the point of organizational entry are at least predictive of subsequent behavioral ratings of leadership effectiveness. These findings, when interpreted in the context of the broader theoretical framework of Figure 5-1, suggest that leadership selection systems may improve substantially by combining tools which not only predict ultimate criteria such as the leader performance, but also consider the antecedents (i.e., personality, and learning goal orientation), and intermediate criteria (i.e., interpersonal communication skills and leadership self-efficacy). For example, corporations could use selection tools to assess personality and dispositional traits, communication skills, and leadership self-efficacy to identify candidates with the highest potential to exhibit effective leadership behaviors.

Furthermore, the findings of the current study indicate that developing proximal working relationships, vision accomplishment, adaptivity and proactivity are the most effective leadership behaviors for corporate management practices. Therefore, leaders should focus on developing these leadership behaviors to improve their effectiveness levels. For instance, corporate leaders should be able to develop mature leadership relationships, to articulate and accomplish a vision through effective communication, organizational alignment, empowerment and motivation, to adapt and to cope with

different situations in their workplace in a constructively and effective way, and finally to raise awareness and guide team members towards organizational change.

Of note, corporations can use the results from this study to formulate the leadership concept to be used in their leadership training and development programs. This leadership concept defines what an effective leader is for the corporation based on the insights from this study. From this concept, the corporate HR department may identify the necessary skills and competencies to develop in order to achieve the ideal concept. For example, the HR department could conduct individual evaluations and 360 feedback to assess the current skills, and afterwards design training and development programs to cover potential gaps.

In parallel, as leadership is a dynamic and interactive process, these findings also serve to develop followers' behaviors to accommodate the necessary orientation to those leadership behaviors. For this purpose, corporations could create development programs for leaders and followers, which could contribute to an overall improvement in the effectiveness levels. By shaping the leaders' and followers' behaviors, corporations could change their organizational culture to become more effective. For example, corporations could introduce daily practices such as informality (i.e., encourage everyone to address others by their first name), orientation to employees' well-being, and open and transparent communication to develop closer working relationships among the employees.

Finally, this study does not simply bring another framework for leadership development as previous studies. Importantly, it has also discussed the contextual factors under which leadership effectiveness plays a key role in organizational performance. As noted earlier, the results from this study suggest the impact of contextual factors such as the leader hierarchical level, job and company tenure on leadership outcomes. Therefore,

these findings bring additional insights to the corporate world that can be used to leverage the overall impact of top-down leadership, and levels of experience. For example, corporations might improve the impact on organizational effectiveness through role modeling, and mentoring programs whereby they match higher level and more experienced leaders with other leaders to influence their set of behaviors.

7.6. STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

After discussing the main findings of this study and its main contributions, the following section provides a discussion of the strengths and limitations of the mixed methods study design, including the qualitative and quantitative phases of the study.

A major strength of the current study was in using mixed methods research design to examine components of leadership effectiveness. Based on the rationale explained in Chapter 3, the integration of quantitative and qualitative methods enabled to gather a more comprehensive understanding of leadership effectiveness in organizational settings than if qualitative or quantitative methods alone had been employed. As reported in Section 7.3. above, the sequential exploratory design was effective in meeting the objectives of this study. Specifically, the qualitative phase of the study successfully captured rich insights into the explanatory and contextual factors underlying a model for leadership effectiveness. After selecting a subset of factors from these findings, the quantitative phase of the study was then able to provide evidence for significant relationships among those factors and overall impact of organizational effectiveness. The benefits of using a mixed methods approach were therefore consubstantiated in a comprehensive model for

leadership effectiveness, which was tested by reliable and valid survey instruments using accurate data.

Furthermore, a notable strength of the mixed method research was in using multi-source data from various instruments including interviews, corporate documents, secondary data from public databases, and questionnaires. In addition, the quantitative study used different types of questionnaires directed to leaders and team members respectively, which resulted in a combination of self-reported measures along with feedback questionnaires. This dual perspective (i.e., leader and team members) of the same phenomena allowed to comparing results that might elicit different perceptions. In summary, multi-source allowed for the triangulation of data, which is a methodological form used to avoid the use of single-source in leadership research often resulting in common method bias (Strauss and Corbin, 1998; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003). While addressing single-source concerns, this study also allowed for a multi-organizational level analysis. For instance, in this study, 381 leaders were analyzed from differently hierarchical levels, from which 88 are Board Members and CEOs, 100 are first level managers, and 149 are intermediate managers.

Despite following an exhaustive mixed methods research and rigorous analysis procedures, the findings reported herein should be interpreted in light of several limitations identified during the course of the study, and summarized below.

One important limitation of the study concerns the samples and the context where the study took place. The narrowness of the initial convenience sampling from a single geographical area by using Portuguese leaders as the target population confines the number of prospective leaders available to the researcher, and limits the generalizability of the findings to larger groups. Thus, this study could benefit by having larger samples,

by expanding the investigation to other industries, and other countries (with different national cultures, and in different economic cycles).

The second key limitation is the cross-sectional nature of the study. This analysis was largely restricted to the examination of the relationships between variables at a given point in time, which raises concerns regarding an examination of causality (Mann, 2003). In fact, this argument is particularly true in the case of variables that may change over time. For instance, it is possible that at least certain components of leadership effectiveness (e.g., proximal working relationships), and their impact on organizational performance will emerge with some time lag. A longitudinal design might yield additional insights into the development of the complex and dynamic leadership process.

A further limitation is the use of subjective criteria for the endogenous variable, overall impact on organizational effectiveness. Following DeRue et al. (2011) recommendation, mixed criteria comprising objective and subjective variables should be used to avoid potential bias. Unfortunately, participating corporations were not keen in disclosing objective measures for the leaders' performance, which restrained the type of measures. However, efforts have been made to match subjective measures such as the perceived firm performance compared to the average performance of the industry, with objective data collected from secondary sources.

7.7. FUTURE RESEARCH

In order to achieve a deeper understanding of the exploratory and contextual factors underlying the main components of leadership effectiveness, it is necessary to expand this study to other geographical areas, and to a longer time span. Further, research

is therefore needed to explore the significant relationships identified in this study, ensuring the coverage of other contexts, and of longitudinal data. Looking beyond the findings of this study, further studies employing the same approach are needed to complement the current analysis, to test the structural model in other groups, contexts, and to allow for a generalizability of the findings.

Given that leadership effectiveness still lacks an integrative theoretical perspective, further research using the same approach is much needed to support such a theoretical perspective. This thesis validates a model for leadership effectiveness that considers the impact of several components such as traits, skills, and behaviors on organizational effectiveness. Interestingly, during the analysis emerged new areas that might foster new directions for leadership research. For example, interpersonal communication skills emerged as a significant predictor of effective leadership behaviors. In addition, the multidimensional construct of effective leadership behaviors expanded to four basic orientations namely to change, relational, task and context.

Furthermore, other contextual variables not examined in the current study such as for example the organizational culture might worth to explore further in future research. Especially, if considering the compelling findings referring to the interplay between leadership and contextual factors, and other research pointing to the interdependence of these two constructs (e.g., Hatch, 1993; Brooks, 1996; Hennessey, 1998; Cunha, 2002). In addition, future research on leadership effectiveness could benefit from a multi-level analysis. This study focused the analysis at the individual level considering a dual perspective from both the leader, and the follower. Other studies might include as well group, and organizational levels of analysis to enhance theory formulation (e.g., Yammarino et al., 2005; Gooty et al., 2012).

7.8. CONCLUSION

The main components of leadership effectiveness and contextual factors are major contemporary business topics. They are considered the most important factors for corporate above-average performance and sustainability. Research related to these topics is still lacking an integrative perspective, which combines theoretical approaches from several schools of thought. This thesis is, therefore, useful in helping to fill this gap. More specifically, this thesis aimed at investigating the relationship between components of leadership effectiveness and organizational performance, and interaction of contextual factors on such relationship. To achieve the goals of the thesis, a research model comprising four major components of leadership effectiveness, interpersonal communication skills, learning goal orientation, leadership self-efficacy and effective leadership behaviors was developed to test its predictive capacity. Therefore, these findings support the proposed integrative perspective of leadership effectiveness to explain a substantial amount of variance of organizational effectiveness.

Underpinned by the research findings mentioned herein, this thesis sheds additional insights into the explanatory and contextual factors perceived that are related to leadership effectiveness, and provides new evidence for significant causal relationships that impact organizational outcomes. Specifically, this thesis has derived a more precise definition for leadership effectiveness that encapsulates an orientation toward corporate sustainability. In addition, the research supports the argument that leadership effectiveness is a multidimensional construct comprised of four dimensions: (1) traits, (2) skills, (3) behaviors, and (4) processes. Finally, we have collected evidence that the structural path model to explain organizational effectiveness is substantive enough in identifying significant predictors. Importantly, the results of this thesis also suggest

several theoretical contributions such as improving the understanding of leadership in the organizations by presenting an integrative perspective, offering a formal definition, a hierarchical taxonomy, and a set of measures to assess leadership effectiveness. Moreover, this thesis provides additional insights for the ongoing debate on the elements that form the basis of leadership effectiveness and a foundation for organizational performance. Hence, these findings provide practical implications for managers/leaders by clarifying the impacts of leadership effectiveness on organizational performance in areas of leadership selection, training and development. Finally, this thesis closes with its main strengths and limitations, and recommends future research directions, which hopefully will help extend the way for researchers willing to foster and enhance the findings of this research study.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A – Empirical Studies on the most Prominent Theoretical Approaches to Leadership Effectiveness.

	Target	Methods	Results
<i>Trait approach</i>			
Judge et al. (2002a)	Five-factor model as an organizing framework to analyze correlates of leadership effectiveness.	Qualitative review and meta-analysis of 222 correlations from 73 samples. Perceived measures of leadership effectiveness (superiors and subordinates ratings of leader's effectiveness).	Correlations to leadership effectiveness were Extraversion ($r_c = .24$), Openness to Experience ($r_c = .24$), Emotional Stability ($r_c = .22$), Agreeableness ($r_c = .21$), and Conscientiousness ($r_c = .16$). Regression results show two traits: Openness to Experience ($\beta = .19$) and Extraversion ($\beta = .18$) were significantly predictors of leadership effectiveness. Strong and significant multiple correlations of the Five-factor model ($R^2 = .39$).
Judge et al. (2004)	Studies examining the relationship between intelligence and leadership effectiveness.	Meta-analysis of 151 independent samples in 96 sources. Perceived and objective measures were used for leadership effectiveness.	Results indicate that the correlation between intelligence and leadership effectiveness is .21. Paper-and-pencil intelligence was positively related to perceived leadership effectiveness ($r_c = .15$) and to objective leadership effectiveness ($r_c = .25$).
<i>Skills approach</i>			
Connelly et al. (2000)	Problem-solving skills, social judgment skills, and leader knowledge were examined with respect to leadership effectiveness.	Two samples of Army officers were analyzed. Measures of leadership effectiveness were a self-reported career achievement and ratings of solutions to leadership problems.	Results indicate problem-solving ($r = .35$ and $r = .51$), social judgment ($r = .45$ and $r = .51$) and knowledge measures ($r = .27$ and $r = .30$) account for variance in leader effectiveness (for both measures) beyond that accounted for by cognitive abilities, motivations, and personality. Hierarchical regression show that leader skills predict both leadership effectiveness measures (respectively, $R^2 = .27$ and $R^2 = .35$).
Zaccaro et al. (2000)	Describe the development of a set of five constructed response measures designed to assess complex problem-solving skills and knowledge expected to influence leadership.	A sample of 1,807 Army officers was analyzed. Measures to assess leadership effectiveness used self-description items.	Correlations between leader skills and leadership effectiveness measures of officer career achievement and senior officer career achievement were for problem-solving ($r = .41$ and $r = .41$), for social judgment ($r = .41$ and $r = .40$), and for solution construction ($r = .41$ and $r = .40$).

Hirst et al. (2004)	Drawing upon an action learning perspective, the authors analyzed the relationship of a leader's learning of project leadership skills and facilitative leadership, team reflexivity, and team performance.	A 1-year longitudinal study of 50 R&D teams, with 313 team members and 22 project customers, collecting both quantitative and qualitative data. Two subjective measures of effective performance were used: customer ratings of team performance and of project quality.	Found evidence of a significant impact of the leader's learning on subsequent facilitative leadership and team performance 8 and 12 months later. Leadership learning was significantly correlated with customer ratings of team performance ($r = .36$). Learning was significantly correlated with customer ratings of project quality ($r = .42$).
<i>Behavioral approach</i>			
Lowe et al. (1996)	This study tested the effects of five behaviours identified in the transformational/transactional literature: charisma, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, contingent-reward and management-by-exception.	A meta-analysis of 39 published and unpublished studies was conducted to assess the leadership style-effectiveness relationship. Mixed measures were used: subordinate perceptions and organizational measures of effectiveness.	Findings presented the following correlations: a) to subjective measures – charisma ($r_c = .81$), individualized consideration ($r_c = .69$), intellectual stimulation ($r_c = .68$), contingent-reward ($r_c = .56$), and management-by-exception ($r_c = .10$); b) to objective measures – charisma ($r_c = .35$), individualized consideration ($r_c = .28$), intellectual stimulation ($r_c = .26$), contingent-reward ($r_c = .08$), and management-by-exception ($r_c = -.04$).
Dumdum et al. (2002)	Analysed transformational and transactional leadership correlates of effectiveness.	Meta-analysis of transformational and transactional leadership.	Leadership behaviours correlate to effectiveness: transformational ($r = .43$), contingent-reward ($r = .45$), management-by-exception ($r = -.23$), and laissez-faire ($r = -.29$).
Judge and Piccolo (2004)	This study provided an examination of the full range of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership.	Meta-analytic method of 87 studies to estimate the correlations. Subjective and organizational measures were used.	Results show that transformational leadership correlates with (a) follower satisfaction with the leader ($r = .71$), (b) follower motivation ($r = .53$), (c) leader job performance ($r = .27$) and group or organization performance ($r = .26$), and (d) leader effectiveness ($r = .64$); contingent reward (a) follower satisfaction with the leader ($r = .55$), (b) follower motivation ($r = .59$), (c) leader job performance ($r = .45$) and group or organization performance ($r = .16$), and (d) leader effectiveness ($r = .55$). Regression results show that the full range model predict all leadership effectiveness measures (respectively, (a) $R^2 = .44$, (b) $R^2 = .28$, (c) $R^2 = .18$, and (d) $R^2 = .35$).

Situational approach

Fernandez and Vecchio (1997)	The primary goals of the analyses were a replication of prior tests of a within-jobs view of the situational leadership theory, and an across-jobs test of the theory wherein job level was used as a predictor of optimal leadership style.	Data from 332 university employees and 32 supervisors were collected on dimensions of leader behavior and follower maturity in order to test predictions for the outcomes of employee performance, satisfaction, and quality of leader-member exchange.	Evidence demonstrated that the theory, as originally formulated, has little descriptive utility. However, further analyses suggested that supervisory monitoring and consideration may interact with job level such that monitoring has a positive impact for lower level employees, while consideration has a more positive impact for higher level employees. The interaction suggests that some of the intuitively-appealing aspects of the theory may be correct, but that couching these processes in terms of readiness/maturity and the dimensions of initiation structure and consideration is incorrect.
Vecchio et al. (2006)	The study replicated prior comprehensive tests of situational leadership theory.	Survey conducted to members of 86 squads of U.S. Military Academy cadets (total of 860 participants). Measures used for leader consideration, leader structuring, follower readiness/maturity, follower satisfaction, follower performance, and leader-member exchange.	Results of regression analyses and tests for mean differences within follower readiness/maturity level did not yield clear evidence of a predicted interaction among leader style and follower attributes. These results are in alignment with prior findings and suggest the theory may have little practical utility.
Thompson and Vecchio (2009)	Three versions of the situational leadership theory were analyzed in this study to assess for predicted interactions with performance measures: (1) the original in 1972, (2) the revised in 2007, and (3) an alternative statement of the theory's essential principle of differential follower response to "autonomy afforded be the leader" in conjunction with "follower developmental level.	Survey data was collected from 357 banking employees and 80 supervisors from 10 Norwegian financial institutions sample.	Findings did not provide clear support for situational leadership theory, in any of its versions. Results indicate that the 2007 version was a poorer predictor of subordinate performance and attitudes than the original one. The third version offered promise for further exploration of the theory's essential principle that employee outcomes are associated with prescribed leader behaviours in combination with follower developmental level, although this version also did not add substantially to accounting for criterion variance.

Contingency approach

Peters et al. (1985)	Drawing on Fiedler's Contingency Theory, this study quantified the variance in correlations between leader style and performance that can be explained by sampling error, and thus other moderator variables, including situational favorability, would be unnecessary theoretical constructions.	A total of 11 developmental studies and 24 validation studies (field and laboratory studies) were identified. More than one performance measure was used; as a consequence the correlations were averaged.	Results suggest that sampling error cannot account for the observed variance around the mean correlation of $-.07$, and therefore, meaningful moderators might exist. However, only partial support for situational favorableness as the relevant moderator is suggested by the data. Such results suggest that one or more additional moderator variables might be needed to account fully for the variance.
Schriesheim et al. (1994)	The study used across-octant comparisons drawn from Fiedler's contingency model of leadership.	Data from 1,282 groups used in previous research was analyzed using meta-analytic procedures.	Higher performance predictions made by contingency model were largely supported for both high and low-LPC leaders (respectively, relationship-motivated and task-motivated). However, the equal-performance predictions of the contingency model were largely not supported. In sum, the findings are encouraging, but should be viewed as providing cautious support for the contingency model overall.

Trait & Behavioral approach

Derue et al.
(2011)

Developed an integrated trait-behavioral model of leadership effectiveness. Leader traits considered: gender, intelligence, personality. Behaviours: transformational-transactional, initiating structure-consideration.

Meta-analysis of 59 published studies. Mixed measures of leadership effectiveness were considered: leader effectiveness, group performance, follower job satisfaction, satisfaction with leader.

Traits correlate to (a) leader effectiveness: Extraversion ($r_c = .31$), Conscientiousness ($r_c = .28$), Emotional Stability ($r_c = .24$), and Openness to Experience ($r_c = .24$); (b) group performance: Conscientiousness ($r_c = .31$), and Agreeableness ($r_c = .20$); (c) satisfaction with the leader: Agreeableness ($r_c = .24$).

Behaviours correlate to (a) leader effectiveness: transformational ($r_c = .64$), consideration ($r_c = .52$), contingent-reward ($r_c = .51$), and initiation structure ($r_c = .39$); (b) group performance: transformational ($r_c = .38$), initiation structure ($r_c = .35$), consideration ($r_c = .28$), and contingent-reward ($r_c = .24$); (c) follower job satisfaction: contingent-reward ($r_c = .64$), transformational ($r_c = .58$), consideration ($r_c = .46$), and initiation structure ($r_c = .22$); (d) satisfaction with leader: consideration ($r_c = .78$), transformational ($r_c = .71$), contingent-reward ($r_c = .55$), and initiation structure ($r_c = .33$).

For overall (a) leader effectiveness: leader traits and behaviours explain 58% of variance (traits account for 22% and behaviours for 47%); (b) group performance: leader traits and behaviours explain 31% of variance (traits account for 14% and behaviours for 20%); (c) follower job satisfaction: leader traits and behaviours explain 56% of variance (traits account for 2% and behaviours for 51%), and finally (d) satisfaction with leader: leader traits and behaviours explain 92% of variance (traits account for 6% and behaviours for 70%).

APPENDIX B - Sample Leadership Effectiveness Interview Protocol

PROJECT: EXPLORING COMPONENTS OF LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS	
Date _____ Time _____ Location _____	Interviewer _____ Interviewee _____
KEY TOPICS	NOTES TO INTERVIEWER
1. Thank you 2. Your name 3. Purpose of research 4. Duration	Thank you for your participation and for your time. My name is _____ and I'm a PhD Student at ISEG/UTL. I would like to talk to you about your understanding of leadership effectiveness given your experience as a corporate manager (MBA student). I believe your input will be valuable to this research and in helping improve our knowledge about this valuable topic for organizations. The interview should take around 60 minutes. I will be taping the session because I don't want to miss any of your comments, and I will take some notes as well.

UNDERSTANDING LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS IN ORGANIZATIONAL SETTINGS

5. Confidentiality 6. How the interview will be conducted 7. Opportunity for questions 8. Interviewee consent 9. Ask/Confirm respondents' personal information (name, age, gender, position in company, company's name and industry) for contextualize the answers. 10. Start the Interview Guide. 11. Closing Key Components (additional comments, next steps, thank you)	All responses will be kept confidential. This means that your interview responses will only be shared with my supervisor and we will ensure that any information we include in our report does not identify you as the respondent. You don't have to talk about anything you don't want to and you may end the interview at any time. Are there any questions about what I have just explained? Are you willing to participate in this interview? Please confirm your personal data. Is there anything you would like to add? I'll be analyzing the information you gave me and submitting a copy to review in one month. Thank you for your time.

UNDERSTANDING LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS IN ORGANIZATIONAL SETTINGS

12. After the interview, make notes about: a. How the interview went (emotions exhibited by the respondent). b. Where the interview took place. c. Any other feelings about the interview (did it open up new avenues of interest?) d. The setting (busy/quiet, other people in the vicinity, interruptions).	

APPENDIX C - Sample Leadership Effectiveness Interview Guide

1. MAIN CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE LEADERS Aims to explore the main characteristics that define effective leaders, such as traits, abilities, learning experiences, and self-regulatory mechanisms.	
SUGGESTED INTERVIEW QUESTIONS	INTERVIEWER NOTES
1. How do you define an effective leader? 2. What do you consider to be the top personal characteristics that define this person as an effective leader? 3. In your opinion, did this person exhibited emotional intelligence? In what way? 4. Do you think that learning experiences, such as critical life moments or inspirational role models were determinant to shape this person as an effective leader? Why? Do you recall any specific examples? 5. What do you consider to be the top personal values exhibited by this person in the workplace? 6. What do you consider to be the top skills exhibited by this person? 7. In your opinion, this person had strong beliefs in (his, her) capabilities and about what (he, she) could do to achieve (his/her) goals? Why? Examples?	
2. LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS AND PROCESSES Aims to explore the main factors that determine leadership effectiveness, such as leadership behaviors, and other processes.	
SUGGESTED INTERVIEW QUESTIONS	INTERVIEWER NOTES
1. In your opinion, what was the leadership style/behavior exhibited by this person? Did (he/she) change his style/behavior? 2. Did this person face any major challenges such as adaptation to a complex and turbulent context or had to implement a major organizational change? Please describe his behavior in this situation? 3. What type of relationship did this person had with (his/her) peers and/or group members?	

UNDERSTANDING LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS IN ORGANIZATIONAL SETTINGS

4. What type of actions/processes did this person use to improve overall organizational efficiency? 5. What other actions/processes did this person use to achieve the corporate goals? What were the most effective actions? 6. In your opinion, did this person influence (his/her) group members' positive/negative emotions? Please, describe how. 7. In your opinion, did this person affect the group members' identity (comprised of values and beliefs)? Please describe the process. 8. In your opinion, did this person affect (his/her) group members' and organizational collective belief?	

3. ORGANIZATIONAL CONTEXT Aims to explore the dynamics between context and leadership effectiveness, namely how each one interplays with the other.	
SUGGESTED INTERVIEW QUESTIONS	INTERVIEWER NOTES
1. Does the organizational context affect the leader's effectiveness and the desirable outcomes and performance? Please describe how. 2. Does an effective leader contribute to organizational change? Please describe how. 3. What type of leadership style is more effective in a crisis?	
4. LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS Aims to explore the measures that may be used to assess the leader's effectiveness.	
SUGGESTED INTERVIEW QUESTIONS	INTERVIEWER NOTES
1. In your opinion, what are the measures more suitable to assess a leader's effectiveness? Please give examples. 2. In your opinion, what are the measures more suitable to assess sustainable corporate performance? Please give examples.	

APPENDIX D – Definitions of the categories used in NVivo Codification Process

Category	Definition
Active Listening	Active listening is a structured way of listening and responding to others, focusing attention on the "function" of communicating objectively as opposed to focusing on "forms", passive expression or subjectivity, including "interpreting body language" or focusing on something other than or in addition to words. (Wikipedia, 2012)
Adaptive & Flexible (vs. Non-adaptive)	Given to the action or process of adapting. Of a person ready and able to change so as to adapt to different circumstances". (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Agreeable	"...is the tendency to be warm, gentle, caring, trusting and trustworthy" (Judge and Bono, 2000; Judge et al, 2002a).
Altruistic & Caring for Others (Self-transcendence)	Showing a disinterested and selfless concern for the well-being of others; unselfish. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012) Self-transcendence is related with the values of benevolence (concern for immediate others) and universalism (concern for the welfare of all people) (Schwartz, 1994).
Analytical Skills	"The ability to visualize, articulate, and solve both complex and uncomplicated problems and concepts and make decisions that are based on available information. Such skills include demonstration of the ability to apply logical thinking to gathering and analysing information, designing and testing solutions to problems, and formulating plan" (Heuer Jr., 1999).
Arrogant	Having or revealing an exaggerated sense of one's own importance or abilities. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Assertive	Having or showing a confident and forceful personality. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Authenticity	Can be defined as the persons' capacity to achieve high levels of self-awareness, to be true to their set of core values and beliefs, and act according with those values and beliefs, in a transparent way when interacting with others. (Avolio et al., 2004b)
Autocratic	Relating to a ruler who has absolute power, taking no account of other people's wishes or opinions; domineering. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012) "In the autocratic style, the leader takes decisions without consulting with others. An autocratic style works when there is no need for input on the decision, where the decision would not change as a result of input, and where the motivation of people to carry out subsequent actions would not be affected whether they were or were not involved in the decision-making" (Lewin et al., 1939).

Boldness	Of a person showing a willingness to take risks; confident and courageous. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Bring out the Follower's Potential	A leader who gets to know his followers, their past experiences and their interests, and their specific skills. Who nurture and develop talent in house, training them continuously, and have them train others. http://www.businessdictionary.com A leader's attempt to recognize, satisfy, expand and elevate the followers' current needs, in order to develop their full potential, providing empowerment for followers while turning them into potential leaders (Bass, 1985).
Business Skills	"...involves skills related to specific functional areas that create the context in which most leaders work, they involve management of material resources, operations analysis and management of personnel and financial resources of the organizational unit" (Mumford et al., 2007).
Calm down the Team	Make someone tranquil and quiet; soothe. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Challenge & Intellectual Stimulation	A task or situation that tests someone's abilities. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012) Considers the focus on the development of the followers' capacity to solve future problems, enhancing their creativity and innovation (Bass, 1985).
Change Agent	Someone who alters human capability or organizational systems to achieve a higher degree of output or self-actualization. Beginning with the end in mind, the goal of a change agent is obviously to make changes that stick. The result of change agent activity is to enable people to do more, or find a new and better perspective on life. Sometimes this latter idea is the foundation for future change which achieves outcomes that were previously not attainable. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Charismatic	Charisma is referred in the scholarly literature, according to Weber (1947) as ascribing a "certain quality of an individual personality by virtue of which he is set apart from ordinary men and treated as endowed with supernatural, superhuman, or at least specifically exceptional power or qualities." This term has been assigned mainly to political, religious and social leaders. More recently, charismatic attributes also invaded the business and organizational environment when referring to outstanding leaders, considering charismatic effects, characteristics and behaviours of charismatic leaders, and situational factors associated with the emergence and effectiveness of charismatic leaders in organizational settings (Conger and Kanungo, 1987; Fiol et al., 1999; Galvin et al., 2010; House, 1977, 1999; Jacobsen and House, 2001).
Choose the right Team Members	"For a team to be effective, you need the right team members. It's not how many people are on a team that makes it successful; you need people who work well together. They must share common goals, vision, agendas and timelines. If they don't share these

	things, it'll be extremely difficult for them to move forward and accomplish anything - no matter how many people are on the team" (Yen, 2006).
Collaborative & Participative	"Collaboration is a purposeful relationship in which all parties strategically choose to cooperate in order to accomplish a shared outcome" (Rubin, 2009). "The leader makes maximum use of participative methods, engaging people lower down the organization in decision-making. People across the organization are psychologically closer together and work well together at all levels" (Likert, 1967).
Communication Skills	Effective communication occurs when a desired effect is the result of intentional or unintentional information sharing, which is interpreted between multiple entities and acted on in a desired way. This effect also ensures the message is not distorted during the communication process. Effective communication should generate the desired effect and maintain the effect, with the potential to increase the effect of the message. Therefore, effective communication serves the purpose for which it was planned or designed. Possible purposes might be to elicit change, generate action, create understanding, inform or communicate a certain idea or point of view. (Wikipedia, 2012)
Compliant	Inclined to agree with others or obey rules; meeting or in accordance with rules or standards. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Conceptual skills	"...gather, integrate, and interpret enormous amounts of information" (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991; Locke, 1991).
Consistent	Of a person unchanging in achievement or effect over a period of time. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Constructive Feedback	"It helps in solving the problems without offending the other person, changes behaviour towards positivity, encourages and supports development, suggests corrective measures, provides meaningful direction on the basis of logic and has the potential to turn criticism into something constructive" (Hamid and Mahmood, 2010).
Creative Thinking & Innovation	The use of imagination or original ideas to create something. Make changes in something established, especially by introducing new methods, ideas, or products. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Credibility	The quality of being trusted and believed in. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Cultural-awareness	Someone's cultural awareness is their understanding of the differences between themselves and people from other countries or other backgrounds, especially differences in attitudes and values. (English Collins Dictionary, 2012)
Customer-oriented	A group of actions taken by a business to support its sales and service staff in considering client needs and satisfaction their major priorities. (http://www.businessdictionary.com)
Decision-making	The action or process of making decisions, especially important ones. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)

Demanding	Of a person making others work hard or meet high standards. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Democratic	“In the democratic style, the leader involves the people in the decision-making, although the process for the final decision may vary from the leader having the final say to them facilitating consensus in the group. Democratic decision-making is usually appreciated by the people, especially if they have been used to autocratic decisions with which they disagreed. It can be problematic when there are a wide range of opinions and there is no clear way of reaching an equitable final decision” (Lewin et al., 1939).
Determined	Having made a firm decision and being resolved not to change it. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Developer, Coach & Mentor	A person that develops others. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012) Refers to bringing about an improvement in the overall personality of an individual for a better outcome professionally. (http://encyclopedia.thefreedictionary.com) A trusted friend, counsellor or teacher, usually a more experienced person that provide expertise to less experienced individuals to help them advance their careers, enhance their education, and build their networks. (http://encyclopedia.thefreedictionary.com)
Dignity	The state or quality of being worthy of honour or respect. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Directive	An instructional type of managerial style characterized by a leader who tells subordinate staff what they are expected to do and how to perform the expected tasks. A directive leadership style might be helpful for a manager within a business where their subordinate staff members have jobs that are not particularly specialized and so they need more guidance to avoid uncertainty. (http://www.businessdictionary.com)
Directness	Straightforward; frank; candid. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Diversity, Inclusion & Complementarity	“Diversity means all the ways we differ. Some of these differences we are born with and cannot change. Anything that makes us unique is part of this definition of diversity” (Jordan, 2011). “Inclusion involves bringing together and harnessing these diverse forces and resources, in a way that is beneficial. Inclusion puts the concept and practice of diversity into action by creating an environment of involvement, respect, and connection—where the richness of ideas, backgrounds, and perspectives are harnessed to create business value. Organizations need both diversity and inclusion to be successful” (Jordan, 2011). A group of people with a full set of complementary skills required to complete a task, job, or project. Team members (1) operate with a high degree of interdependence, (2) share authority and responsibility for self-management, (3) are accountable for the collective performance, and (4) work toward a common goal and shared rewards(s). A team becomes more than just a

	collection of people when a strong sense of mutual commitment creates synergy, thus generating performance greater than the sum of the performance of its individual members. (http://www.businessdictionary.com)
Efficiency-oriented	The comparison of what is actually produced or performed with what can be achieved with the same consumption of resources (money, time, labor, etc.). It is an important factor in determination of productivity. (http://www.businessdictionary.com)
Emotional Contagion & Positive Arousal	Leadership is intrinsically an emotional process, where leaders display emotion, and attempt to evoke emotion in their members to generate excitement, enthusiasm, confidence, and optimism that enables organizational learning and transformation (e.g., Dasborough and Ashkanasy, 2002; Fredrickson, 2003; George, 2000).
Emotional Control & Emotional Stability	See Neuroticism.
Emotional Intelligence	For Mayer et al. (2008) emotional intelligence involves the ability to carry out accurate reasoning about emotions and the ability to use emotions and emotional knowledge to enhance thought. For Mayer and Salovey (1997), there are four main components of emotional intelligence: (1) perception of emotion (in self and others); (2) assimilation of emotion to facilitate thought; (3) understanding of emotion; and (4) managing and regulating emotion in self and others.
Empathy	“The ability to comprehend another’s feelings and to re-experience them oneself” (Salovey and Mayer, 1990).
Empowerment	“Involve the process of entrusting others (give the power and authority) through a “pull” style of influence by attracting and energizing people, motivating them by identification with the leaders’ behaviour” (Bennis and Nanus, 1997).
Extrovert (vs. Introvert)	“...represents the tendency to be sociable, assertive, active, and to experience excitement and positive emotions” (Judge and Bono, 2000; Judge et al., 2002a).
Fairness	Treating people equally without favouritism or discrimination. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Family-person	A person with a long-term partner and children, especially one who enjoys home life. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Focused	Directing a great deal of attention, interest, or activity towards a particular aim. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Goal-orientation	Is a “disposition toward developing or demonstrating ability in achievement situations” (VandeWalle, 1997).
Good Mood	The way you are feeling at a particular time, particularly happy and friendly. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Guidance &	Advice or information aimed at resolving a problem or difficulty, especially as given by someone in authority.

Supportive	Providing encouragement or emotional help. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
High-proximity Relationship (vs. Low-proximity Relationship)	“Several conceptualizations inferring closeness include “country club” managerial style (i.e., , high concern-for-people leaders), describing leaders as being friendly, informal, sociable, promoting togetherness, and reducing status differentials with followers. Also, a leader’s consideration implied that a leader was intimate and close to followers” (Blake and Mouton, 1964; Bass, 1998).
High-quality Exchange Relationships (vs. Low-quality Exchange Relationships)	“Relationships develop across a continuum ranging from low-quality exchange relationships, known as “out-group” relationships, to high-quality exchange relationships, known as “in-group” relationships. Out-group members experience a more formal exchange with their leader and perform more routine job functions while in-group members receive more attention and support from their leaders, resulting in subordinate contributions beyond their formal job duties” (Liden and Graen, 1980).
Honesty	The quality of being honest, always telling the truth, and never stealing or cheating an honest man/woman. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Human Response	An answer showing the better qualities of humankind, such as kindness. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Humility	The quality of having a modest or low view of one’s importance. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Identification Process	“Leaders affect the identities of followers in such a way, that they incorporate the role of the leader into their interpersonal identities, and hence follower identification process emerges when individuals become followers of a leader” (Day, 2000; Gardner and Avolio, 1998; Lord and Brown, 2001).
Identity Salience	“The most influential member in the group emerges or endures as a leader” (Hogg, 2001).
Impatient	Having or showing a tendency to be quickly irritated or provoked. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Individual Focus	“Represents the leader’s attempt to recognize, satisfy, expand and elevate the followers’ current needs, in order to develop their full potential, providing empowerment for followers while turning them into potential leaders” (Bass, 1985).
Initiative	The ability to decide and act on your own without waiting for somebody to tell you what to do. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Insightful	Having or showing an accurate and deep understanding; perceptive. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Inspirational	Providing or showing creative or spiritual inspiration. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Integrity & Ethical Behaviour	Integrity is the absence of unethical behaviour (Craig and Gustafson, 1998).

Intelligence or General Mental Ability	The psychological construct of general mental ability, general cognitive ability, or general intelligence, introduced by Spearman (1904), refers to a general descriptive term including a hierarchy of mental abilities ranging from basic abilities such as verbal recognition and spatial understanding to a broader group of abilities like verbal-comprehension intelligence and perceptual-organizational intelligence, and finally at the highest level of the hierarchy, general intelligence involves abstract reasoning across all such domains (Mayer et al., 2008).
Intuitive	Using or based on what one feels to be true even without conscious reasoning. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Know the Team Well	Be well aware of the team through observation, inquiry, or information. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Lead the way & Make People Willing to Follow	To show a course or route by going in advance. The quality or state of being prepared to do something; readiness. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Learning Process	“Learning is acquiring new, or modifying existing, knowledge, behaviours, skills, values, or preferences and may involve synthesizing different types of information. Learning is not compulsory; it is contextual. It does not happen all at once, but builds upon and is shaped by what we already know. To that end, learning may be viewed as a process, rather than a collection of factual and procedural knowledge. Learning is based on experience. Learning produces changes in the organism and the changes produced are relatively permanent” (Schacter et al., 2011).
Love the Job	To have an intense emotional attachment to their job. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Loyalty	Giving or showing firm and constant support or allegiance to a person or institution. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Make it happen	Do all that is necessary to obtain the desired results. (http://www.dictionar.babylon.com)
Commitment & Deliver	The state or quality of being dedicated to a cause, activity, etc. Provide something promised or expected. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Make People Believe it's Possible (Collective Efficacy)	“Collective efficacy is defined as a group's shared belief in its conjoint capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce specific levels of accomplishments” (Bandura, 1997).
Make People leave their Comfort Zone	Encouraging people to work outside their comfort zone (a situation or position in which a person feels secure, comfortable, or in control). (http://www.thefreedictionary.com)
Make People think Outside the Box	Thinking outside the box (also thinking out of the box or thinking beyond the box) is to think differently, unconventionally, or from a new perspective. This phrase often refers to novel or creative thinking. The term is thought to derive from management

	consultants in the 1970s and 1980s challenging their clients to solve the "nine dots" puzzle, whose solution requires some lateral thinking. (Wikipedia, 2012).
Material Awards	A prize such as money for something that somebody has done. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Metrics of Performance	Standards of measurement by which, performance, progress, or quality of a plan, process, or product can be assessed. (http://www.businessdictionary.com)
Mission-oriented	A particular work that you feel it is your duty to do. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Motivate others	Cause someone to have interest in or enthusiasm for something. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Negotiation Skills	The ability to develop a dialogue intended to resolve disputes, to produce an agreement upon courses of action, to bargain for individual or collective advantage, or to craft outcomes to satisfy various interests. It is the primary method of alternative dispute resolution. (http://encyclopedia.thefreedictionary.com)
Network building	“Leaders learn to manage and develop networks and serve as catalysts for network-building as well to ensure the generation of effective work relationships which are associated with organizational outcomes” (Marion and Uhl-Bien, 2001).
Neuroticism (vs. Emotional Control)	“...represents the tendency to exhibit poor emotional adjustment and experience negative emotions, like anxiety, fear, and depression” (Judge and Bono, 2000; Judge et al., 2002).
Observer	One who watches and takes notice. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Open & Transparent	Not keeping thoughts and feelings hidden. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Openness to Experience (Open to New Ideas)	“...is the disposition to be creative, imaginative, thoughtful, nonconforming and autonomous” (Judge and Bono, 2000; Judge et al., 2002a).
People feel Valued & Fulfilled	People feel useful or important; people feel happy, and satisfied because are doing something useful with their life. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
People Training	The term training refers to the acquisition of knowledge, skills, and competencies as a result of the teaching of vocational or practical skills and knowledge that relate to specific useful competencies. (http://encyclopedia.thefreedictionary.com)
People-focus	Involves a higher concern for people because the primary focus of the leader is upon his or her followers (Stone and Russell, 2004). For example, the servant leader is one who focuses on his or her followers. Servant leaders do not have particular affinity for the abstract corporation or organization; rather, they value the people who constitute the organization. This is an unconditional concern for the well-being of those who form the entity. Servant leader’s first responsibilities are relationships and people, and those relationships take precedence over the task and product (Lubin, 2001).

Persistent	Determined to do something despite difficulties, especially when other people are against you and think that you are being annoying or unreasonable. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Personal History	Personal history of the leader include critical elements such as one's family and role models, early life challenges, educational and work experiences, culture and contextual influences, and leadership experiences (Gardner et al., 2005).
Political Skills	"...the ability to effectively understand others at work, and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways, that enhance one's personal and/or organizational objectives" (Ferris et al., 2005). "Politically skilled individuals combine social astuteness, with the capacity to adjust their behaviour to different and changing situational demands in a manner that appears sincere, inspires support and trust, and effectively influences and controls the responses of others" (Liu et al., 2007).
Positive Attitude	An attitude is defined as a mental position with regard to a fact or state; a feeling or emotion toward a fact or state. The dictionary goes on to state that the word "positive" can be used as "having a good effect; favourable; marked by optimism. When you demonstrate a positive attitude, therefore, you are optimistic and expect favourable outcomes. http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary
Pragmatic	Solving problems in a practical and sensible way rather than by having fixed ideas or theories. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Praise, Recognition & Rewards	Provide appraisal if the task is successfully accomplished, there's a material or psychological award (Blanchard and Johnson, 1982). People have a personal feeling of accomplishment and are rewarded with recognition, money, and promotions (Locke, 1991).
Problem-solver	A thinker who focuses on the problem as stated and tries to synthesize information and knowledge to achieve a solution. http://dictionary.babylon.com
Rational	A person able to think clearly and make decisions based on reason rather than emotions. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Resilient	A person able to feel better quickly after something unpleasant such as shock, injury, etc. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Respect for Others	A feeling of admiration for somebody because of their good qualities or achievements. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Respected	Honoured, admired, esteemed, hold in high regard. http://dictionary.babylon.com
Result-oriented	"The result-oriented management system aims to achieve maximum results based on clear and measurable agreements made upfront. The manager sets goals and determines priorities and makes resources available that are needed: time, money, and capacity. The employee provides his time, knowledge and abilities and indicates under which conditions he can deliver the required results. In doing so, he takes the personal responsibility for achieving those results" (Schouten and van Beers, 2009).

Rigorous & Discipline	Demanding that particular rules, processes, etc. are strictly followed. The ability to control your behaviour or the way you live, work, etc. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Role Model	An individual who is looked up to and revered by someone else. A role model is someone who other individuals aspire to be like, either in the present or in the future. A role model may be someone who you know and interact with on a regular basis, or may be someone who you've never met, such as a celebrity. (http://www.businessdictionary.com)
Self-awareness	Knowledge and understanding of your own character. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Self-centred	Tending to think only about yourself and not thinking about the needs or feelings of other people. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012) “...pursuit of personal success” (Schwartz, 1994).
Self-confidence & Self-efficacy	A feeling of trust in one’s abilities, qualities, and judgement. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012) “People’s beliefs in their efficacy influence the choices they make, their aspirations, the effort they put in a certain course of action, and their perseverance in facing obstacles” (Bandura, 1991). For Bandura and Locke (2003), efficacy beliefs affect whether individuals think in self-enhancing or self-debilitating ways, their own motivation and perseverance when facing obstacles, their well-being and vulnerability to stress and depression, and the choices made at important decision points.
Seriousness	The state of being serious, thinking about things in a careful and sensible way. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Shape Followers	“Leadership aligns incentives ... provides the learning environment that enables individuals to transform or revise beliefs, and plays a major role in inducing preferences” (Levi, 2006).
Shared Vision	“The vision process is not complete until all the stakeholders (employees, customers, suppliers, partners, government) understand where the organization is headed, and have a high degree of shared commitment to the vision” (Nanus, 1992).
Sincerity	Showing what you really think or feel. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Social Impact	Latane (1981) described social impact as a phenomenon in which people affect one another in social situations.
Social Influence	“The ability to change behaviour in order to obtain cooperation from followers with the purpose of achieving personal and professional goals” (Pfeffer, 1992).
Social Intelligence	Social intelligence according to the original definition of Edward Thorndike (1920) is "the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls, to act wisely in human relations". Psychologist and professor at the London School of Economics Nicholas Humphrey believes it is social intelligence or the richness of our qualitative life, rather than our quantitative

	intelligence, that truly makes humans what they are – for example what it's like to be a human being living at the centre of the conscious present, surrounded by smells and tastes and feels and the sense of being an extraordinary metaphysical entity with properties which hardly seem to belong to the physical world. Social scientist Ross Honeywill believes social intelligence is an aggregated measure of self and social awareness, evolved social beliefs and attitudes, and a capacity and appetite to manage complex social change. (Wikipedia, 2012)
Social Responsibility Orientation	Social responsibility is commonly mentioned in the literature as a set of actions initiated in the organization that appear to contribute to the promotion of social good, advancing the goals of key stakeholder groups beyond compliance with existing rules and regulations (e.g., McWilliams and Siegel 2000, 2001, Waldman and Siegel 2008, Waldman et al. 2006).
Social Skills	“...related to interacting with and influencing others, social capacities, social judgment, social complexity and differentiation and human relations skills, also includes skills required for coordination of actions of oneself and other, and negotiation skills to reconcile differences among employee perspective and establish mutually satisfying relationships, and persuasion skills to influence others to accomplish organizational goals” (Mumford et al., 2007).
Soft Skills	Soft Skills are behavioural competencies. Also, known as interpersonal skills, or people skills, they include proficiencies such as communication skills, conflict resolution and negotiation, personal effectiveness, creative problem solving, strategic thinking, team building, influencing skills and selling skills, to name a few. (Wikipedia, 2012)
Stick to the Vision	To hold firmly to the corporation's vision. (http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary)
Storytelling	“Life stories approach provide insight into the meanings leaders' attach to life events and to develop themselves over time through reflection. As such, leader's life story reflects: (1) the degree of self-knowledge, (2) self-concept clarity, (3) person-role merger that he experiences, and (4) provides followers with cues for assessing leader authenticity” (Avolio and Gardner, 2005).
Strategic Alignment	The process of bringing the actions of an organization's business divisions and staff members into line with the organization's planned objectives. The ability of most businesses to achieve their strategic goals will benefit from performing a comprehensive strategic alignment to help assure that its divisions and employees are jointly working toward the company's stated goals. (http://www.businessdictionary.com)
Strategic Implementation	The activity performed according to a plan in order to achieve an overall goal. For example, strategic implementation within a business context might involve developing and then executing a

	new marketing plan to help increase sales of the company's products to consumers. (http://www.businessdictionary.com)
Strategic Skills	“...highly conceptual skills needed to take a systems perspective to understand complexity, deal with ambiguity, and to effect influence in the organization, they include skills of visioning, systems perceptions, scanning skills, the creation of a causal map that allows leaders to recognize relationships among problems and opportunities and then choose appropriate strategies to deal with them, also solution appraisal and objective evaluation skills” (Mumford et al., 2007).
Strategic Vision	Ideas for the direction and activities of business development. Generally included in a document or statement so all company managers can share the same vision for the company and make decisions according to the shared principles and company mission. (http://www.businessdictionary.com)
Sustainability Orientation	Ability to maintain or support an activity or process over the long term. (http://www.businessdictionary.com)
Teamwork Orientation	The process of working collaboratively with a group of people in order to achieve a goal. Teamwork is often a crucial part of a business, as it is often necessary for colleagues to work well together, trying their best in any circumstance. Teamwork means that people will try to cooperate, using their individual skills and providing constructive feedback, despite any personal conflict between individuals. (http://www.businessdictionary.com)
Time Management	Systematic, priority-based structuring of time allocation and distribution among competing demands. Since time cannot be stored, and its availability can neither be increased beyond nor decreased from the 24 hours, the term 'time budgeting' is said to be the more appropriate one. (http://www.businessdictionary.com)
Tolerant	Ability to accept what other people say or do even if you do not agree with it. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Trust & Trustworthy	Trust in somebody is the belief that somebody is good, sincere, honest, etc., and will not try to harm or trick you. That you can rely on to be good, honest, sincere, etc. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Urgency	That needs to be dealt with or happen immediately. (Oxford Dictionary, 2012)
Values	For Rokeach (1973), values and value systems are fundamental in determining an individual's character and can be defined as a belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally and socially preferable to alternative modes of conduct or end-states of existence. More recently, Schwartz (1994) defined these human values as trans-situational varying in

	importance and serving as guiding principles in the life of a person or group.
Vision Communication	Articulate the vision of the organization in a convincing and inspiring way (Bass, 1990; Hackman and Johnson, 1996; Melrose, 1997; Neuschel, 1998).

APPENDIX E – Provisory Coding List based on the Literature Review

Personality Traits	Leadership Traits	Cognitive Abilities	Emotional Intelligence	Personal History
Surgency or Extraversion Agreeableness Conscientiousness Emotional Stability Openness to Experience	Drive Motivation Honesty & Integrity Self-confidence Knowledge of business	Verbal recognition Spatial understanding Verbal-comprehension intelligence Perceptual-organizational intelligence Abstract reasoning Conceptually skilled Reason Inductively Reason deductively Crystallized cognitive abilities Fluid abilities Divergent thinking ability Problem-solver Creative	Perception of emotions Assimilation of emotions to facilitate thought Understanding of emotions Managing & regulating emotions in self and others Empathy	Self-awareness Authenticity Self-identity Self-concept of a leader Leaders story

UNDERSTANDING LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS IN ORGANIZATIONAL SETTINGS

Personal Values	Leadership Skills	Self-regulation	Change Behaviours	Relational Behaviours
• Achievement • Power • Hedonism • Benevolence • Universalism • Honesty & Integrity • Self-enhancement • Self-transcendence • Truth-telling • Transparency • Promise-keeping • Fairness • Respect for the individual	• Cognitive skills • Interpersonal & Social skills • Business skills • Strategic skills • Political skills • Communication skills • Complex problem-solving skills • Solution construction skills • Social judgment skills	• Self-appraisal • Self-efficacy • Goal-oriented • Self-leadership • Self-motivation • Self-direction	• Strategic vision • Mission • Shared or collective vision • Group goals • Alignment • Charismatic • Transformational • Vision communication • Vision implementation • Creative thinking & innovation • Communicate effectively the vision	• Empowerment • Interpersonal influence • Trust • Accountability • Teamwork • Individual focus • Intellectual stimulation • Rewarding • Network building • High-quality relationships • Develop leaders

UNDERSTANDING LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS IN ORGANIZATIONAL SETTINGS

Task Behaviors	Affection	Social Identification	Collective Efficacy	Organizational Context
• Transactional • Expectations & standards of performance • Defining goals • Appraisal • New goal/goal revision • Reinforcement effort • Feedback • Praise & Recognition • Material Awards • Other Awards	• Management of emotions • Display emotions • Trust • Affective commitment • Emotional contagion • Collective emotional state • Negative moods • Positive moods • Positive arousal (optimism) • Low arousal (frustration)	• Social Identity (sense of belongingness with the group) • Group identification • In-group prototypes • Out-group prototypes • Social attraction • Identity salience • Influence • Attribution • Trust • Identification process • Organizational identification	• Leadership efficacy influential process • Leader self-efficacy (leader's sense of efficacy) • Follower self-efficacy (follower's sense of efficacy) • Learning efficacy • Collective efficacy • Role model	• Portuguese company • Multinational company (country of origin) • Industry • Large company • SME

Organizational Culture	National Culture	Environment	Leadership Effectiveness	Leadership Effectiveness Measures
• Adaptive culture • Non-adaptive culture • Integration culture • Dynamic process • Impact of leaders • Effect on leadership	• Individual autonomy • Team oriented, participative	• Volatility • Complexity • Crisis & change	• Direction • Goal • Influence • Performance • Sustainability	• Performance Criteria • Relational Criteria • Organizational change criteria

APPENDIX F – “In-vivo” Coding List

Traits	Skills	People Orientation
Agreeable	Active Listening	Bring out the Follower's Potential
Altruistic & Caring for Others	Analytical Skills	Calm Down the Team
Arrogant	Business Skills	Choose the Right Team Members
Assertive	Communication Skills	Collaborative & Participative
Authenticity	Conceptual Skills	Constructive Feedback
Autocratic	Cultural-awareness	Developer, Coach & Mentor
Boldness	Negotiation Skills	Diversity, Inclusion & Complementarity
Charismatic	Political Skills	Emotional Contagion & Positive Arousal
Compliant	Problem-solver	Empowerment
Consistent	Social Skills	Guidance & Supportive
Credibility	Soft Skills	High-proximity Relationship
Demanding	Strategic Skills	High-quality Exchange Relationship
Democratic		Identification Process
Determined		Individual Focus
Dignity		Know the Team Well
Directive		Lead the Way & Make People Willing to Follow
Directness		Low-proximity Relationship
Emotional Control & Emotional Stability		Make People Believe it's Possible (collective efficacy)
Emotional Intelligence		Make People leave their Comfort Zone
Empathy		Make People see Outside the Box
Extrovert		Motivate Others
Fairness		Networking Building
Family-orientation		People feel Valued & Fulfilled
Good Mood		People Training
Honesty		Praise, Recognition & Rewards
Humility		Respect for Others
Identity Salience		Role Model
Impatient		Shape Followers
Initiative		Social Impact
Insightful		Teamwork Orientation
Inspirational		
Integrity & Ethical Behavior		
Intelligence		
Introvert		
Intuitive		
Love the Job		
Loyalty		
Observer		
Open & Transparent		
Open to New Ideas		
Persistent		
Personal History		
Positive Attitude		

Pragmatic Rational Resilient Respected Rigorous & Discipline Self-awareness Self-centered Self-centered & Caring for others Self-confidence & Self-efficacy Seriousness Sincerity Social Influence Social Intelligence Storytelling Tolerant Trust & Trustworthy Urgency Values		

Business Orientation	Change Orientation	Context Orientation
Customer-oriented Efficiency-orientated Goal-orientated Learning Process Make it happen, Commitment & Deliver Material Awards Metrics of Performance Mission-oriented Results-oriented Shared Vision Stick to the Vision Strategic Implementation Strategic Vision Time Management Vision Communication	Challenge & Intellectual Stimulation Change Agent Creative Thinking & Innovation Decision-making Focused Humanistic Approach People-focus Social Responsibility Orientation Strategic Alignment Sustainability Orientation	Adaptive & Flexible Non-adaptive

APPENDIX G - Frequencies of all Manifest-Content Categories

Corporate Managers (n=20)			
Categories for Effective Leadership		Frequencies	
		N	%
1.	Communication Skills	19	95%
2.	High Relationship Proximity	18	90%
3.	Trust & Trustworthy	18	90%
4.	Strategic Vision	17	85%
5.	Emotional Control & Emotional Stability	17	85%
6.	Develop, Coach & Mentor	16	80%
7.	Collaborative & Participative	16	80%
8.	Active Listening	16	80%
9.	Intelligence	16	80%
10.	Self-Confidence and Strong Belief in their own Capabilities	16	80%
11.	Goal-Oriented	15	75%
12.	Adaptive & Flexible	15	75%
13.	Emotional Contagion & Positive Arousal	15	75%
14.	Integrity & Ethical Behavior	15	75%
15.	Empowering	14	70%
16.	Social Skills	14	70%
17.	Strategic Implementation	13	65%
18.	Results-Oriented	13	65%
19.	Decision-Making	13	65%
20.	Role Model	13	65%
21.	Make People Believe it's Possible	13	65%
22.	Strategic Skills	13	65%
23.	Altruistic & Caring for Others	13	65%
24.	Efficiency-Oriented	12	60%
25.	Guidance & Supportive	12	60%
26.	Emotional Intelligence	12	60%
27.	Open & Transparent	12	60%
28.	Vision Communication	11	55%
29.	Challenge & Stimulate the Team	11	55%
30.	Strategic Alignment	11	55%
31.	Motivating the Team	11	55%
32.	People Focus	10	50%
33.	Focused	10	50%
34.	Sustainability Orientation	10	50%
35.	Praise, Recognition & Awards	10	50%
36.	Business Skills	10	50%
37.	Values	10	50%
38.	Creative Thinking & Innovation	9	45%
39.	Calm Down the Team	9	45%
40.	Diversity, Inclusion & Complementarity	9	45%
41.	Introvert	9	45%
42.	Agreeable	9	45%

UNDERSTANDING LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS IN ORGANIZATIONAL SETTINGS

43.	Make it happen, Commitment & Deliver	8	40%
44.	Change Agent	8	40%
45.	Choose the Right Team Members	8	40%
46.	Bring out the Follower's Potential	8	40%
47.	Respect for Others	8	40%
48.	People Training	8	40%
49.	Lead the Way & Make People Willing to Follow	8	40%
50.	Analytical Skills	8	40%
51.	Inspirational	8	40%
52.	Learning Process	7	35%
53.	Demanding	7	35%
54.	Open to New Ideas	7	35%
55.	Self-centered	7	35%
56.	Good Mood	7	35%
57.	Social Influence	7	35%
58.	Positive Attitude	7	35%
59.	Directive	7	35%
60.	Customer-oriented	6	30%
61.	Teamwork Orientation	6	30%
62.	Negotiation Skills	6	30%
63.	Problem-solver	6	30%
64.	Assertive	6	30%
65.	Rigorous & Discipline	6	30%
66.	Honesty	6	30%
67.	Loyalty	6	30%
68.	Extrovert	6	30%
69.	Stick to the Vision	5	25%
70.	Constructive Feedback	5	25%
71.	Low-proximity Relationship	5	25%
72.	High-quality Exchange Relationship	5	25%
73.	People feel Valued & Fulfilled	5	25%
74.	Make People leave their Comfort Zone	5	25%
75.	Conceptual Skills	5	25%
76.	Authenticity	5	25%
77.	Boldness	5	25%
78.	Rational	5	25%
79.	Directness	5	25%
80.	Identity Salience	5	25%
81.	Empathy	5	25%
82.	Fairness	5	25%
83.	Respected	5	25%
84.	Credibility	5	25%
85.	Pragmatic	5	25%
86.	Metrics of Performance	4	20%
87.	Mission-oriented	4	20%
88.	Shared Vision	4	20%

UNDERSTANDING LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS IN ORGANIZATIONAL SETTINGS

89.	Human response	4	20%
90.	Identification Process	4	20%
91.	Networking Building	4	20%
92.	Make People see Outside the Box	4	20%
93.	Soft Skills	4	20%
94.	Observer	4	20%
95.	Insightful	4	20%
96.	Humility	4	20%
97.	Consistent	4	20%
98.	Determined	4	20%
99.	Material Awards	3	15%
100.	Social Responsibility Orientation	3	15%
101.	Shape Followers	3	15%
102.	Charismatic	3	15%
103.	Autocratic	3	15%
104.	Love the Job	3	15%
105.	Persistent	3	15%
106.	Self-awareness	3	15%
107.	Time Management	2	10%
108.	Individual Focus	2	10%
109.	Know the Team Well	2	10%
110.	Social Impact	2	10%
111.	Political Skills	2	10%
112.	Cultural-awareness	2	10%
113.	Impatient	2	10%
114.	Resilient	2	10%
115.	Self-centered & Caring for others	2	10%
116.	Social Intelligence	2	10%
117.	Intuitive	2	10%
118.	Urgency	2	10%
119.	Family-person	2	10%
120.	Non-adaptive	1	5%
121.	Storytelling	1	5%
122.	Democratic	1	5%
123.	Arrogant	1	5%
124.	Compliant	1	5%
125.	Dignity	1	5%
126.	Initiative	1	5%
127.	Personal History	1	5%
128.	Seriousness	1	5%
129.	Sincerity	1	5%
130.	Tolerant	1	5%

APPENDIX H - Sample Effective Leadership Questionnaire – Leader Form

A. Personality Scale

Please use the rating scale below to describe how accurately each statement describes you. Describe yourself as you generally are now, not as you wish to be in the future. Describe yourself as you honestly see yourself in relation to other people you know of the same sex as you are, and roughly your same age. Please read each statement carefully, and then select the number that corresponds to the answer.

1	2	3	4	5
Very Inaccurate	Moderately Inaccurate	Neither Inaccurate Nor Accurate	Moderately Accurate	Very Accurate

1. Am the life of the party.
2. Sympathize with others' feelings.
3. Get chores done right away.
4. Have frequent mood swings.
5. Have a vivid imagination.
6. Don't talk a lot.
7. Am not interested in other people's problems.
8. Often forget to put things back in their proper place.
9. Am relaxed most of the time.
10. Am not interested in abstract ideas.
11. Talk to a lot of different people at parties.
12. Feel others' emotions.
13. Like order.
14. Get upset easily.

15. Have difficulty understanding abstract ideas.
16. Keep in the background.
17. Am not really interested in others.
18. Make a mess of things.
19. Seldom feel blue.
20. Do not have a good imagination.

B. Communication Competence Scale

Please describe how you communicate. Think about your behavior in general, rather than about a specific situation. Please indicate your response by writing the number that best describes how you feel about the statement.

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

1. I have a good command of the language.
2. I pay attention to my unexpressed feelings.
3. I'm sensitive to others' needs of the moment.
4. I tend to listen to others seriously.
5. I typically get right to the point.
6. I give others a brief summary of what they have said.
7. I pay attention to what others say to me.
8. I listen to other people trying to put myself in their shoes.
9. I deal with others effectively.
10. I give others a chance, when they are hesitating.
11. I'm a good listener.

12. I'm difficult to understand when communicating in written form.
13. I listen to others calmly, while they are speaking.
14. I express my ideas clearly.
15. I'm pleased when giving others some advice.
16. I'm difficult to understand when I speak to others.
17. I pay attention to the changes in others feelings.
18. I generally say the right thing at the right time.
19. I'm easy to talk to.
20. I usually respond to messages (memos, phone calls, reports, etc.) quickly.

C. Goal Orientation Scale

Please describe how you are oriented to goals. Think about your behavior in general, rather than about a specific situation. Please indicate your response by writing the number that best describes how you feel about the statement.

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

1. I am willing to select a challenging work assignment that I can learn a lot from.
2. I often look for opportunities to develop new skills and knowledge.
3. I enjoy challenging and difficult tasks at work where I'll learn new skills.
4. For me, development of my work ability is important enough to take risks.
5. I prefer to work in situations that require a high level of ability and talent.
6. I'm concerned with showing that I can perform better than my coworkers.
7. I try to figure out what it takes to prove my ability to others at work.
8. I enjoy it when others at work are aware of how well I am doing.

9. I prefer to work on projects where I can prove my ability to others.
10. I would avoid taking on a new task if there was a chance that I would appear rather incompetent to others.
11. Avoiding a show of low ability is more important to me than learning a new skill.
12. I'm concerned about taking on a task at work if my performance would reveal that I had low ability.
13. I prefer to avoid situations at work where I might perform poorly.

D. Self-monitoring Scale

Please describe how you adapt to different situations. Think about your behavior in general, rather than about a specific situation. Please indicate your response by writing the number that best describes how you feel about the statement.

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

1. In social situations, I have the ability to alter my behavior if I feel that something else is called for.
2. I have the ability to control the way I come across to people, depending on the impression I wish to give them.
3. When I feel that the image I am portraying isn't working, I can readily change it to something that does.
4. I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.
5. I have found that I can adjust my behavior to meet the requirements of any situation I find myself in.
6. Even when it might be to my advantage, I have difficulty putting up a good front.

7. Once I know what the situation calls for, it's easy for me to regulate my actions accordingly.
8. I am often able to read people's true emotions correctly through their eyes.
9. In conversations, I am sensitive to even the slightest change in the facial expression of the person I'm conversing with.
10. My powers of intuition are quite good when it comes to understanding others' emotions and motives.
11. I can usually tell when others consider a joke to be in bad taste, even though they may laugh convincingly.
12. I can usually tell when I've said something inappropriate by reading it in the listener's eyes.
13. If someone is lying to me, I usually know it at once from the person's manner of expression.

E. Relationship Proximity

Please describe how is your relationship with your team members. Think about your behavior in general, rather than about a specific situation. Please indicate your response by writing the number that best describes how you feel about the statement.

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

1. I understand my team members' problems and needs.
2. I would defend my team members if they were not present to do so.
3. My working relationship with my team members is effective.

4. I believe my team members have the potential to perform effectively.
5. I would be personally inclined to help my team members solve problems in their work.
6. My team members and I are well suited to each other.
7. I consider my team members' suggestions for change.

F. Leadership Self-Efficacy

Please describe how you feel about your self-confidence. Think about your behavior in general, rather than about a specific situation. Please indicate your response by writing the number that best describes how you feel about the statement.

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

1. I am not confident that I can lead others effectively.
2. Leading others effectively is probably something I will be good at.
3. I believe that leading others effectively is a skill that I can master.
4. I do not expect to become very effective at leading.
5. I feel confident that I can be an effective leader in most of the groups that I work with.
6. It probably will not be possible for me to lead others as effectively as I would like.

G. Coaching Behavior

Please describe how often you perform actions like the ones state below. Please indicate your response by writing the number that best describes how you feel about the statement.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Very Seldom	Neutral	Very Often	Almost Always

1. I use analogies, scenarios, and examples to help my employees learn.
2. I encourage my employees to broaden their perspectives by helping them to see the big picture.
3. I provide constructive feedback to my employees.
4. I solicit feedback from my employees to ensure that my interactions are helpful to them.
5. I provide my employees with resources so they can perform their jobs more effectively.
6. To help my employees think through issues, I ask questions, rather than provide solutions.
7. I set expectations with my employees and communicate the importance of those expectations to the broader goals of the organization.
8. To help them see different perspectives, I role-play with my employees.

H. Proactivity Scale

Please describe how often you perform actions like the ones state below. Please indicate your response by writing the number that best describes how you feel about the statement.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Very Seldom	Neutral	Very Often	Almost Always

1. Suggested ways to make your work unit more effective.
2. Developed new and improved methods to help your work unit perform better.
3. Improved the way your work unit does things

I. Vision Articulation and Realization Scale

Please describe how is you articulate and realize your vision. Think about your behavior in general, rather than about a specific situation. Please indicate your response by writing the number that best describes how you feel about the statement.

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

1. Articulating a Vision

- 1.1. I have a clear understanding of where we are going.
- 1.2. I have a clear sense of where I want our unit to be in 5 years.
- 1.3. I have no idea where the organization is going.

2. Vision communication

- 2.1. I communicate my vision/mission/goals through spoken communication.
- 2.2. I communicate my vision/mission/goals through written communication.
- 2.3. I communicate my vision/mission/goals through technology-mediated communication.

3. Vision Realization

- 3.1. I delegate work to employees.
- 3.2. I provide resources and support services to employees.
- 3.3. I encourage employees to make more decisions regarding daily operations.
- 3.4. I act as a role model for employees.
- 3.5. I build employees' self-confidence.
- 3.6. I create challenges for employees.

- 3.7. I reward employees who act consistently with his/her vision/mission/goals.
- 3.8. I reassign my employees as needed to support my vision/mission/goals.
- 3.9. I set up new employee evaluation criteria according to the new vision/mission/goals.

J. Group Performance

Please describe how is your group performance. Please indicate your response by writing the number that best describes how you feel about the statement.

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

1. We have high work performance.
2. Most of our tasks are accomplished quickly and efficiently.
3. We always set a high standard of task accomplishment.
4. We always achieve a high standard of task accomplishment.
5. We almost always beat our targets.

K. Organizational Effectiveness

Please describe your impact on the organization. Think about your behavior in general, rather than about a specific situation. Please indicate your response by writing the number that best describes how you feel about the statement.

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

1. Made suggestions to improve overall effectiveness of the organization.

2. Involved yourself in changes that are helping to improve the overall effectiveness of the organization.
3. Come up with ways of increasing efficiency within the organization.

APPENDIX I - Sample Effective Leadership Questionnaire – Team Member Form

A. Communication Competence Scale

Please describe how your supervisor communicates. Think about his or her behavior in general, rather than about a specific situation. Please indicate your response by writing the number that best describes how you feel about the statement.

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

My immediate supervisor...

1. ...has a good command of the language.
2. ...pays attention to my unexpressed feelings.
3. ...is sensitive to my needs of the moment.
4. ...tends to listen to others seriously.
5. ...typically gets right to the point.
6. ...gives me a brief summary of what I have said.
7. ...pays attention to what I say to him or her.
8. ...listens to other people trying to put himself in his/her shoes.
9. ...deals with me effectively.
10. ...gives me a chance, when I am hesitating.
11. ...is a good listener.
12. ...is difficult to understand when communicating in written form.
13. ...listens to me calmly, while I am speaking.
14. ...expresses his or her ideas clearly.
15. ...is pleased when giving me some advice.

16. ...is difficult to understand when he or she speaks to me.
17. ... pays attention to the changes in my feelings.
18. ...generally says the right thing at the right time
19. ...is easy to talk to.
20. ...usually responds to messages (memos, phone calls, reports, etc.) quickly.

B. Relationship Proximity

Please describe how is your relationship with your supervisor. Think about his or her behavior in general, rather than about a specific situation. Please indicate your response by writing the number that best describes how you feel about the statement.

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

1. My team leader understands my problems and needs.
2. I think my team leader would defend me if I was not present to do so.
3. My working relationship with me team leader is effective.
4. My team leader believes I have the potential to perform effectively.
5. My team leader would be personally inclined to help me solve problems in my work.
6. My team leader and I are well suited to each other.
7. My team leader considers my suggestions for change.

C. Coaching Behavior

Please describe how often your team leader performs actions like the ones state below. Please indicate your response by writing the number that best describes how you feel about the statement.

1 Never	2 Very Seldom	3 Neutral	4 Very Often	5 Almost Always

My team leader ...

1. ... uses analogies, scenarios, and examples to help his/her employees learn.
2. ... encourages his/her employees to broaden their perspectives by helping them to see the big picture.
3. ... provides constructive feedback to his/her employees.
4. ... solicits feedback from his/her employees to ensure that their interactions are helpful to him/her.
5. ... provides his/her employees with resources so they can perform their jobs more effectively.
6. ... to help his/her employees think through issues, he asks questions, rather than providing solutions.
7. ... sets expectations with his/her employees and communicates the importance of those expectations to the broader goals of the organization.
8. ... to help them see different perspectives, he role-plays with his/her employees.

D. Vision Articulation & Realization Scale

Please describe how is your team leader articulates and realizes his/her vision. Think about his/her behavior in general, rather than about a specific situation. Please indicate your response by writing the number that best describes how you feel about the statement.

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

1. Articulating a Vision

- 1.1. My manager has a clear understanding of where we are going.
- 1.2. My manager has a clear sense of where he/she wants our unit to be in 5 years.
- 1.3. My manager has no idea where the organization is going.

2. Vision communication

- 2.1. My manager communicates his or her vision/mission/goals through spoken communication.
- 2.2. My manager communicates his or her vision/mission/goals through written communication.
- 2.3. My manager communicates his or her vision/mission/goals through technology-mediated communication.

3. Vision Realization

- 3.1. My manager delegates work to employees.
- 3.2. My manager provides resources and support services to employees.
- 3.3. My manager encourages employees to make more decisions regarding daily operations.
- 3.4. My manager acts as a role model for employees.
- 3.5. My manager builds employees' self-confidence.
- 3.6. My manager creates challenges for employees.
- 3.7. My manager rewards employees who act consistently with his/her vision/mission/goals.

3.8. My manager reassigns his/her employees as needed to support his/her vision/mission/goals.

3.9. My manager sets up new employee evaluation criteria according to the new vision/mission/goals.

E. Leadership Effectiveness

Please describe your team leader's impact on the organization. Think about his/her behavior in general, rather than about a specific situation. Please indicate your response by writing the number that best describes how you feel about the statement.

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

1. Leader Effectiveness

1.1. Is effective in meeting my job-related needs.

1.2. Is effective in representing me to higher authority.

1.3. Is effective in meeting organizational requirements.

1.4. Leads a group that is effective.

2. Group Performance

2.1. We have high work performance.

2.2. Most of our tasks are accomplished quickly and efficiently.

2.3. We always set a high standard of task accomplishment.

2.4. We always achieve a high standard of task accomplishment.

2.5. We almost always beat our targets.

3. Job Satisfaction

3.1. I am satisfied with my present line of work.

3.2. All things considered (i.e., , paid promotions, supervisors, coworkers, etc.), I am satisfied with my present line of work.

3.3. I feel a great sense of personal satisfaction from my line of work.

4. Satisfaction with Leader

4.1. I feel good to be around him/her.

4.2. I am satisfied that his/her style of leadership is the right one for getting our group's job done.

4.3. I am satisfied with his/her leadership.

APPENDIX J – Web Survey Print Outs – Leader Form



QUESTIONÁRIO

Este questionário tem por objetivo recolher informação sobre as suas características de liderança.

O questionário com **10 tópicos** demora apenas cerca de **15 minutos** a preencher.

No final do questionário encontrará um link com informação sobre os 8 fatores-chave para uma liderança eficaz.

INSTRUÇÕES

1. Por favor, preencha integralmente o questionário.
2. Escolha a resposta que corresponde à sua opinião sincera sobre cada um temas abordados.
3. Leia cada frase cuidadosamente e pense naquela que melhor descreve o seu comportamento de uma forma geral.
4. Escolha uma e apenas uma resposta para cada questão.

Muito Obrigado pela sua Participação!

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1. Como é que se identifica em relação a cada uma das seguintes frases:

	Muito Inadequada	Pouco Inadequada	Não é Adequada nem Inadequada	Pouco Adequada	Muito Adequada
Sou a alma da festa.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Simpatizo com os sentimentos dos outros.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Faço as tarefas imediatamente.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tenho mudanças de humor frequentemente.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tenho uma imaginação fértil.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Não falo muito.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Não estou interessado nos problemas dos outros.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Muitas vezes esqueço-me de recolocar os objetos no seu devido lugar.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Estou descontraindo a maior parte do tempo.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Não estou interessado em ideias abstratas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Falo com muitas pessoas diferentes nas festas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sinto as emoções dos outros.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Gosto de ordem.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Fico aborrecido com facilidade.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tenho dificuldade em entender ideias abstratas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Fico em segundo plano.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Não estou realmente interessado nos outros.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Faço confusão com as coisas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Raramente me sinto triste.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Não tenho uma boa imaginação.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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2. Como é que se identifica ao nível da sua comunicação interpessoal.

	Discordo Fortemente	Discordo	Não Concordo nem Discordo	Concordo	Concordo Fortemente
Tenho um bom domínio da língua materna.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Presto atenção aos sentimentos não expressos dos membros da minha equipa.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sou sensível às necessidades dos membros da minha equipa.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tenho tendência a ouvir os outros de forma séria.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Normalmente, vou direto ao assunto.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Faço um breve resumo ao membro da minha equipa sobre o que ele disse.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Presto atenção ao que os membros da minha equipa dizem.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ouço as outras pessoas tentando colocar-me nas suas posições.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Trato os membros da minha equipa de forma eficaz.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Dou uma oportunidade aos membros da minha equipa, quando estão a hesitar.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sou um bom ouvinte.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sou difícil de entender quando comunico por escrito.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Escuto os membros da minha equipa calmamente, enquanto eles estão a falar.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Expresso as minhas ideias com clareza.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Fico contente quando dou algum conselho aos membros da minha equipa.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sou difícil de entender, quando falo para os membros da minha equipa.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Presto atenção às mudanças nos sentimentos dos membros da minha equipa.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Geralmente, digo a coisa certa no momento certo.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
É fácil falar comigo.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Geralmente, respondo a mensagens (notas, telefonemas, relatórios, etc.) rapidamente.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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3. Como é que se identifica ao nível da sua orientação para objetivos.

	Discordo Fortemente	Discordo	Não Concordo nem Discordo	Concordo	Concordo Fortemente
Estou disposto a selecionar um trabalho desafiador com o qual possa aprender muito.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Muitas vezes procuro oportunidades para desenvolver novas competências e adquirir novos conhecimentos.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Gosto de tarefas desafiadoras e difíceis em que irei aprender novas competências.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Para mim, o desenvolvimento da minha capacidade de trabalho é importante o suficiente para assumir riscos.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Prefiro trabalhar em situações que requerem um elevado nível de habilidade e talento.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Estou preocupado em mostrar que posso ter um melhor desempenho do que os meus colegas de trabalho.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tento descobrir o que é preciso para provar a minha capacidade aos meus colegas no trabalho.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Aprecio quando os meus colegas de trabalho estão cientes de como o meu desempenho é bom.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Prefiro trabalhar em projetos em que possa mostrar a minha capacidade aos outros.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Evitaria assumir uma nova tarefa, se houvesse a possibilidade de parecer bastante incompetente aos outros.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Não mostrar menores capacidades é mais importante para mim do que aprender uma nova competência.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Estou preocupado em assumir uma tarefa no trabalho, se o meu desempenho revelar que tenho menores capacidades.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Prefiro evitar situações de trabalho em que possa ter um mau desempenho.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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4. Como é que se identifica ao nível da sua capacidade de adaptação.

	Discordo Fortemente	Discordo	Não Concordo nem Discordo	Concordo	Concordo Fortemente
Tenho a capacidade de alterar o meu comportamento se sentir que é necessário quando estou com outras pessoas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tenho a capacidade de controlar a forma como me apresento às pessoas, dependendo da impressão que gostaria de causar-lhes.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Quando sinto que a imagem que estou a transmitir não funciona, posso facilmente mudar para outra que o faça.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tenho dificuldade em mudar o meu comportamento para o adequar a pessoas diferentes e situações diferentes.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Descobri que posso ajustar o meu comportamento para atender às exigências de qualquer situação em que me encontre.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Mesmo quando possa ser a meu favor, tenho dificuldade em fazer boa cara.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Uma vez que saiba o que a situação exige, é fácil para mim para regular as minhas ações nesse sentido.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Muitas vezes sou capaz de ler corretamente as verdadeiras emoções das pessoas através dos seus olhos.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sou sensível até à menor mudança na expressão facial da pessoa com quem estou a conversar.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
A minha intuição é muito boa quando se trata de compreender as emoções e motivações dos outros.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Normalmente, sei quando os outros consideram uma piada de mau gosto, mesmo que possam rir de forma convincente.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Normalmente, sei quando digo algo inadequado por lê-lo nos olhos do ouvinte.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Se alguém está a mentir, eu geralmente sei logo pela sua forma de se exprimir.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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5. Como é que se identifica do ponto de vista relacional.

	Discordo Fortemente	Discordo	Não Concordo nem Discordo	Concordo	Concordo Fortemente
Entendo os problemas e as necessidades dos membros da minha equipa.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Defendo os membros da minha equipa se não estiverem presentes para fazê-lo.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
A minha relação de trabalho com os membros da minha equipa é eficaz.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Acredito que os membros da minha equipa têm o potencial para um desempenho eficaz.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Estou pessoalmente inclinado a ajudar os membros da minha equipa a resolver problemas no seu trabalho.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Os membros da minha equipa e eu adequamo-nos bem uns aos outros.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Considero as sugestões dos membros da minha equipa para a mudança.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

6. Como é que se identifica do ponto de vista da autoconfiança.

	Discordo Fortemente	Discordo	Não Concordo nem Discordo	Concordo	Concordo Fortemente
Não estou confiante de que possa liderar de forma eficaz.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Liderar de forma eficaz é provavelmente algo em que serei bom.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Acredito que liderar de forma eficaz é uma competência que possa dominar.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Não espero que me possa tornar muito eficaz a liderar.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sinto-me confiante de que posso ser um líder eficaz na maioria dos grupos com quem trabalho.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Provavelmente, não vai ser possível que lidere tão eficazmente quanto gostaria.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐



7. Com que frequência usa os seguintes métodos:

	Nunca	Raramente	Algumas Veze	Com Muita Frequência	Sempre
Uso analogias, cenários e exemplos para ajudar os membros da minha equipa a aprender.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Encorajo os membros da minha equipa a ampliarem as suas perspetivas, ajudando-os a ver as coisas no seu todo.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Dou feedback construtivo aos membros da minha equipa.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Solicito feedback aos membros da minha equipa para garantir que as minhas interações são úteis.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ofereço aos membros da minha equipa os recursos para que possam realizar as suas tarefas da forma mais eficaz.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Para ajudar os membros da minha equipa a pensarem nos problemas, eu faço perguntas em vez de oferecer soluções.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Defino as expetativas com os membros da minha equipa.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Comunico a importância das expetativas para os objetivos mais amplos da organização.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Para ajudar os membros da minha equipa a verem perspetivas diferentes, faço role-play com eles.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

8. Com que frequência atua do seguinte modo:

	Nunca	Raramente	Algumas Veze	Com Muita Frequência	Sempre
Faço sugestões para tornar a minha unidade de trabalho mais eficaz.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Desenvolvo novos e melhores métodos para ajudar a minha unidade de trabalho a ter um melhor desempenho.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Melhorar a forma como a minha unidade de trabalho executa as tarefas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Faço sugestões para melhorar a eficácia global da organização.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Promovo mudanças para melhorar a eficácia global da organização.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Faço sugestões para aumentar a eficiência da organização.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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9. Como é que se identifica ao nível estratégico.

Articulação da Visão

	Discordo Fortemente	Discordo	Não Concordo nem Discordo	Concordo	Concordo Fortemente
Compreendo claramente para onde estamos a ir.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tenho uma ideia clara para onde quero que a nossa divisão vá daqui a 5 anos.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Não tenho ideia para onde a organização está a ir.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Comunicação da Visão

	Discordo Fortemente	Discordo	Não Concordo nem Discordo	Concordo	Concordo Fortemente
Comunico oralmente a minha visão ou objetivos.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Comunico por escrito a minha visão ou objetivos.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Comunico a minha visão ou objetivos através da tecnologia (i.e. emails, mensagens, etc.)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Implementação

	Discordo Fortemente	Discordo	Não Concordo nem Discordo	Concordo	Concordo Fortemente
Delego trabalho aos membros da minha equipa.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ofereço recursos e serviços de apoio aos membros da minha equipa.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Incentivo os membros da minha equipa a tomarem mais decisões em relação às operações diárias.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Atuo como um modelo para os membros da minha equipa.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Construo a autoconfiança dos membros da minha equipa.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Crio desafios para os membros da minha equipa.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Recompenso os membros da minha equipa que agem de forma consistente com a minha visão ou objetivos.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐



10. Como classifica:

O desempenho da sua empresa em relação à média do seu setor.

	Pior	Igual	Melhor	Não Sabe
Rentabilidade do Ativo (ROA)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Rentabilidade do Investimento (ROI)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Crescimento das Vendas	☐	☐	☐	☐
Quota de Mercado	☐	☐	☐	☐
Retenção de Clientes	☐	☐	☐	☐

O desempenho da sua equipa.

	Discordo Fortemente	Discordo	Não Concordo nem Discordo	Concordo	Concordo Fortemente
Temos um elevado desempenho no trabalho.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
A maioria das nossas tarefas são realizadas de forma rápida e eficiente.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Estabelecemos sempre um elevado padrão na realização das tarefas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sempre alcançamos um elevado padrão de realização das tarefas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Quase sempre ultrapassamos as nossas metas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐



Em que ano nasceu?

Sexo?

- ☐ Masculino
☐ Feminino

Habilitações Literárias Concluídas?



Função na Empresa?

- ☐ Membro do Conselho de Administração
☐ Administrador Delegado
☐ Diretor Geral
☐ Diretor Comercial
☐ Diretor de Marketing
☐ Diretor Financeiro
☐ Diretor de Informática
☐ Diretor de Recursos Humanos
☐ Outra

Antiguidade na Empresa?

Antiguidade na Função?

Nível Hierárquico na Empresa?

- ☐ Administração
☐ Direção Geral
☐ Direções 1ª linha
☐ Direções Intermédias
☐ Outro

APPENDIX K – Web Survey Print Outs – Team Member Form



QUESTIONÁRIO

Este questionário tem por objetivo recolher informação sobre as características de liderança da sua chefia direta.

As respostas são anónimas e confidenciais, apenas utilizadas de forma sumária, e sem qualquer possibilidade de relacionar as respostas individuais com os resultados obtidos.

O questionário com 6 tópicos demora apenas cerca de 15 minutos a preencher.

No final do questionário encontrará um link com informação sobre os 8 fatores-chave para uma liderança eficaz.

INSTRUÇÕES

1. Por favor, preencha integralmente o questionário.
2. Escolha a resposta que corresponde à sua opinião sincera sobre cada um temas abordados.
3. Leia cada frase cuidadosamente e pense naquela que melhor descreve o comportamento da sua chefia de uma forma geral.
4. Escolha uma e apenas uma resposta para cada questão.

Muito Obrigado pela sua Participação!

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1. Como é a sua chefia ao nível da comunicação interpessoal.

	Discordo Fortemente	Discordo	Não Concordo nem Discordo	Concordo	Concordo Fortemente
Tem um bom domínio da língua materna.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Presta atenção aos meus sentimentos não expressos.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
É sensível às minhas necessidades.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tende a ouvir-me de forma séria.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Normalmente, vai direto ao assunto.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Faz-me um breve resumo do que eu disse.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Presta atenção ao que eu lhe digo.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ouve-me tentando colocar-se na minha posição.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Trata-me de forma eficaz.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Dá-me uma oportunidade, quando estou a hesitar.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
É um bom ouvinte.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
É difícil de entender quando comunica por escrito.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Escuta-me calmamente, enquanto estou a falar.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Expressa as suas ideias com clareza.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Fica contente quando me dá algum conselho.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
É difícil de entender, quando fala comigo.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Presta atenção às mudanças nos meus sentimentos.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Geralmente, diz a coisa certa no momento certo.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
É fácil falar com ele.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Geralmente, responde a mensagens (notas, telefonemas, relatórios, etc.) rapidamente.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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2. Como é a sua chefia do ponto de vista relacional.

	Discordo Fortemente	Discordo	Não Concordo nem Discordo	Concordo	Concordo Fortemente
Entende os meus problemas e necessidades.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Acho que iria defender-me se eu não estivesse presente para fazê-lo.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
A minha relação de trabalho com a chefia é eficaz.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Acredita que eu tenho o potencial para um desempenho eficaz.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Está pessoalmente inclinado a ajudar-me a resolver problemas no meu trabalho.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Adequamo-nos bem um ao outro.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Considera as minhas sugestões para a mudança.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

3. Com que frequência usa os seguintes métodos:

	Nunca	Raramente	Algumas Vezes	Com Muita Frequência	Sempre
Usa analogias, cenários e exemplos para me ajudar a aprender.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Encoraja-me a ampliar as minhas perspetivas, ajudando-me a ver as coisas no seu todo.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Dá-me feedback construtivo.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Solicita-me feedback para garantir que as minhas interações são úteis para mim.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Oferece-me os recursos para que eu possa realizar as minhas tarefas da forma mais eficaz.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Para ajudar-me a pensar nos problemas, faz-me perguntas em vez de oferecer soluções.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Define as expetativas comigo.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Comunica a importância das expetativas para os objetivos mais amplos da organização.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Para ajudar-me a ver perspetivas diferentes, faço role-play comigo.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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4. Com que frequência atua do seguinte modo:

	Nunca	Raramente	Algumas Vezes	Com Muita Frequência	Sempre
Faz sugestões para tornar a sua unidade de trabalho mais eficaz.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Desenvolve novos e melhores métodos para ajudar a sua unidade de trabalho a ter um melhor desempenho.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Melhora a forma como a sua unidade de trabalho executa as tarefas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Trata de forma eficaz as mudanças que afetam a sua unidade de trabalho.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Aprende novas competências ou assume novos papéis para lidar com as mudanças na forma como a sua unidade de trabalho funciona.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Responde de forma construtiva às mudanças na forma como a sua equipa trabalha.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Faz sugestões para melhorar a eficácia global da organização.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Promove mudanças para melhorar a eficácia global da organização.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Faz sugestões para aumentar a eficiência da organização.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Responde com flexibilidade às mudanças globais da organização.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Lida com a mudança na forma como a organização opera.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Aprende competências ou adquire informações para se ajustar às mudanças globais da organização.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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5. Como é a sua chefia ao nível estratégico.

Articulação da Visão

	Discordo Fortemente	Discordo	Não Concordo nem Discordo	Concordo	Concordo Fortemente
Compreende claramente para onde estamos a ir.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tem uma ideia para onde quer que a nossa divisão vá daqui a 5 anos.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Não tem ideia para onde a organização está a ir.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Comunicação da Visão

	Discordo Fortemente	Discordo	Não Concordo nem Discordo	Concordo	Concordo Fortemente
Comunica oralmente a sua visão ou objetivos.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Comunica por escrito a sua visão ou objetivos.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Comunica a sua visão ou objetivos através de tecnologia (i.e. emails, mensagens, etc.)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Implementação

	Discordo Fortemente	Discordo	Não Concordo nem Discordo	Concordo	Concordo Fortemente
Delega-me trabalho.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Oferece-me recursos e serviços de apoio.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Incentiva-me a tomar mais decisões em relação às operações diárias.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Atua como um modelo para mim.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Controla a minha autoconfiança.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Cria-me desafios.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Recompensa-me por agir de forma consistente com a sua visão ou objetivos.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Alinhamento

	Discordo Fortemente	Discordo	Não Concordo nem Discordo	Concordo	Concordo Fortemente
Realoca os membros da sua equipa da forma necessária para apoiar a sua visão ou objetivos.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Estabelece novos critérios de avaliação de desempenho de acordo com a nova visão ou objetivos.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐



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6. Como é a sua chefia do ponto de vista da eficácia.

	Discordo Fortemente	Discordo	Não Concordo nem Discordo	Concordo	Concordo Fortemente
É eficaz em atender as minhas necessidades relacionadas com o trabalho.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
É eficaz quando me representa junto às chefias superiores.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
É eficaz no cumprimento dos requisitos da organização.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Lidera um grupo que é eficaz.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Temos um elevado desempenho no trabalho.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
A maioria das nossas tarefas são realizadas de forma rápida e eficiente.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sempre definimos um elevado padrão na realização das tarefas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sempre alcançamos um elevado padrão na realização das tarefas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Quase sempre ultrapassamos as nossas metas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Estou satisfeito com a minha função atual.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Considerando tudo (ou seja, promoções, chefias, colegas de trabalho), estou satisfeito com a minha função atual.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sinto uma grande satisfação pessoal com a minha função.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sinto-me bem quando estou perto do meu líder de equipa.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Estou convencido de que o seu estilo de liderança é o caminho certo para conseguir que o trabalho do nosso grupo seja realizado.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Estou satisfeito com a sua liderança.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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7. Como classifica o desempenho da empresa em relação à média do seu setor.

	Pior	Igual	Melhor	Não Sabe
Rentabilidade do Ativo (ROA)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Rentabilidade do Investimento (ROI)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Crescimento das Vendas	☐	☐	☐	☐
Quota de Mercado	☐	☐	☐	☐
Retenção de Clientes	☐	☐	☐	☐

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Em que ano nasceu?

Sexo?

- ☐ Masculino
☐ Feminino

Habilitações Literárias Concluídas?

Função na Empresa?

- ☐ Membro do Conselho de Administração
☐ Administrador Delegado
☐ Diretor Geral
☐ Diretor Comercial
☐ Diretor de Marketing
☐ Diretor Financeiro
☐ Diretor de Informática
☐ Diretor de Recursos Humanos
☒ Outra

Antiguidade na Empresa?

Antiguidade na Função?

Nível Hierárquico na Empresa?

- ☐ Administração
☐ Direção Geral
☐ Direções 1ª linha
☐ Direções Intermédias
☐ Outro

APPENDIX L - Measures and Indicators used in the Quantitative Study

Construct	Scale	Indicator Code	Indicator / Question	Range	Source
			Please describe how accurately each statement describes you:		
Big Five Personality (BF)	Extraversion (EX)	EX1	Am the life of the party.	(1~5)	Self-report measure using the Mini-IPIP scale adapted from (Donnellan et al., 2006). This scale is based on previous works of Goldberg (1990)
		EX2	Don't talk a lot.	(1~5)	
		EX3	Talk to a lot of different people at parties.	(1~5)	
		EX4	Keep in the background.	(1~5)	
	Agreeableness (AG)	AG1	Sympathize with others' feelings.	(1~5)	
		AG2	Am not interested in other people's problems.	(1~5)	
		AG3	Feel others' emotions.	(1~5)	
		AG4	Am not really interested in others.	(1~5)	
	Conscientiousness (CO)	CO1	Get chores done right away.	(1~5)	
		CO2	Often forget to put things back in their proper place.	(1~5)	
		CO3	Like order.	(1~5)	
		CO4	Make a mess of things.	(1~5)	
	Neuroticism (NE)	NE1	Have frequent mood swings.	(1~5)	
		NE2	Am relaxed most of the time.	(1~5)	
		NE3	Get upset easily.	(1~5)	
		NE4	Seldom feel blue.	(1~5)	
	Openness to Experience (OE)	OE1	Have a vivid imagination.	(1~5)	
		OE2	Am not interested in abstract ideas.	(1~5)	
		OE3	Have difficulty understanding abstract ideas.	(1~5)	
		OE4	Do not have a good imagination.	(1~5)	

UNDERSTANDING LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS IN ORGANIZATIONAL SETTINGS

Construct	Scale	Indicator Code	Indicator / Question	Range	Source
			Please describe how you communicate with your team members:		
Interpersonal Communication Skills (ICS)	Communicator Competence (CC) (12)	CC1	I have a good command of the language.	(1~5)	Measure for communicator competence adapted from (Monge et al., 1982)
		CC2	I am sensitive to my team members' needs of the moment.	(1~5)	
		CC3	Typically get right to the point.	(1~5)	
		CC4	Pay attention to what my team members say to me.	(1~5)	
		CC5	Deal with my team members effectively.	(1~5)	
		CC6	I am a good listener.	(1~5)	
		CC7	I am difficult to understand when communicating in written form.	(1~5)	
		CC8	I express my ideas clearly.	(1~5)	
		CC9	I am difficult to understand when I speak to my team members.	(1~5)	
		CC10	Generally, I say the right thing at the right time.	(1~5)	
		CC11	I am easy to talk to.	(1~5)	
		CC12	I usually respond to messages (memos, phone calls, reports, etc.) quickly.	(1~5)	
	Active Listening Skills (ALAS) (8)	AL1	I pay attention to my team member unexpressed feelings.	(1~5)	
		AL2	I tend to listen to others seriously.	(1~5)	

Construct	Scale	Indicator Code	Indicator / Question	Range	Source
Interpersonal Communication Skills (ICS)	Active Listening Skills (ALAS)	AL3	I give my team members a brief summary of what they have said.	(1~5)	Measure for active listening skills adapted from Mishima et al. (2000)
		AL4	I listen to other people trying to put myself in his/her shoes.	(1~5)	
		AL5	I give my team members a chance, when they are hesitating.	(1~5)	
		AL6	Please describe how you communicate with your team members: - I listen to my team members calmly, while they are speaking.	(1~5)	
		AL7	I am pleased when I give my team members some advice.	(1~5)	
		AL8	I pay attention to the changes in my team members' feelings.	(1~5)	
			Please describe how goal oriented are you:		
Learning Goal Orientation (LGO)	LGO (5)	LGO1	I am willing to select a challenging work assignment that I can learn a lot from.	(1~5)	Self-report scale for learning goal orientation (VandeWalle, 1997)
		LGO2	I often look for opportunities to develop new skills and knowledge.	(1~5)	
		LGO3	I enjoy challenging and difficult tasks at work where I'll learn new skills.	(1~5)	
		LGO4	For me, development of my work ability is important enough to take risks.	(1~5)	
		LGO5	I prefer to work in situations that require a high level of ability and talent.	(1~5)	

UNDERSTANDING LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS IN ORGANIZATIONAL SETTINGS

Construct	Scale	Indicator Code	Indicator / Question	Range	Source
			Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the statement:		
Leadership Self-efficacy (LSE)	LSE (6)	LSE1	I am not confident that I can lead others effectively.	(1~5)	Self-report measure for LSE adapted from Chan and Drasgow (2001) and Feasel (1995)
		LSE2	Leading others effectively is probably something I will be good at.	(1~5)	
		LSE3	I believe that leading others effectively is a skill that I can master.	(1~5)	
		LSE4	I do not expect to become very effective at leading.	(1~5)	
		LSE5	I feel confident that I can be an effective leader in most of the groups that I work with.	(1~5)	
		LSE6	It probably will not be possible for me to lead others as effectively as I would like.	(1~5)	
Proximal Working Relationship (PWR)	LMX (7)	LMX1	I understand my team members' problems and needs.	(1~5)	Measure for LMX based on works of Scandura and Grean (1984), Liden et al. (1993),
		LMX2	I would defend my team members if they were not present to do so.	(1~5)	
		LMX3	My working relationship with my team members is effective.	(1~5)	
		LMX4	I believe my team members have the potential to perform effectively.	(1~5)	
		LMX5	I would be personally inclined to help my team members solve problems in their work.	(1~5)	
		LMX6	My team members and I are well suited to each other.	(1~5)	
		LMX7	I consider my team members suggestions for change.	(1~5)	

UNDERSTANDING LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS IN ORGANIZATIONAL SETTINGS

Construct	Scale	Indicator Code	Indicator / Question	Range	Source
			Please indicate the extent to which:		
Vision Articulation & Realization (VAR)(15)	Articulating a Vision (AV) (3)	AV1	I have a clear understanding of where we are going.	(1~5)	Measure for articulating a vision adapted from House (1998)
		AV2	I have a clear sense of where I want our unit to be in 5 years.	(1~5)	
		AV3	I have no idea where the organization is going.	(1~5)	
	Vision Communication (VC) (3)	VC1	I communicate my vision/mission/goals through spoken communication.	(1~5)	Measure for vision realization adapted from Kantabutra (2003, 2008)
		VC2	I communicate my vision/mission/goals through written communication.	(1~5)	
		VC3	I communicate my vision/mission/goals through technology-mediated communication.	(1~5)	
	Empowerment (EM) (3)	EM1	I delegate work to my team members.	(1~5)	
		EM2	I provide resources and support services to my team members.	(1~5)	
		EM3	I encourage my team members to make more decisions regarding daily operations.	(1~5)	
	Motivation (MO) (4)	MO1	I act as a role model for my team members.	(1~5)	
		MO2	I build my team members' self-confidence.	(1~5)	
		MO3	I create challenges for my team members.	(1~5)	
		MO4	I reward my team members who act consistently with my vision/mission/goals.	(1~5)	
	Organizational Alignment (OA) (2)	OA1	I reassign my team members as needed to support my vision/mission/goals.	(1~5)	
		OA2	I set up new employee evaluation criteria according to my new vision/mission/goals.	(1~5)	

UNDERSTANDING LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS IN ORGANIZATIONAL SETTINGS

Construct	Scale	Indicator Code	Indicator / Question	Range	Source
			Please describe how accurately each statement describes you:		
Adaptive Behavior (AB)	Ability to modify self-presentation (AMS) (7)	AMS1	In social situations, I have the ability to alter my behavior if I feel that something else is called for.	(1~5)	Measure based on the revised version of Lennox and Wolf (1984)
		AMS2	I have the ability to control the way I come across to people, depending on the impression I wish to give them.	(1~5)	
		AMS3	When I feel that the image I am portraying isn't working, I can readily change it to something that does.	(1~5)	
		AMS4	I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.	(1~5)	
		AMS5	I have found that I can adjust my behavior to meet the requirements of any situation I find myself in.	(1~5)	
		AMS6	Even when it might be to my advantage, I have difficulty putting up a good front.	(1~5)	
		AMS7	Once I know what the situation calls for, it's easy for me to regulate my actions accordingly.	(1~5)	

UNDERSTANDING LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS IN ORGANIZATIONAL SETTINGS

Construct	Scale	Indicator Code	Indicator / Question	Range	Source
Adaptive Behavior (AB)	Sensitivity to expressive behavior of others (SEB) (6)	SEB1	I am often able to read people’s true emotions correctly through their eyes.	(1~5)	Measure based on the revised version of Lennox and Wolf (1984)
		SEB2	In conversations, I am sensitive to even the slightest change in the facial expression of the person I’m conversing with.	(1~5)	
		SEB3	My powers of intuition are quite good when it comes to understanding others’ emotions and motives.	(1~5)	
		SEB4	I can usually tell when others consider a joke to be in bad taste, even though they may laugh convincingly.	(1~5)	
		SEB5	I can usually tell when I’ve said something inappropriate by reading it in the listener’s eyes.	(1~5)	
		SEB6	If someone is lying to me, I usually know it at once from the person’s manner of expression.	(1~5)	
			How often do you act like this:		
Proactive Behavior (PB)	Team Member Proactivity (3)	TMP1	Suggested ways to make your work unit more effective.	(1~5)	Measure adapted from Griffin et al. (2007)
		TMP2	Developed new and improved methods to help your work unit perform better.	(1~5)	
		TMP3	Improved the way your work unit does things	(1~5)	

UNDERSTANDING LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS IN ORGANIZATIONAL SETTINGS

Construct	Scale	Indicator Code	Indicator / Question	Range	Source
			How do you rate your impact on the organization?		
Overall Impact on Organizational Effectiveness (IOE)	Group Performace (GP)	GP1	We have high work performance.	(1~5)	Measure adapted from Conger et al. (2000)
		GP2	Most of our tasks are accomplished quickly and efficiently.	(1~5)	
		GP3	We always set a high standard of task accomplishment.	(1~5)	
		GP4	We always achieve a high standard of task accomplishment.	(1~5)	
		GP5	We almost always beet our targets.	(1~5)	
	Organizational Effectiveness (OEF)	OEF1	We made suggestions to improve overall effectiveness of the organization.	(1~5)	Measure adapted from Griffin et al. (2007)
		OEF2	We involved in changes that are helping to improve the overall effectiveness of the organization.	(1~5)	
		OEF3	We come up with ways of increasing efficiency within the organization.	(1~5)	
	Leader Effectiveness (LE)	LEF1	My leader is effective in meeting my job-related needs.	(1~5)	Measure adapted from Bass and Avolio (1990b)
		LEF2	My leader effective in representing me to higher authority.	(1~5)	
		LEF3	My leader is effective in meeting organizational requirements.	(1~5)	
		LEF4	Leads a group that is effective.	(1~5)	
			How do you rate your company's performance in relation to the industry's average?		
Firm Performance	ROA	ROA	Return on Assets	(1~4)	
	ROI	ROI	Return on Investment	(1~4)	
	Sales Growth	SG	Sales Growth	(1~4)	
	Market Share	MS	Market Share	(1~4)	

UNDERSTANDING LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS IN ORGANIZATIONAL SETTINGS

	Customer Retention	CR	Customer Retention	(1~4)	
Construct	Scale	Indicator Code	Indicator / Question	Range	Source
Demographic Variables	Age	AGE	How old are you?		
	Gender	GEN	What is your gender?		
	Education	EDU	What is your educational background?		
Contextual Variables	Firm Size	FSI	How many employees work in your company?		
	Stakeholder Control	SCO	What is your company's stakeholder control?		
Contextual Variables	Leader Hierarchical Level	LHL	What is your hierarchical level in the company?		
	Job Tenure	JTE	What is your job's tenure?		
	Company Tenure	CTE	What is your company's tenure?		
Industry	Industry	IND	What is your company's industry sector?		

APPENDIX M – Tests of Normality Applied to the Scales

Combined Sample

Tests of Normality Applied to Interpersonal Communication Skills Items

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
AL1	.301	381	.000	.762	381	.000
AL2	.303	381	.000	.727	381	.000
AL3	.314	381	.000	.838	381	.000
AL4	.283	381	.000	.768	381	.000
AL5	.322	381	.000	.745	381	.000
AL6	.295	381	.000	.823	381	.000
AL7	.256	381	.000	.800	381	.000
AL8	.294	381	.000	.775	381	.000
CC1	.394	381	.000	.642	381	.000
CC2	.298	381	.000	.732	381	.000
CC3	.260	381	.000	.780	381	.000
CC4	.339	381	.000	.687	381	.000
CC5	.306	381	.000	.781	381	.000
CC6	.270	381	.000	.797	381	.000
CC7	.259	381	.000	.770	381	.000
CC8	.314	381	.000	.768	381	.000
CC9	.259	381	.000	.752	381	.000
CC10	.288	381	.000	.836	381	.000
CC11	.275	381	.000	.747	381	.000
CC12	.271	381	.000	.763	381	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Tests of Normality Applied to Learning Goal Orientation Items

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
LGO1	.370	381	.000	.688	381	.000
LGO2	.338	381	.000	.724	381	.000
LGO3	.362	381	.000	.694	381	.000
LGO4	.262	381	.000	.777	381	.000
LGO5	.278	381	.000	.769	381	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Tests of Normality Applied to Adaptive Behaviors Items

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
AMS1	.309	381	.000	.746	381	.000
AMS2	.308	381	.000	.827	381	.000
AMS3	.266	381	.000	.880	381	.000
AMS4	.337	381	.000	.816	381	.000
AMS5	.322	381	.000	.820	381	.000
AMS6	.272	381	.000	.850	381	.000
AMS7	.335	381	.000	.794	381	.000
SEB1	.299	381	.000	.843	381	.000
SEB2	.292	381	.000	.860	381	.000
SEB3	.286	381	.000	.846	381	.000
SEB4	.346	381	.000	.776	381	.000
SEB5	.351	381	.000	.762	381	.000
SEB6	.255	381	.000	.865	381	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Tests of Normality Applied to Leadership Self-Efficacy Items

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
LSE1	.265	381	.000	.727	381	.000
LSE2	.279	381	.000	.796	381	.000
LSE3	.313	381	.000	.729	381	.000
LSE4	.283	381	.000	.729	381	.000
LSE5	.350	381	.000	.730	381	.000
LSE6	.270	381	.000	.854	381	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Tests of Normality Applied to Proximal Working Relationship Items

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
LMX1	.358	381	.000	.716	381	.000
LMX2	.380	381	.000	.679	381	.000
LMX3	.374	381	.000	.699	381	.000
LMX4	.308	381	.000	.734	381	.000
LMX5	.361	381	.000	.642	381	.000
LMX6	.329	381	.000	.753	381	.000
LMX7	.328	381	.000	.663	381	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Tests of Normality Applied to Proactive Behavior Items

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
TMP1	.307	381	.000	.786	381	.000
TMP2	.303	381	.000	.809	381	.000
TMP3	.319	381	.000	.787	381	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Tests of Normality Applied to Organizational Effectiveness Items

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
GP1	.311	381	.000	.775	381	.000
GP2	.327	381	.000	.773	381	.000
GP3	.310	381	.000	.768	381	.000
GP4	.309	381	.000	.828	381	.000
GP5	.296	381	.000	.842	381	.000
OEF1	.292	381	.000	.817	381	.000
OEF2	.275	381	.000	.853	381	.000
OEF3	.296	381	.000	.820	381	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Tests of Normality Applied to Vision Articulation & Realization Items

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
AV1	.280	381	.000	.763	381	.000
AV2	.277	381	.000	.813	381	.000
AV3	.297	381	.000	.745	381	.000
VC1	.295	381	.000	.747	381	.000
VC2	.291	381	.000	.856	381	.000
VC3	.300	381	.000	.829	381	.000
EM1	.288	381	.000	.720	381	.000
EM2	.367	381	.000	.720	381	.000
EM3	.289	381	.000	.737	381	.000
MO1	.255	381	.000	.819	381	.000
MO2	.318	381	.000	.770	381	.000
MO3	.294	381	.000	.745	381	.000
MO4	.285	381	.000	.823	381	.000
OA1	.304	381	.000	.786	381	.000
OA2	.320	381	.000	.806	381	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Corporate Team Members Sample

Tests of Normality Applied to Interpersonal Communication Skills Items

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Estatística	df	Sig.	Estatística	df	Sig.
AL1	.287	491	.000	.855	491	.000
AL2	.259	491	.000	.763	491	.000
AL3	.245	491	.000	.880	491	.000
AL4	.300	491	.000	.848	491	.000
AL5	.312	491	.000	.804	491	.000
AL6	.299	491	.000	.816	491	.000
AL7	.264	491	.000	.849	491	.000
AL8	.253	491	.000	.870	491	.000
CC1	.314	491	.000	.680	491	.000
CC2	.294	491	.000	.828	491	.000
CC3	.263	491	.000	.738	491	.000
CC4	.296	491	.000	.779	491	.000
CC5	.295	491	.000	.795	491	.000
CC6	.281	491	.000	.818	491	.000
CC7	.313	491	.000	.789	491	.000
CC8	.282	491	.000	.757	491	.000

CC9	.302	491	.000	.773	491	.000
CC10	.285	491	.000	.851	491	.000
CC11	.272	491	.000	.774	491	.000
CC12	.263	491	.000	.734	491	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Tests of Normality Applied to Proximal Working Relationship Items

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
LMX1	.331	491	.000	.796	491	.000
LMX2	.277	491	.000	.817	491	.000
LMX3	.289	491	.000	.757	491	.000
LMX4	.290	491	.000	.784	491	.000
LMX5	.287	491	.000	.788	491	.000
LMX6	.280	491	.000	.812	491	.000
LMX7	.294	491	.000	.825	491	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Tests of Normality Applied to Proactive Behavior Items

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
PB1	.252	491	.000	.865	491	.000
PB2	.247	491	.000	.877	491	.000
PB3	.262	491	.000	.874	491	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Tests of Normality Applied to Adaptive Behavior Items

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
AB1	.281	491	.000	.857	491	.000
AB2	.253	491	.000	.864	491	.000
AB3	.261	491	.000	.860	491	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Tests of Normality Applied to Organizational Effectiveness Items

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
OEF1	.260	491	.000	.849	491	.000
OEF2	.268	491	.000	.865	491	.000
OEF3	.263	491	.000	.855	491	.000
GP1	.349	491	.000	.708	491	.000
GP2	.294	491	.000	.753	491	.000
GP3	.342	491	.000	.624	491	.000
GP4	.350	491	.000	.620	491	.000
GP5	.354	491	.000	.654	491	.000
LEF1	.356	491	.000	.657	491	.000
LEF2	.337	491	.000	.633	491	.000
LEF3	.353	491	.000	.677	491	.000
LEF4	.321	491	.000	.727	491	.000

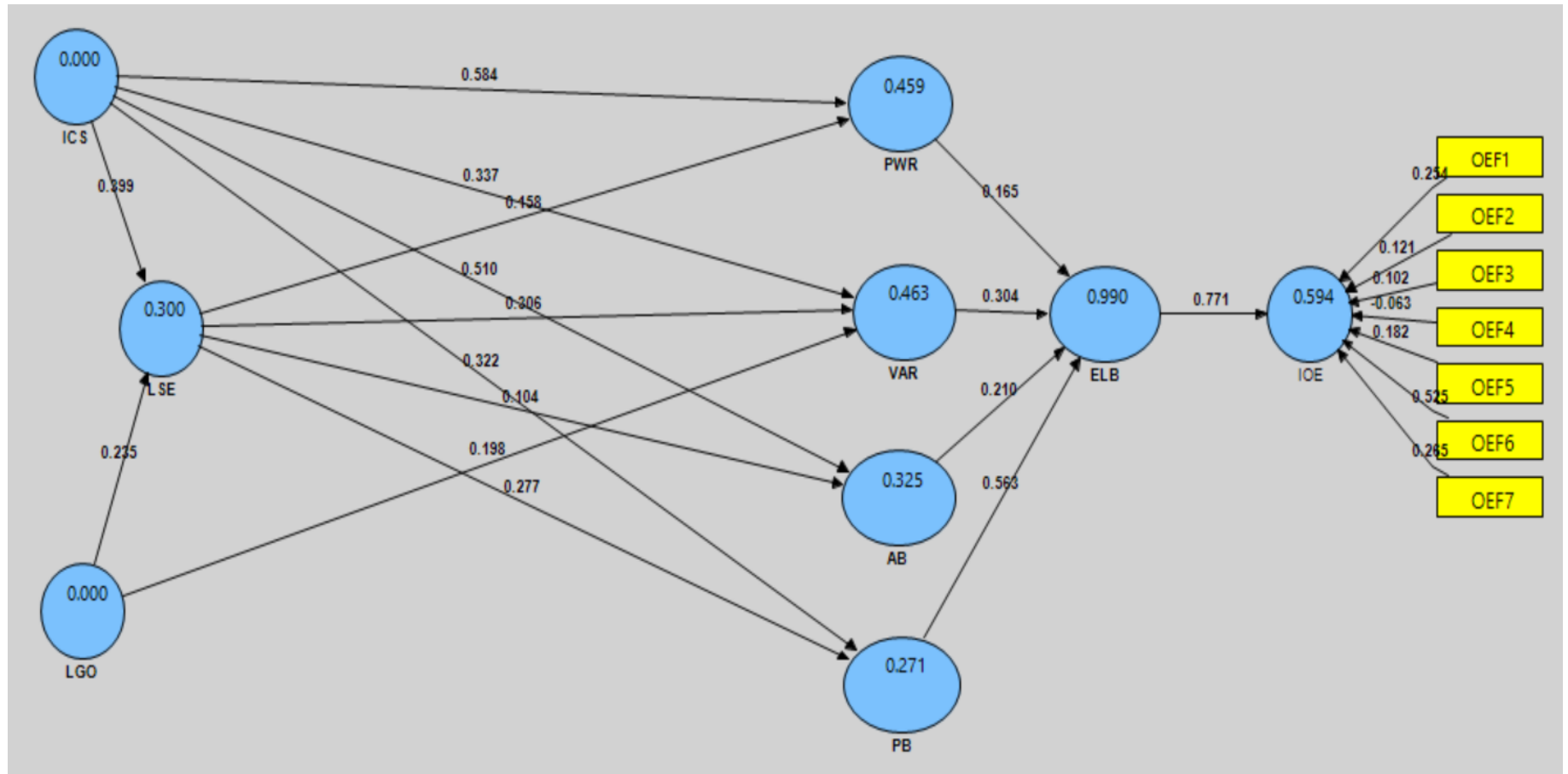
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Tests of Normality Applied to Vision Articulation & Realization Items

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
AV1	.274	491	.000	.755	491	.000
AV2	.267	491	.000	.845	491	.000
AV3	.283	491	.000	.752	491	.000
VC1	.296	491	.000	.765	491	.000
VC2	.293	491	.000	.854	491	.000
VC3	.302	491	.000	.832	491	.000
EM1	.299	491	.000	.738	491	.000
EM2	.321	491	.000	.808	491	.000
EM3	.290	491	.000	.815	491	.000
MO1	.246	491	.000	.865	491	.000
MO2	.264	491	.000	.871	491	.000
MO3	.296	491	.000	.786	491	.000
MO4	.242	491	.000	.883	491	.000
OA1	.330	491	.000	.811	491	.000
OA2	.299	491	.000	.847	491	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

APPENDIX N – SMART-PLS Results
(Combined Sample n=381)



APPENDIX O – SMART-PLS Results

(Corporate Team Members Sample n=491)

