

Do followers' prototypical images of effective leaders match with actual behavioral repertoire of effective leaders?

Author: Limei Hou
University of Twente
P.O. Box 217, 7500AE Enschede
The Netherlands

ABSTRACT

Purpose: The present study explores to what extent followers' prototypical images of an effective leader match effective leaders' actually displayed behavioral repertoire.

Design/Methodology: A mixed-method design is adopted, with a combination of a qualitative method (i.e. 1491 followers' written answers to an open question in a survey about how they describe an "effective leader") and a more objective, quantitative method (i.e. video-based observations of 114 of these same followers' leader behaviors during regular staff meetings). Moreover, these leaders had been categorized into "effective" (n=65) and "less effective" (n=47) one based on their effectiveness scores (effective when >7 ; less effective when ≤ 7). Comparisons are made between followers' prototypical images (formulated based on their implicit leadership theories) and actual behavioral repertoire of effective leaders.

Findings: The data revealed that there is no complete or accurate match between followers' prototypical images of effective leaders and these leaders' actual behavioral repertoire. In followers' perceptions, the effective leaders are more relation-oriented (transformational). However effective leaders actually display more task-oriented (transactional) and change-oriented behaviors. Furthermore, an in-depth comparison analysis has been conducted between "effective" and "less effective" leaders. Compared to less effective leaders, the effective ones display more change-oriented behaviors and less counter-productive behaviors. In more details, effective leaders do not display often "providing negative feedback" but display more "vision: long term" and "vision: one's own opinion".

Practical implications: This paper recommends to (1) train the followers in a way that they develop awareness about how ILTs shape action tendencies; (2) train the leaders to better understand their followers and shape their behaviors in a way that enhance follower-leader exchange quality and team effectiveness.

Theoretical implications: This study contributes to the growing body of effective-leader behavior literature by (1) providing evidence that followers carry in their minds prototypes of effective leaders and that (2) these followers' prototypical images of effective leaders do not match completely or accurately with effective leaders' actual behavioral repertoire.

Supervisors:

Drs. A.M.G.M. Hoogeboom & Prof. Dr. C.P.M. Wilderom

Keywords

Implicit leadership theory, followers' prototypical images, leader behaviors, staff meetings, mixed-method design, video observation vs. survey-based assessment

Permission to make digital or hard copies of all or part of this work for personal or classroom use is granted without fee provided that copies are not made or distributed for profit or commercial advantage and that copies bear this notice and the full citation on the first page. To copy otherwise, or republish, to post on servers or to redistribute to lists, requires prior specific permission and/or a fee.

7th IBA Bachelor Thesis Conference, July 1st, 2016, Enschede, The Netherlands
Copyright 2016, University of Twente, The Faculty of Behavioral, Management and Social Sciences

1. INTRODUCTION

It is known that leadership matters a great deal for both team and organizational performance (Yukl, 2008; Chen, Kirkman, & Kanfer, 2007) because leaders are held responsible for the success and failure of teams and organizations (Meindl, 1990). According to Yukl (2012), the essence of leadership is to influence and facilitate individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives. Being one of the most discussed and debated topics in social sciences (Avolio, Sosik, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Bass, 1990; Bennis, 2007), the literature concerning leadership suffers from a lack of consensus on the definition of this concept (Bass, 1981; Stogdill, 1974; Yukl, Gordon, & Taber, 2002). In a similar vein, Stogdill (1974) has mentioned, "there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept" (Stogdill, 1974, p.259). Among many definitions, Yukl (2003) has theorized leadership as a social process, in which one person exerts intentional influence over other people to attain goals in a group context. Due to the fact that there is no consensus on the meaning of leadership, it is important to understand all various ideas and images, such as Implicit Leadership Theories (hereinafter refers to as ILTs).

ILTs have contributed a significant body of knowledge to understand prototypical images of leaders (Epitropaki et al., 2013), even though they did not contribute to creating consensus on the definition of leadership. The contribution of ILTs to the understanding of leadership is supported by the work of Lord et al. (1984) and Cronshaw and Lord (1987), which have acknowledged the effects of ILTs on followers' perceptions and utility as explanations for organizational leadership. ILTs are generally defined as cognitive structures or prototypes specifying the traits and abilities that distinguish leaders from non-leaders (Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1984; Lord & Maher, 1991). In other words, people are categorized as leaders on the basis of the perceived match between their behaviors or characteristics and the attributes of a pre-existing leader category or prototype (Rush & Russell, 1988). Within this context, a prototype is an "abstract conception of the most representative member or the most widely shared feature of a given cognitive category" (Phillips, 1984, p. 126). Many studies have attempted to uncover the content of ILTs. Building upon Offermann et al.'s (1994) work, Epitropaki and Martin (2004) have developed the most recent 21 items, 6 first-order factors (i.e. Sensitivity, Dedication, Dynamism, Intelligence, Tyranny and Masculinity) and 2 higher-order factors (prototype and anti-prototype). ILTs and categorization theories have indeed contributed to the leadership domain; however, they are not without criticism. To name a few, the methods (i.e. perceptual recall rating) adopted by the ILTs approach are intrinsically limited and can thus reduce the results' reliability (Bass & Bass, 2008; Wherry & Bartlett, 1982). Besides, scholars argue that perceptions do not genuinely reflect the actual behaviors, and thus create a source of (unwanted) bias (Shondrick et al., 2010). Furthermore, these studies have not attempted to separately measure followers' perception of effective leaders and the effective leaders' actual behaviors (Epitropaki & Martin, 2001) to test whether there is any alignment (or misalignment) between these two aspects.

Critiques regarding the ILTs approach have encouraged scholars to look at the leader's behavioral repertoire (Jenkins, 1947; Mann, 1959). The study on behavioral repertoire is abundant however the literature suffers from a lack of integration (DeRue et al., 2011) because most of the research has only focused on one type or one aspect of the behavioral repertoire. For example, Judge and Piccolo (2004) focused only on transformational-transactional leadership; Hemphill and

Coons (1957) and Stogdill (1963) did the same for initiating structure and consideration. Moreover, leaders' behaviors are complex because leaders generally have the capability to engage in a wide range of behavioral repertoire (Hooijberg & Quinn 1992). Therefore, when examining leaders' behavior, it is important to consider their full behavioral repertoire (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999). An important classification of behavior is that of Avolio et al., (1999) and Bass (1998), namely the two-factor model of transactional-transformational leadership. This categorization is partially compatible to Yukl's autonomy because transactional leadership behaviors can be considered as task-oriented (Yukl, Gorden & Taber, 2002) and transformational behaviors as relation-oriented (Bass, 1990). This model does not include any behaviors that do not fall under transformational or transactional. Therefore, it is not broad enough to study the full range of behaviors, which is based on the full-range leadership theory. Moreover, most of the research on leaders' behavioral repertoire relies heavily on traditional, quantitative survey methods and some scholars think that these methods merely reflect the perceptions of behavior instead of capturing the actual field behavior (Hoogeboom & Wilderom, 2015).

Taken together, the following points can be made. First, scholars have rarely examined the differences between perceptual and objective indices of leaders' behavior. This notion is supported by the fact that most leadership articles published in the top journals have only used followers' perceptual recall ratings for assessing leaders' behaviors and prototypical images (Stentz, Plano Clark & Maktin, 2012). However, there is a call made by leadership scholars to combine perceptions of leader behaviors with more precise observation methods (Kaplan, Cortina, Ruark, & Nicolaides, 2014) because the perceptual ratings are often inaccurate (Bass & Bass, 2008; Landy & Farr, 1987). Similarly, Shondrick and Lord (2012) have recommended to compare leaders' observed behaviors with followers' perceptual behavioral estimates. Second, there are not many studies available on leaders' actual behavioral repertoire during regular staff meetings, except for example the work of Hoogeboom and Wilderom (2015) and Kauffeld and Lehmann-Willenbrock (2012). However, this type of study is needed because leaders' actual behaviors could be best studied in an actual, field type of leadership setting, such as a staff meeting, which appears to be the most important location where leaders and followers interact (Allen & Rogelberg, 2013). Therefore, a staff meeting is considered as a context where leadership is manifested (Schwartzman, 1986). In this context, leaders display a wide range of behaviors (Nixon & Littlepage, 1992). In light of the complex nature of behavioral repertoire (Hooijberg and Quinn 1992), it is also necessary to study the leaders' behaviors from a more focused setting e.g. a staff meeting. The literature reveals the need to adopt a mixed method to study effective leadership. As revealed by the study of Glynn and Raffaelli (2010), quantitative methods dominated leadership research (82,43%) with a heavy reliance on survey, archival and laboratory designs. Compared to quantitative methods, only a small number of articles (12.16%) used qualitative methods (Glynn & Raffaelli, 2010). Mixed methods were used even less frequently (4.26%). As known, the traditional quantitative methods are intrinsically limited. To obtain an accurate understanding of leaders' actual behaviors, these biases caused by the methods must be minimized. Therefore, leadership scholars call for additional, more precise observation methods (e.g. Kaplan, Cortina, Ruark, & Nicolaides, 2014).

Therefore, the purpose of present study is to provide insights into followers' prototypical images of effective leaders and the

effectiveness of the actual behaviors of those leaders. To achieve that, it is necessary to have a better understanding of followers' prototypical image of effective leaders and how this is reflected in their actual behavioral repertoire. As Shondrick and Lord (2010) have recommended that leadership research should compare observed behaviors with perceptual behavioral estimates. Through this way, author aims to enhance insights in perceptual biases when theorizing leaders' actual behavioral repertoire (Hooigeboom & Wilderom, 2015). This paper will therefore investigate the following research question:

“To what extent are followers' prototypical images of effective leaders matching such leaders' actually displayed behavioral repertoire?”

By investigating the differences between followers' perceptions and the effective leaders' actual behavioral repertoire, the present study can contribute to the leadership domain in following ways. First, this research contributes to closing the knowledge gap in the body of leadership literature by adding an important aspect of the differences between followers' perceptions and leaders' actual behavioral repertoire. Therefore the purpose of this study is to answer the question raised by some leadership scholars, such as Antonakis et al. (2003). Second, the contribution of this research can be viewed from a practical perspective. The present study results will help leaders to better understand the followers (including their perceptions) and then the leaders adjust their behaviors accordingly to be effective. This is deemed to improve leader-follower exchange quality, which tends to optimize team effectiveness. Finally, this study adopts a rarely used video observation method and video coding to examine effective leaders' actual behaviors. In combination with the qualitative approach adopted for studying followers' perception, this mixed-method study with a large sample size ($N_{\text{followers}}=1491$; $N_{\text{leaders}}=114$) will increase the results' reliability (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011) and reduce common method / source-bias (Podsakoff, 2003) occurred in the previous studies.

In the following section, relevant theories for this research study will be reviewed. Subsequently, the methodology used to collect and analyze the data will be explained. The Results section will highlight the insights gained from the analysis and will be followed by a Discussion and Conclusion section in which the main findings will be summarized and discussed.

2. THEORY AND PROPOSITIONS

2.1 Followers' prototypical images of effective leaders

According to Phillips (1984), a prototype is an “abstract conception of the most representative member or the most widely shared feature of a given cognitive category” (Phillips, 1984, p. 126). This abstract conception involves a process of determining whether or not a person resembles, in character or behavior, the expected qualities of a category. A frequently used distinction is whether a person fits with the prototypical image of a leader versus a non-leader (Lord, Foti, and Phillips, 1982).

2.1.1. Implicit leadership theories (ILTs)

ILTs have received increasing attention since the introduction by Eden and Leviatan (1975) as a means of understanding leader attributions and perceptions (Calder, 1977; Phillips & Lord, 1981) and the assimilation of information around leadership labels and prototypes (Foti, Fraser, & Lord, 1982; Lord, 1981). Briefly speaking, ILTs explore the covert

conceptual structure of leadership (i.e. what a leader should be in the minds of people) (Ling et al., 2000). In other words, ILTs are the followers' personal assumptions about the traits and abilities that characterize a leader (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004) or the image that a follower has of a leader in general (Schyns & Meindl, 2005). ILTs are cognitive schemas containing the traits and behaviors of leaders (Kenny, Schwartz-Kenny, & Blascovich, 1996). The traits in the cognitive schemas are generated based on personal characteristics and attributes that followers expect from their leaders. Therefore they do not represent objective realities but rather perceptual abstractions that followers use to categorize individuals in leadership positions (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004). However, these schemas do provide followers with a cognitive basis for understanding, explaining, responding and predicting leaders' behavior (Poole, Gioia, & Gray, 1989; Kraus & Gemmill, 1990; Bresnen 1995).

The theoretical foundation of ILTs lies in the work undertaken by Robert Lord and his associates (Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1984; Lord & Maher, 1993; Phillips & Lord, 1986). On the basis of Rosch's (1978) cognitive categorization theory, Lord et al. (1984) came up with a leadership categorization theory and argued that leadership perceptions form a number of hierarchically organized cognitive categories (or schemas), each of which is represented by a set of prototypes (Lord et al., 1984). In other words, perceivers (e.g. followers) classify stimulus persons (e.g. their supervisors) by comparing them to prototypes of a category (e.g. as a leader or a non-leader).

The concept of ILTs has inspired numerous different streams of research, such as information processing in leadership (e.g. Shamir, 1992), the content of ILTs (e.g. Offermann et al., 1994), generalizability (e.g. Den Hartog et al., 1994) and prediction (e.g. Keller, 1999). Information processing research aims to provide answers to the research question of “how does the information given to a participant shape the perception of the leader” (Lord, 1985). The ILTs content study intends to uncover the behaviors and attitudes that form individual's ILTs (Offermann, Kennedy, & Wirtz, 1994). The generalizability study tries to distinguish the differences between different types of leaders (Den Hartog et al., 1994). Finally, the stream of prediction research focuses on predicting ILTs (Keller, 1999) by using (for instance) personality characteristic as a predictor to explore how ILTs evolve. Among those streams of research, present study focuses primarily on the content of ILTs.

Several studies have examined the content of ILTs and the study of Epitropaki and Martin (2004) is of particular interest because it demonstrates the most recent scales of ILTs and it has been validated on work samples. Building on the work of Offermann et al. (1994), Epitropaki and Martin (2004) have cross-validated the findings and developed a shorter ILT scale. They come to a reduced set of items (from 41 items to 21 items) and a six-factor structure, namely Sensitivity, Dedication, Intelligence, Dynamism, Tyranny and Masculinity (Epitropaki and Martin, 2004). Sensitivity factor reflects the importance of consideration (Stogdill & Coons, 1957), leader support (House, Shane, & Herold, 1996), sensitivity to member's needs (Conger & Kanungo, 1994) and being compassionate. Dedication factor places value on being dedicated, disciplined, prepared and hard working. Intelligence factor is concerned with being clear, knowledgeable and wise. Dynamism is a collapse of Charisma and Attractiveness factor identified by Offermann et al., (1990). Tyranny refers to being domineering, power-hungry, pushy and manipulative. Finally, Masculinity means being masculine. In addition to the work conducted by Offermann et al., (1990) and Epitropaki and Martin (2004), Lord et al (1984) have identified 59 items; the study of Schein (1973), Deal and Stevenson (1998)

has identified 92 items. These items are used to describe the characteristics that can distinguish leaders from non-leaders (Schyns & Meindl, 2005).

Striking similarities have been identified among those studies on ILTs content (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004). All studies have included the attributes such as being intelligent, honest, sensitive, dynamic and motivated in the findings. Most attributes, except intelligence (Hunter & Hunter, 1984), are considered as relation-oriented or transformational (the softer side of effective leaders) rather than task-oriented, because most of them tend to increase the quality of human resources and relation (Yukl, 2012). In addition, no aspects regarding change-oriented or external-oriented are included in this theory. Therefore it can be assumed that followers' prototypical images of effective leaders (based on ILTs) consist mostly of relation-oriented (transformational) behaviors and the least with change-oriented behavior and external-oriented behaviors (Bass & Avolio, 1989; Den Hartog et al., 1999).

Despite the fact that ILTs are widely used by followers to understand leadership (Kenny, Schwarts-Kenny & Blascovich, 1996), literature suggests that ILTs bring biases to the study of effective leadership (Shamir, 1992) and ILTs are considered as sources of error in the measurement of leaders' behaviors (Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Gioia & Sims, 1985). First, followers' individual perceptions of effective leaders can be biased by factors such as cultural background, experiences or affective events (Brouwn & Keeping, 2005; Shondrick, Dinh, & Lord, 2010; Scrull & Wyer), especially when leadership is depicted as dyadic, relational and a complex social dynamic (Yukl 2006). Thus followers' perception will possibly change during the contact with leaders. All those factors can constrain followers' capacity to observe leaders' behaviors objectively. That's why scholars argued that the perceptions do not genuinely reflect the actual behaviors, and thus created a source of (unwanted) bias (Shondrick et al., 2010). Second, ILTs create bias in behavioral recall ratings because followers rely upon their implicit leader prototype when they describe leaders' actual behaviors (Schyns, Felfe & Blank, 2007). Studies show that attributes usually regarded as favorable (i.e. sensitivity, intelligence, dedication) receive higher proto-typicality ratings than those commonly regarded as unfavorable (i.e. tyranny, masculinity) (Schyns & Schilling, 2011). This means that when being asked for attributes of effective leaders, followers have the tendency to pick up the attributes that are usually regarded as favorable. Third, the ILTs mainly focus on images of effective or ideal leaders. Some researchers even assume that ILTs equal to daily beliefs regarding effective leadership (e.g. House, Hanges, Javidan, Dofman, & Gupta, 2004). Therefore, it is not surprising that such prototypical images of effective leaders do not include notions of ineffectiveness. However, leaders' actual behavioral repertoire is not exclusively considered to be effective but can also be considered to be ineffective (Schyns & Schilling, 2011). Therefore, the ILTs do not measure the leaders' behaviors from a wide range. Finally, the so-called effectiveness in ILTs is not measured in any objective way but purely considered as a mental model (Schyns & Shilling, 2011). This means that followers generate the prototypical images of their leaders that they consider to be effective according to their own mental model. Thus it is difficult to reach any consensus among the followers on the dimensions of leaders' effectiveness in general. This view is supported by the study of Schyns and Schilling (2011), in which they claim that most researches on ILTs are concerned with the attributes of effective or ideal leaders and do not question the effectiveness of dimensions used to describe leaders in general. In light of the criticisms of ILTs, it is therefore fair to conclude that it is not enough to

understand the concept of leadership purely through the lens of ILTs. What is also required is to examine the explicit side of leadership, i.e. the actual behavioral repertoire of effective leaders displayed in the organizational context. This responds to the argument made by scholars that insights in actual behaviors instead of mere perceptions provide more specific input for leadership research (Glynn & Raffaelli, 2010; Heath & Hindmarsh, 2007).

2.1.2. Transformational leadership theory

Apart from the perspective of ILTs, the transformational leadership theory shall also be taken into account when studying followers' perceptions of effective leaders. There are two reasons responsible for this decision. First, transformational leadership theories function as an underlying theory of ILTs and influence followers' perceptions of effective leaders (Schyns, Felfe & Blank, 2007). Bass and Avolio (1989) have examined the correlation between ILTs and transformational leadership. Their results indicate that prototypical traits are more correlated with transformational leadership than transactional leadership. In other words, followers see transformational leaders being closer to their images of effective leaders (Bass & Avolio, 1989). Further, Bass (1997) has suggested that when followers think about leadership, the ideal image they have is transformational. Furthermore the study of Den Hartog et al. (1999) indicates that attributes associated with transformational leadership are universally considered as outstanding leadership. Lastly, the meta-analysis of Lowe and associates (1996) has yielded a correlation of 0.08 between transformational leadership and followers' perceptual ratings of leader effectiveness. Second, the content of both theories can be considered similar to some extent. Transformational behavior can be seen as relation-oriented (Bass, 1990). As argued previously, the content of ILTs can be considered more relation-oriented as well. The content similarities can be observed. For example, the Sensitivity factor of ILTs can be linked to individualized consideration of transformational leadership because both factors require the leaders to be considerate to followers' individual needs. Taken together, ILTs and transformational leadership must both be taken into account when studying followers' prototypical image of effective leaders.

Transformational behaviors enable followers to perform beyond expectations (in line with relation-oriented behaviors) (DeRue et al., 2011; Yukl, 2010). Transformational leaders inspire their followers to contribute extra efforts to achieve collective goals (e.g. organizational or team relevant) and move beyond the followers' own interests (Bass et al. 2003). This theory consists of 4 I's, i.e. inspirational motivation, idealized influence (attributed and behavior), intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration (Avolio, Howell & Sosik, 1999). Inspirational motivation refers to the ways leaders energize followers by viewing the future with optimism, projecting an idealized vision and communicating to followers that the vision is achievable (Antonakis et al., 2003). Idealized influence has two aspects, namely attributed and behavior. Idealized influence (attributed) refers to leaders' charisma, whether the leader is perceived as being confident and powerful. Idealized influence (behavior) refers to charismatic actions of the leader that are centered on values, beliefs and a sense of mission. Intellectual stimulation places value on leaders' actions that appeal to the followers' sense of logic and analysis by challenging followers to think creatively and find solutions to difficult problems. Individualized consideration is the degree to which a leader is considerate and gives attention to and supports the personal

needs of the followers, and thus allowing them to develop and self-actualize.

In the literature, the positive relationship between transformational leadership and leadership effectiveness is often reported. Reviews and meta-analyses have found out that transformational leadership is related to indicators of leadership effectiveness in a majority of studies (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Yukl, 2013). Leaders who are more satisfying to their followers and who are more effective are more transformational and less transactional (Avolio & Bass, 1991). In this paradigm, the aspects of change-oriented and external-oriented are often ignored. Except that transformational leadership theory includes some change-oriented behaviors such as inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation (Bass, 1985; House, 1977). The prototypical images generated based on the transformational leadership theory consists mostly of relation-oriented behaviors and the least of change-oriented and external-oriented behavior. In sum, the previous arguments lead to the following proposition:

P1: Prototypical images of effective leaders consist mostly of relation-oriented behaviors and the least of change-oriented behaviors.

2.2 Behavioral Repertoire

The criticisms regarding the ILTs approach have encouraged scholars to look beyond leaders' traits and to study effective leaders' actual behaviors (DeRue et al., 2011). Literature has revealed that leaders' behavioral repertoire is complex because leaders have the capability to engage in a wide range of behaviors (Hooijberg & Quinn 1992). The present study has chosen to study the behaviors displayed by leaders during regular staff meetings. This is feasible because leaders' behaviors displayed during staff meetings can have implications for behaviors outside of the meeting (Baran et al., 2012). During the staff meetings, leaders display a wide range of behaviors (Nixon & Littlepage, 1992). In light of the complex nature of behavioral repertoire (Hooijberg & Quinn 1992), it is necessary to study the leaders' behaviors from a more focused setting e.g. regular staff meeting.

Literature review on behavioral repertoire has revealed a lack of integration of previous studies (Derue et al., 2011). For example, certain taxonomies include only a few broadly defined behavior categories while others intend to cover a full range of behaviors (Yukl, 2012). Another example is that new theories on leaders' behaviors are developed without explicit comparison to or falsification of existing leader behavior theories. Furthermore, most of the studies have only focused on one aspect of behaviors (Derue et al., 2011). However, the two-factor model of transformational and transactional behaviors (T-T; Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978) has been studied the most. This categorization is partially compatible with Yukl's autonomy (2012), more precisely, with the task-oriented and relation-oriented categories. With the primary objective of accomplishing work in an efficient and reliable way (Yukl, 2012), task-oriented behaviors include initiating structure, transactional leader behaviors such as contingent reward and management by exception-active (MBEA) (Derue et al., 2011). Initiating structure includes behaviors, for example, defining task roles, coordinating group members' actions, determining standards of task performance, and ensuring group members perform up to those standards. Similarly, transactional leaders make clear what is expected in terms of task performance and the rewards for meeting those expectations (contingent rewards), anticipate task-oriented problems, and take corrective action (MBEA). While transactional leadership tends to be

functionally directed, aimed at enhancing task accomplishment (i.e. in line with task-oriented behaviors), transformational behavior is focused on enabling others to perform beyond expectations (i.e. in line with relations-oriented behaviors) (DeRue et al., 2011; Yukl, 2010). A common theme among these relational-oriented behaviors is that the leader acts in ways that encourage followers to focus on the welfare of the group. This is in line with transformational leaders, who inspire their followers to contribute extra efforts to achieve collective goals and move beyond the individual interests (Bass et al. 2003). It should also be noted that certain aspects of transformational leader behaviors (e.g. individualized consideration) consist of elements of relational-oriented behaviors.

Despite the popularity, this two-factor categorization of leaders' behavior has received some criticisms. First, it is broadly defined rather than using specific component behaviors (Yukl, 1999). It is too over-simplistic and can omit other behaviors that do not fall under these two categories but remain important (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008; Yukl 1999). Second, except that transformational leadership has some change-oriented behavior, most of the early scholars have ignored it. Change-oriented behaviors encompass actions such as advocating change, articulating an inspiring vision, encouraging innovation, and encouraging collective learning (Yukl, 2012). The two elements of transformational leadership theory (i.e. inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation) create and facilitate change in organizations. In more details, the former focuses on communicating a compelling vision for the future and the latter seeks different perspectives from group members, challenges assumptions, and takes risk (DeRue et al., 2011). There is strong evidence showing that change-oriented behaviors are important for leaders' effectiveness (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). These criticisms of the two-factor categorization are important to take into account when responding to the call made by scholars to exam a wide range of leaders' behavioral repertoire.

In light of the above-mentioned issues, the present study has adopted the latest hierarchical taxonomy of Yukl (2012), including four meta-categories, i.e. task-oriented, relation-oriented, change-oriented and external-oriented behaviors. This hierarchical taxonomy is chosen because it provides a broad perspective for understanding the types of behaviors that determine leaders' effectiveness (Yukl, 2012). According to Yukl (2012), task-oriented behavior aims to accomplish work in an efficient and reliable way. Relation-oriented behavior intends to increase the quality of human resources and relations. Change-oriented behavior has the primary objective of increasing innovation, collective learning, and adaptation to the external environment. Finally external leadership behavior aims to acquire necessary information and resources, and to promote and defend the interests of the team or organization. Regarding the content of this taxonomy, task-oriented behaviors include clarifying, planning, monitoring operations and problem solving. Relations-oriented behaviors are supporting, developing, recognizing and empowering. Change-oriented behaviors equals to advocating change, articulating an inspiring vision, encouraging innovation, and encouraging collective learning. Lastly, external behaviors include networking, external monitoring, and representing.

In addition to the categories mentioned by Yukl (2012), the present study includes the counter-productive behaviors, which are defined as behaviors that undermine the goals, tasks, or overall effectiveness of the organization and/or the motivation of followers (Einarsen, Asaland and Skogstad, 2007). An example of counter-productive behaviors that is frequently

displayed in the staff meeting is “showing disinterest in their followers” (De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008). In present study, this category is included because such behaviors occur daily in organizational settings such as in staff meetings (Hoozeboom & Wilderom, 2015) and they form a part of a leader’s full behavioral repertoire (Schyns & Schilling, 2013). Looking from the perspective of a meeting setting, leaders are observed to display a set of behaviors, such as seeking information, giving information, summarizing, supporting, disagreeing, defending and so on. These behaviors have illustrated the necessity to consider leaders’ full behavioral repertoire in leadership research (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass 1985).

Leaders’ behaviors during staff meeting are more likely to be task-oriented. This statement is supported by the following three main arguments. First, staff meetings are seen as purposeful work-related interactions (Rogelberg, 2006) and crucial aspects of work are accomplished during the meetings (Hoozeboom & Wilderom, 2015). A staff meeting typically facilitates several processes, which are all task-oriented. For example, changing information, sharing procedural goals, making decisions, identifying problematic issues, brainstorming, or reaching an agreement on proposed solutions (Cox, 1987; Kriesberg, 1950). Second, in the study conducted by Myrsiades (2000), a set of roles of leaders are identified, such as guiding, stating goals, using problem-solving process etc. Most of the roles are related to task-oriented or transactional behaviors. Finally, the study conducted by Van der Weide and Wilderom (2004) also supports the notion that leader behaviors during staff meeting are more likely to be task-oriented. In their study, they video-recorded and coded the actual behaviors of effective middle-level managers in real work settings using direct observations (Van der Weide & Wilderom, 2004). They have identified four behavior categories with the following percentages: self-defending (20%), steering (40%), exploring (35%) and sounding (5%). The category “steering” is business-oriented and includes behaviors such as verifying, calling to order, monitoring and enforcing (Van der Weide & Wilderom, 2004). The effective managers monitor whether things develop according to plans and show steering behaviors when necessary. After referring to the taxonomy of Yukl (2012), it can be said that the business-oriented behavior “steering” can be put under the task-oriented category. The findings of Van der Weide and Wilderom (2004) suggest that the fulfillment of task in the actual organization is the most important in the actual behavioral repertoire of effective leaders (40%). The change-oriented and external-oriented behaviors are much less registered and they are usually considered to be a task for high-ranking managers.

In sum, staff meetings are vital for communication in organizations and are used for a range of crucial organizational processes, such as problem solving, getting buy-in, decision making, or information dissemination (e.g. Rolberg, Allen, Shanock, Scott & Shuffer, 2010; Tracy & Domock, 2004). Moreover, it can be shown that the meetings tend to be an efficient way to coordinate work across hierarchical layers, which is in line with the primary objective of the task-oriented behaviors, as defined by Yukl (2012). Taken together, the arguments above lead to the following propositions:

P2: Actual behavioral repertoire of leaders consists mostly of task-oriented behaviors and the least of change-oriented behaviors.

3. METHODOLOGY

The present study adopts a mixed-method design, an approach that integrates the collection and analysis of both quantitative

and quantitative data (Stentz et al., 2012). This type of design maximizes the strength of each approach (and makes up for the weakness as well) and increases validity of the results (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). In addition, this particular design also reduces common method/source bias (Podsakoff, 2003) because it adopts both an open-question format and video-observation method to study the prototypical images and behavioral repertoire of effective leaders respectively. The sample was drawn from three divisions of one large public Dutch organization. Their regularly held meetings chaired by leaders were videotaped. Followers in this study were operationalized as individuals acting in a subordinate role (Bjugstad et al., 2006). There might be criticisms of this operationalization, for example that subordinates are not always followers as managers are not always leaders (Bedeian & Hunt, 2006). However, it is of vital importance to investigate how subordinates (i.e. followers) perceive effective managers (i.e. leaders).

When studying the prototypical image of effective leaders in the organization, a qualitative methodology was adopted. Qualitative research is the most suitable methodology for the concept of leadership as this concept “involves multiple levels of phenomena, processes a dynamic character, and has a symbolic component” (Conger, 1998, pp. 109). Furthermore, a qualitative method grants researchers much subjective freedom in terms of understanding those phenomena and components. To extract followers’ understanding of effective leaders, they are instructed to answer the open question right after each videotaped staff meeting. The answers to the open question (i.e. *what are the characteristics of an effective leader?*) are analyzed. Followers can give three answers to that question. The use of open-question format can be considered as a direct measure, which is frequently implemented by ILTs studies to measure leadership prototypes and their effect on leader behavior measurements (Epitropaki et al., 2013). This approach is related to the so-called trait-lists, namely the traits of effective leaders. In addition to the open-question format, leaders’ displayed behaviors during the meetings are observed and videotaped. Finally, a comparison will be made between followers’ prototypical images of effective leaders and effective leaders’ behavioral repertoire to answer the main research question raised in this study.

3.1 Open-question format: followers’ prototypical image of effective leaders

3.1.1 Participants

1491 followers from one large Dutch public organization are asked to write down answers to reveal their perceptions of effective leaders. Among them 843 followers (56.5%) have actually given answers to the open question. It is beneficial to have such a big sample size because more information is available. In addition, it will be more confident that the model can be seen as a reflection of the population (Tanaka, 1987). Followers’ characteristics include: 64.3% males; an average age of 49.11 (standard deviation=10.7); average job tenure of 24 years (standard deviation=13.77). 45.3% of the respondents are educated at the MBO level, 29.7% at HBO level and 16.6% at master level, 1.6% with PHD and the rest with other education levels.

3.1.2 Coding and analysis strategy

Qualitative coding of the answers to the open question was conducted using a method referred as “inductive analysis”. It is consistent with a grounded theory approach that major topics are discovered “through an analyst’s interactions with data” (Patton, 2002, p.453). Inductive analysis allows the researcher to continually create and refine categories (Katz, 1983). The

present study follows the steps outlined by Goetz and LeCompte (1981). The steps are as follows: (1) reviewing the data that had been collected to date and identifying first-order codes emerged; (2) revisiting categories previously devised and assessing their relevance to new data; (3) creating typologies or themes that emerged and (4) assessing the relationships between the categories (Goetz & LeCompte, 1981).

After collecting all the written answers to the open question, it is necessary to code all different responses into a relatively small number of meaningful categories mentioned in the codebook. During the initial coding process, as many categories as needed are created in order to organize, explain and assign the raw data to those categories in a coherent manner (Lee, 1999). Some codes are taken from the Affective and Cognitive model. A number of additional constructs emerged during the coding process (e.g. integrity¹, empathy²) are also included in the initial coding schema. Based on the definitions, answers such as “honesty” have been coded as “integrity”, “understanding the employees” as “empathy”. Two independent coders read and re-read the collected data to assign a preliminary label. For example, the answers “knowhow” and “being competent” have appeared quite often and they are coded as “cognitive trust” in the first order labels (which was finally re-coded as “cognitive job capability”). In the end, there were 70 preliminary codes.

After devising the first order codes, a critical look has been given to the codes. By calculating the frequency, namely the number of times that a particular code was mentioned in the answers given by the respondents (Lee et al., 1999), the researchers suggested get rid of the codes that have frequency lower than 5 by assigning them to other bigger categories. For example, based on literature, the code “honesty” “open” and “transparency” were emerged under “integrity”. Some other codes are separated for few smaller codes. For example, the code “collective” is separated into “team player” and “integrity”. Other codes have been given a different name, such as “cognitive trust” was changed to “cognitive job capability”. However, this was not the entire case for all the codes, e.g. networking and loyalty have frequency of 2 but they are still kept because the researchers believe that it is also important to analyze those unusual codes. Once agreement was reached among the research team on coding, two independent coders have replicated the entire coding process. They have worked independently to improve the accuracy of content analysis and to maintain the inter-coder agreement. Both coders have first made the independent coding of all answers. Then they have discussed their differences to arrive at the “best” judgment in every case of disagreement. A record of differences is kept, and this constitutes the basis of a report on the overall coding reliability of the entire set of responses. This process yields a final coding scheme with 30 prototypical characteristics of effective leaders. Each code has its own number in order for SPSS to make the frequency table. **Appendix 11.1** is an overview of the 30 prototypical-characteristics with definitions and some illustrative examples.

3.1.3 General categories

Yukl’s taxonomy (2012) is used to measure followers’ prototypical images of effective leaders because followers tend to put the leaders into certain categories based on their own ILTs (Rosch, 1987). All the 30 qualitatively delivered

¹ Integrity is adherence to moral and ethical principles; soundness of moral character: honesty

² Empathy is the ability to comprehend another’s feelings and to re-experience them oneself (Salovey and Mayer, 1990).

prototypical characteristics have been categorized according to Yukl’s taxonomy (2012) based on his definitions. Task-oriented include behaviors such as “goal orientation”, “cognitive job capability”, “management by exception” etc. Relation-oriented behaviors include “integrity”, “empathy” and “positive affect”. Change-oriented behaviors include “openness to change” etc. Finally, external behaviors include “networking” and “environmental monitoring”. After categorizing the behaviors according to Yukl (2012), the frequency for each category is calculated. Above is a brief introduction. Detailed categorization of the 30 prototypical-characteristics into Yukl’s taxonomy (2012) is displayed in Table 1 under section 4.1.

3.2 Video observation: leaders’ behavioral repertoire

The video-observation method is rarely used in social sciences (Hindmarsh & Heath, 2007). However it is especially useful when observing leader behavior during ordinary work practices (Amabile et al., 2004).

3.2.1 Participants

The observational data is collected from 114 leaders. This data was obtained during regular staff meetings held within three divisions of one large Dutch public sector organization that operates throughout the Netherlands. Leader characteristics included: 58.7% males; average age of 48.77 (S.D. = 10.68); average job tenure of 23.73 (S.D. = 13.89); and average team tenure of 4.00 years (S.D. = 5.26). They were predominantly educated at the senior-vocational level (49.1%); others had a Bachelor’s degree (32.6%) while 18.3% had a Master’s degree.

3.2.2 Procedures and measure

In order to code the leaders’ behaviors, regularly held staff meetings chaired by each of the participating leaders were recorded. The length of the video-recorded meetings ranged from 49 minutes to 212 minutes; in total 9678 minutes of meeting time was coded. Three cameras were positioned at fixed places during the videotaping and no video technicians were present. The motivation of this was to minimize obtrusiveness and reactivity to ensure that recorded behaviors can be fairly representative. Reactivity is a known potential threat to the external validity of study findings (Campbell & Stanley, 1966).

After the displayed behaviors were recorded, they were systematically and meticulously analyzed by two independent coders, on the basis of a pre-developed codebook and the use of specialized video-observation software from Noldus Information Technologies “The Observer XT” (Noldus et al., 2000; Spiers, 2004). This program is developed for the analysis, management and presentation of observational data (Noldus et al., 2000). The pre-developed codebook includes detailed indications for coding leader behaviors. Both coders have background in Business Administration and are trained on how to use the software and codebook beforehand. The behaviors were coded on the basis of duration and frequencies of the observed behavior. The observed behaviors were all standardized according to the shortest video time in order to enable direct comparisons of the frequency of actor’s behaviors. The inter-coder agreement also applies in the process of video coding. After coding the videos, these behaviors were also categorized according to (part of) Yukl’s taxonomy (2012) to calculate the frequency. Due to the fact that issues discussed during staff meetings are mainly internally focused, the category of external-oriented behavior is not included. On the contrary, the counter-productive category is included because leaders do display those types of behaviors during the staff meeting. Counter-productive includes following behaviors,

namely “defending one’s own position”, “providing negative feedback”, “disagreeing” and “showing disinterest”. Task-oriented behaviors include “structuring the conversation”, “verifying” and so on. Relation-oriented behaviors consist of “agreeing”, “providing positive feedback”, “humor” etc. Finally, change-oriented include behaviors that are relevant to vision, such as “vision: long term”, “vision: own opinion on organizational strategy” and “vision: one’s own opinion”. **Appendix 11.2** is an overview of the 19 leader behaviors with definitions and some illustrative examples. For detailed categorization of them, please refer to the Table 2 under section 4.2.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Followers’ prototypical images of effective leaders: Mainly relation-oriented behaviors

Table 1 shows an overview of followers’ perception of effective leaders. Their perceptions are illustrated by how often one type of characteristic has been written down. Generally speaking, relation-oriented (transformational) leaders match best with followers’ prototypical image of effective leaders. As supported by the data, the relation-oriented behavior is very outstanding (55,30%), comparing to task-oriented (32,92%), change-oriented (10,40%) and external-oriented (1,38%) behaviors. The category of relation-oriented includes characteristics such as “being empathic”, “being social”, “displaying affective trust”, “being calm” etc. The primary objective of this category is to increase the quality of human resources and relations. The category with the second highest frequency is “task-oriented”. Under this category, there are characteristics such as “being goal oriented”, “possessing cognitive job capability” and “displaying directive leadership style” etc. This category is mainly focused on the completion of task in an effective manner. Thirdly, change-oriented category has a frequency of 10,40%. This category includes characteristics such as “being open to change”, “voice climate” and “displaying pro-active behavior”. Finally, the external-oriented category has the lowest frequency (1,38%). Under this category, only two characteristics are mentioned, i.e. “environmental monitoring” and “networking”.

Results show that followers usually consider relation-oriented (transformational) leaders to be the most effective. Specifically, among the 30 types of characteristics, “integrity” is the most frequently mentioned (291 times with the highest frequency of 13,40%). A large amount of followers think that an effective leader shall be a person of integrity, i.e. being honest, keeping his/her promises etc. Secondly, “being goal oriented” is also mentioned frequently (281 times and a frequency of 12,94%). Thirdly, followers consider vital for an effective leader to be cognitively capable (230 times, frequency of 10,59%). It means that next to being ethical, followers also consider effective leaders being goal oriented and cognitively capable. Moreover, the “group focused transformational style” has been mentioned 185 times with a frequency of 8,52% while “being empathic” has been mentioned 180 times (frequency of 8,29%).

In addition to those frequently written relevant characteristics, table 1 also shows the characteristics with a frequency lower than 1%. For example, “being customer oriented” is the least frequently mentioned characteristic (only being mentioned twice with a frequency of 0,09%). Similarly “being loyal” is mentioned also only twice (frequency of 0,09%). This may be caused by the fact that followers analyze leadership from their own perspectives; therefore for them the loyalty of leaders to the organization is less important. Remarkably also,

“networking” is being rated at a low rate (3 times and with a frequency of 0,14%).

To summarize, the results are in line with the propositions formulated under section 2.1 that the prototypical images of effective leaders consist mostly of relation-oriented characteristics. According to the findings, followers’ prototypical images of effective leaders consist least of the external-oriented characteristics. This is different from the proposition that states followers’ perception shall consist least of change-oriented characteristics.

Table 1: Frequency of followers’ perceptions of effective leader characteristics (N_{follower} =1491)

Prototypical Characteristic	Count	Frequency
1. Being goal orientated	281	12,94
2. Cognitive job capability	230	10,59
3. Directive leadership style	95	4,37
4. Being responsible	43	1,98
5. Being engaged	30	1,38
6. Managing by exception	17	0,78
7. Instrumental leadership style	14	0,65
8. Being resilient	5	0,23
Subtotal Task-oriented	715	32,92
9. Integrity	291	13,40
10. Group focused transformational style	185	8,52
11. Being empathic	180	8,29
12. Good communicator	80	3,68
13. Individual focused transformational style	79	3,64
14. Team player	68	3,13
15. Job involvement	54	2,49
16. Being social	42	1,93
17. Displaying affective trust	41	1,89
18. Displaying positive affect	41	1,89
19. Conservative	38	1,75
20. Empowered	31	1,43
21. Intra-team trust	29	1,34
22. Supportive leadership style	26	1,20
23. Being calm	14	0,65
24. Being loyal	2	0,09
Subtotal Relation-oriented	1201	55,30
25. Voice climate	132	6,08
26. Being open to change	84	3,87
27. Pro-active behavior	8	0,37
28. Being customer oriented	2	0,09
Subtotal Change - oriented	226	10,40
29. Environmental monitoring	27	1,24
30. Networking	3	0,14
Subtotal External-oriented	30	1,38
Total	2172	100%

4.2 Leader actual behavioral repertoire during staff meetings: Mainly task-oriented behaviors

Table 2 presents an overview of the duration and frequency of the same leaders' actual behaviors (n=114) displayed during regular staff meeting. These behaviors are videotaped and then reliably coded according to the codebook by two independent coders. The coding process has used a validated list of 19 behaviors. In general, transactional leadership behaviors (task-oriented) are, in comparison with transformational, counterproductive and change oriented behavior, the most displayed behaviors. This is supported by the frequency and duration of behaviors, i.e. task-oriented behavior (56,79% frequency and 63,62% duration), change-oriented behavior (21,33% frequency and 24,32% duration), relation-oriented behavior (19,09% frequency and 10,27% duration) and counter productive behavior (2,97% frequency and 1,79% duration). Task-oriented (transactional) behaviors include "structuring the conversation", "verifying", "informing" etc., which all aim to efficiently complete tasks. Change-oriented behaviors have the second highest frequency and duration. This category consist of "vision: long term", "vision: one's own opinion" and "vision: own opinion on organizational strategy". The relation-oriented (transformational) behaviors include "humor", "visioning", "providing positive feedback", "personal informing" etc. Finally, leaders during the meeting also display counter-productive behaviors (2,79% frequency and 1,79% duration), which include "defending own position", "providing negative feedback", "disagreeing" and "showing disinterest".

Apart from the general description above, table 2 shows effective leaders' outstanding behaviors. "Informing" is the most displayed leader behavior with the highest duration (47,06%) and frequency (27,86%). The second most frequently observed leader behavior during the staff meeting is "vision: one's own opinion", which has the frequency of 19,94% and duration of 21,64%. In contrast, table 2 also shows the displayed behaviors with the shortest duration and the lowest frequency. "Showing disinterest" is the least displayed leader behavior (0,04% duration and 0,06% frequency).

In sum, the data partially support the propositions that leaders' actual behavioral repertoire mostly consists of task-oriented behavior (transactional). It consist least of counter productive behavior, instead of change-oriented behaviors as formulated in the propositions.

Table 2: Duration and frequency of leaders' displayed behaviors during staff meetings in percentage (N_{leader}=114)

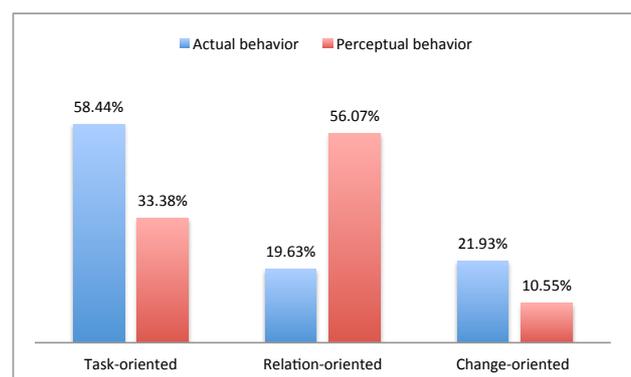
Behavior	Frequency	Duration
1. Defending own position	1,25	1,05
2. Disagreeing	0,97	0,30
3. Providing negative feedback	0,51	0,40
4. Showing disinterest	0,06	0,04
Subtotal Counter-productive	2,79	1,79
5. Informing	27,86	47,06
6. Verifying	13,03	5,81
7. Structuring the conversation	11,54	8,50
8. Directing / delegating	1,93	1,51
9. Directing / Interrupting	1,74	0,37
10. Directing / correcting	0,70	0,37
Subtotal Task-oriented	56,79	63,62
11. Agreeing	5,65	1,66

12. Positive attention	4,31	2,27
13. Intellectual stimulation	3,55	2,99
14. Humor	2,84	1,49
15. Providing positive feedback	1,87	0,96
16. Personal informing	0,86	0,90
Subtotal Relation-oriented	19,09	10,27
17. Vision: one's own opinion	19,94	21,64
18. Vision: long term	1,12	2,20
19. Vision: own opinion on organizational strategy	0,27	0,48
Subtotal Change oriented	21,33	24,32
Total	100%	100%

4.3 The comparisons and critical analysis of effective leaders' behaviors

As the research question suggests, the present study aims to compare the followers' perceptions of effective leaders with effective leaders' actual behavioral repertoire. Table 1 is the overview of followers' prototypical images and table 2 is leaders' actual behavioral repertoire. These two tables have different categorization principles. On the one hand, the 30 characteristics (listed in table 1) are divided into the four categories of Yukl (2012), namely, task-oriented, relation-oriented, change-oriented and external-oriented. On the other side, the 19 actual behaviors (listed in Table 2) of leaders have been divided into task-oriented, relation-oriented and change-oriented and counter-productive categories. These two tables don't use the same categorization principle; it is therefore hard to make the comparison. In order to solve this problem, computation has been made in a way that both tables include only task-oriented, relation-oriented and change-oriented aspects. Please refer to the calculation results in **Appendix 11.3** (prototypical characteristic) and **Appendix 11.4** (actual behaviors). Figure 1 demonstrates the difference.

Figure 1: Comparison between followers' perception of effective leaders and leader's actual behavioral repertoire



The above graph does provide some insights into the differences between the perceptions and actual behaviors. Based on their own ILTs, followers perceive effective leaders to display mostly the relation-oriented behavior (56,07%) and the least of change-oriented behavior (10,55%). Actually leaders mostly displayed the task-oriented behavior (58,44%) during the regular staff meetings. As a matter of fact, leaders during

the meetings have displayed the change-oriented behavior more frequently (21,93%), compared to the perceptions (10,55%).

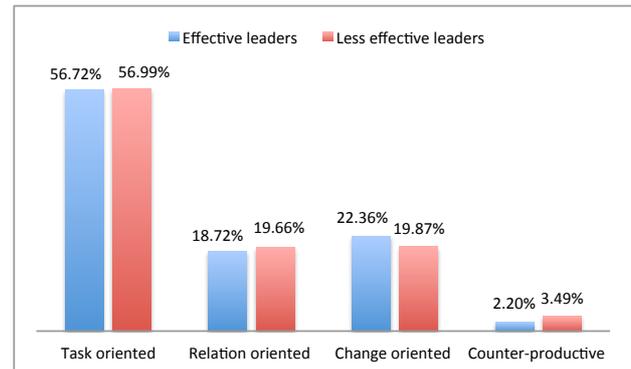
However, this comparison does not answer the main research question accurately. The perception is generated based on the image of *effective* leaders, while the actual behaviors are the videotaped behaviors of all leaders during the regular staff meeting. In order to capture the real differences between the perceptions and the actual behaviors of *effective* leaders, it is necessary to have a critical look at the actual behaviors of those 114 leaders. The 114 leaders are divided into two groups based on their effectiveness score. When leaders' effectiveness score is higher than 7, they are considered to be "effective leaders". When leaders' effectiveness score is lower or equal to 7, they are considered to be "less effective leaders". Among the 114 leaders, 65 of them are effective and 47 leaders are less effective. The key question here needs to be answered is what kind of behaviors do those effective leader display during the staff meetings. Therefore, it is important to break down the behaviors of both effective and less effective leaders. Table 3 provides a break down of the behaviors:

Table 3: Breakdown of behaviors of effective leaders and less effective leaders

Behavior	Effective leaders (n=65)		Less effective leaders (n=47)	
	Freq.	Dur.	Freq.	Dur.
1. Defending own position	0,96	0,72	1,54	1,41
2. Providing negative feedback	0,33	0,24	0,72	0,58
3. Disagreeing	0,87	0,25	1,14	0,39
4. Showing disinterest	0,04	0,03	0,10	0,06
Counter-productive	2,20	1,23	3,49	2,44
5. Structuring the conversation	11,53	8,22	11,45	8,72
6. Verifying	13,37	5,94	12,71	5,70
7. Informing	27,82	47,26	27,94	47,09
8. Directing / Interrupting	1,47	0,31	2,14	0,45
9. Directing / Correcting	0,54	0,29	0,91	0,49
10. Directing / Delegating	1,98	1,52	1,84	1,46
Task oriented	56,72	63,54	56,99	63,91
11. Agreeing	5,63	1,65	5,70	1,70
12. Providing positive feedback	1,87	0,87	1,82	1,04
13. Humor	2,95	1,44	2,70	1,56
14. Personal informing	0,70	0,98	1,10	0,80
15. Positive attention	4,00	2,14	4,83	2,49
16. Intellectual stimulation	3,57	3,05	3,51	2,88
Relation oriented	18,72	10,12	19,66	10,48
17. Vision: long term	0,62	1,29	1,73	3,30

18. Vision: own opinion on organizational strategy	0,17	0,40	0,39	0,60
19. Vision: one's own opinion	21,57	23,42	17,74	19,27
Change oriented	22,36	25,11	19,87	23,17
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%

Figure 2: The comparison between effective leaders (n=65) and less effective leaders (n=47)³



As observed from table 3 and Figure 2, significant differences are mainly occurring in terms of counter-productive behavior (2,20% & 3,49%) and change-oriented behavior (22,36% & 19,87%) between the behaviors of effective and less effective leaders. For relation-oriented and task-oriented behaviors, both groups have displayed similar behaviors with similar frequency and duration. Therefore, preliminary conclusion can be drawn here that difference between these two groups of leaders is mainly related to few specific behaviors. This will be tested by the independent samples t-test.

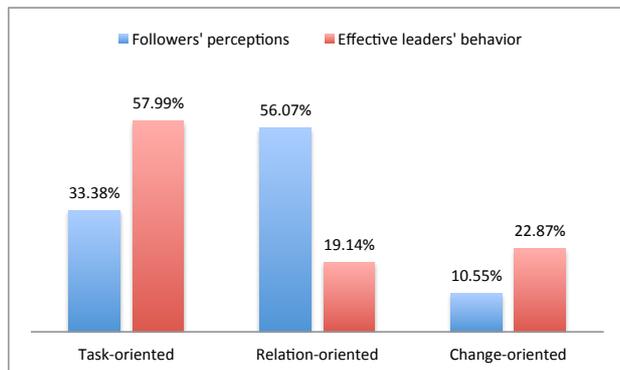
Independent samples t-test is used to compare two means when there are two experimental conditions and different participants were assigned to each condition. Before conducting the t-test, assumptions have been tested. For instance, the samples are independent from each other. The results of the normality test (see **Appendix 11.5**) have also confirmed the approximate normal distribution of the data. In order to be precise, the present study has investigated the difference of each behavior between these two groups (please refer to the **Appendix 11.6** for the detailed results of the independent samples t-test). Generally speaking, the difference between these two groups is significant only for three specific behaviors, i.e. providing negative feedback (p-value=0.032, df=75,477), vision: long term (p-value=0.06, df=78,235) and vision: one's own opinion (p-value=0,02, df=97,482). Their p-values (sig. two-sided) are smaller than 0.05. It can then be concluded that there are three statistically significant differences between effective and less effective leaders. For the rest of the 19 behaviors, their p-value is higher than 0.05, therefore for those 16 behaviors, there are no statistically significant differences.

After knowing this, it then leads to a comparison of the difference between the perceptions and *effective* leaders' behaviors in order to answer the main research question,

³ The author has also analyzed the more extreme values and compared the differences between highly effective leaders (n=17, when leader effectiveness score ≥ 8) and least effective leaders (n=18, when leader effectiveness score ≤ 6.5). The results are similar.

namely *prototypical follower images of effective leaders: to what extent do they match effective leaders' actually displayed behavioral repertoire?* As shown in Figure 3 below, followers' perceptions of effective leaders do not match completely or accurately with the actual behaviors of *effective* leaders. In the perceptions, effective leaders display mostly relation-oriented behaviors, while their actual behaviors consist mostly of task-oriented behavior.

Figure 3: The comparison between effective leaders and followers' perceptions of effective leaders



4.4 Results summary

Taken together, the present study has obtained two valid findings:

1. Followers' prototypical images do not match completely or accurately with effective leaders' actual behavioral repertoire.
 - In the prototypical images of effective leaders, they display mostly relation-oriented (transformational) behaviors (56,07%). Therefore followers perceive the softer side of leadership to be more effective.
 - In reality, effective leaders display mostly task-oriented (transactional) behaviors (58,16%). The effective leaders focus more on the efficient completion of tasks.
 - The effective leaders also display more change-oriented behaviors.
2. Significant differences are identified between effective leaders and less effective leaders for three behaviors: "providing negative feedback", "vision: long term" and "vision: one' own opinion". Thus, effective leaders display significantly less "providing negative feedback" but more "vision: long term" and "vision: one's own opinion".

5. DISCUSSION

The purpose of this empirical study was to further enhance the understanding of effective leader behavior by comparing followers' prototypical images of effective leaders with effective leaders' actual behavioral repertoire displayed during regular staff meetings. This study adopts a mixed-method design in combination with a written open-question format and video-observation method. The results of open survey question reveal 30 prototypical characteristics of effective leaders. The video-observation method had 19 mutually exclusive behaviors. Based on a comparison of the video- and open-question data, this study seems to support the idea that so-called ILTs do assist followers in understanding their leaders (Eden and Leviatan,

1975; Epitropaki and Martin, 2005). But can followers really accurately identify what is an effective leader? The findings have answered the main research question of this paper: there is no complete or accurate match between followers' prototypical images of an effective leader and their leaders' actual behavioral repertoire. In more detail, table 1 under section 4.1 shows that followers' prototypical images of an effective leader are mostly relation-oriented (transformational). However, effective leaders were found to display much more task-oriented (transactional) behaviors, as shown in table 2 under section 4.2. Thus followers' perceptions of an effective leader do not accurately reflect effective leaders' actual behavioral repertoire, as discussed under section 4.3. There are a few notable discussion points.

First, the findings show that the current followers' prototypical image of effective leaders is relation-oriented (i.e. focusing on soft or relational type of aspects) while effective leaders tend to show much more frequently task-oriented behaviors. Moreover, followers' prototypical images of an effective leader lacks of the negative aspects. Schyns and Schilling (2011) have conducted a study where they investigate specifically negative prototypical images and their study shows that people actually have more positive prototype images of effective leaders. Similarly in this study, according to the data collected from the open question, no single follower has revealed anything negative in their perceptions of an effective leader. For example, no single answer from these follower states that effective leaders might display any counter-productive behaviors, which are defined as behaviors that undermine the goals, tasks, or overall effectiveness of the organization and/or the motivation of followers (Einarsen, Asaland, & Skogstad, 2007). Yet, effective leaders do display still some of this type of behavior, such as "defending own position" (0,96% frequency and 0,72% duration), "disagreeing" (0,87% frequency and 0,25% duration) and "providing negative feedback" (0,33% frequency and 0,24% duration). This gap can be explained in the following two ways. First, studies show that attributes usually regarded as favorable (i.e. sensitivity, intelligence, dedication) receive higher proto-typicality ratings than those commonly regarded as unfavorable (i.e. tyranny, masculinity) (Schyns & Schilling, 2011). Therefore when being asked to write down the characteristics of effective leaders, followers tend to pick up the attributes that are more favorable and that actually does occur also significantly more frequently. Second, the prior focus of research into ILTs is primarily around effective or ideal leaders (Schyns & Schilling, 2011). Therefore, it is not surprising that the prototypical images of leaders in those studies do not include negative notions. However, leaders' actual behaviors do not exclusively include positive behavioral characteristics (Schyns & Schilling, 2011). Thus this means that current effective leadership theorizing needs to be made much more complete, including a greater variety of aspects of leader behaviors with a prototypical negative and positive connotation.

Second, results show that no single leader has displayed any external-oriented behaviors during the staff meeting. According to Yukl, external-oriented behaviors are primarily focused on the outside events, including networking and environmental monitoring. This behavior category is highly valued as it is important for most leaders to build and maintain favorable relationships with peers, superiors, and outsiders who can provide information, resources, and political support (Iharra & Hunter, 2007; Kaplan, 1984; Kotter, 1982; Michael & Yukl, 1973). However, this type of behavior is missing from the actual behavioral repertoire; this can be explained by the nature and purpose of the staff meeting. Staff meetings are mostly held

for the purpose of facilitating internal productivity (Miller, 1994). Therefore, they are mostly internally oriented. Future research ought to focus on the content of the behavior during meetings. Perhaps in meetings chaired by effective meetings more allusions are being made by needs of those who are not present in the meetings, especially consumers or clients or market type-of stakeholders. Alternatively, in addition to the video-coding of merely staff meetings, it is recommended to engage more in video-shadowing so that we can show that perhaps outside the fairly static meetings more attention is being paid by effective leaders to the needs of external constituencies.

Third, not only the external types of behavior of effective leaders but also change-oriented behavioral attributes were hardly noted by followers. For example, “being customer oriented” is the least frequently mentioned characteristic (only being mentioned twice with a frequency of 0,09%). These two aspects are mainly related to the changing environments or contexts. On the one hand, the low frequency rate of change-oriented behaviors in the followers’ perceptions might be caused by a lack of knowledge, as followers might do not really consider the importance of change skill or focus of an effective leader on the external environment. On the other hand, even though they are well aware of the dynamic environment that organizations currently have to deal with, leaders display also relatively less change-oriented behavior. This can be explained partly by the problem of change as pointed out by Niccolo Machiavelli. According to him, change is difficult and involves risks and leaders may display a lack of commitment to change (Gill, 2003). This lack of commitment may be due to a lack of compelling evidence for the benefits of change. In addition, leader might lack know-how or conviction on the motivational benefits of organizational change. Furthermore, leaders may emotionally dislike imposed change or organizational surprises (Kubr, 1996). Also the results point out that effective leaders are more concerned with the short-term task execution and facilitation than with longer-term vision for the unit they lead. This tends to be a bit surprising as well, because in the literature on the subtle differences between “managers” and “leaders” the latter are often connoted with taking a longer-term approach to the tasks and people they coordinate.

Finally, the results show that effective leaders blend well a combination of task- and relation-oriented behaviors while though the results have shown that the prototypical image of effective leaders consists mostly of relation-oriented behaviors. This combination could be called the “augmentation effect” (Bass, 1985), which has been tested by several scholars (Hater & Bass, 1988; O’Shea et al., 2009). Their results tend to show positive effects of transactional leadership behaviors in combination with transformational leadership behaviors. Therefore it is important to think in this way that effective leaders shall best combine the relation-oriented and task-oriented behaviors. The degree to which each respondent has addressed this special blend of orientations is an avenue for further research. Preliminary observations showed that most respondents did not write down such a balanced blend of the type of behaviors that the effective leaders in this study actually engaged in. Most followers’ places excessive emphasis on the relational type of behaviors whereas in reality effective leaders display much more often and longer task-related behaviors in addition to the type of behaviors that have are currently labelled as counter-productive behaviors.

6. THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

This study has compared followers’ prototypical images of effective leaders with effective leaders’ actual behavioral repertoire by adopting a mixed-method design. The results obtained contribute to existing theory in multiple ways.

First and foremost, this study showed and provided additional information to the notion suggested by existing literature that followers use ILTs to understand leadership. In their perceptions, the effective leaders are mostly relation-oriented (transformational). This study employed a large sample size when studying followers’ perception (n=1491). It has further contributed to the validity and reliability of the results.

Further, this research has bridged the gap between leadership studies based on ILTs and those on effective leaders’ actual behavioral repertoire. As highlighted in the literature review (section 2), a large portion of contemporary leadership research has focused on ILTs, transformational and transactional leadership insights. This study adds important insights to leadership theory development by concluding that prototypical effective leader images of followers do not match with actual effective leaders’ behavioral repertoire. To the author’s best knowledge, not many other studies have empirically studied the differences, except, for example, the work of Hoozeboom and Wilderom (2015). Even in their work, they did not use the open-question format, which is adopted in present study. Therefore the findings of this study can be seen as a new contribution to the leadership literature.

Finally, this research has also analyzed the behavioral differences between effective and less effective groups. Statistically significant differences have been found for behaviors such as “disagreeing”, “providing negative feedback” and “vision: long term”. This information can be of great value for both followers and leaders from the practical perspective.

In light of the above-mentioned theoretical implications, the results of this study provide implications from both managerial (leader) and non-managerial (followers) perspectives.

First, given the fact that followers’ perceptions of effective leaders do not match with effective leaders’ actual behavioral repertoire, it is important to train the followers to develop awareness about how ILTs shape action their action tendencies. This is particularly important given that much of daily behaviors operate without full conscious awareness (Wood, Quinn, & Kashy, 2002) and individuals may not be fully aware how their implicit theories shape action tendencies without such training. This consciousness for followers is important because they can then better understand their leaders.

Second, from the perspective of leadership, leaders can be trained and developed to be more effective. This is based on the notion, guided also by meta-analyses, that leadership is learnable (Avolio et al., 2009). Even though traits such as intelligence and personality are something one is born with (Bouchard & Loehlin, 2001; Bouchard & McGue, 2003), some aspects such as charisma but also many habitual behaviors can be taught and developed (Antonakis et al., 2011). Leadership is a dynamic concept involving other parties such as followers. Therefore the “wider context” means to acknowledge the role of followers in the leadership development process (Day, 2001). In more details, leaders shall develop the awareness of both their own and their followers’ view of effective leadership (Schyns et al., 2011). Subsequently, leaders can increase their contextual sensitivity and match better with their followers’ expectations. Furthermore, as explained above that followers shall also have the consciousness of ILTs, they need to understand their own

ITs and be aware that there is no accurate match between their perceptions and effective leaders' actual behaviors. This type of consciousness and understanding provides them a better idea of leadership. The present study on the differences between followers' perceptions and leaders' actual behavioral repertoires, help (potential) leaders to become better leaders because the findings provide them with followers' expectations and to what extent they match with them. This can further improve the leader-follower exchange quality. As leader-follower exchange unfolds in several stages in which trust, loyalty and respect develop (Bass, 1999), more knowledge for both followers and leaders will improve the degree of team and organizational effectiveness.

Finally, this study has identified the behavioral differences between the effective and less effective leaders. The results can function as a checklist for leaders and/or potential leaders. In order to be effective, they are recommended to display less counter-productive behaviors, such as "providing negative feedback" but more change-related behaviors, such as "vision: long term" and "vision: one's own opinion". This can be practiced and trained during normal working setting.

7. STRENGTHS, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Traditionally the perceptions of effective leaders are measured by using traditional qualitative method such as the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass & Bass, 2008). Unfortunately, these methods are not without criticism (Hunt, 1991; Yukl, 1998). For example, some studies indicate that the factor structure of MLQ may not always be stable (Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995; Carless, 1998a). Other studies criticize MLQ for lacking of discriminant validity (Antonais et al., 2003). This research adopts the mixed-method design, i.e. the mix of a qualitative approach (written answers to an open survey question) and a quantitative approach (video based coding), which offers much strength. Answers to the open questions help to understand followers' perceptions about leader effectiveness. And the video-based coding helps to observe effective leaders' behaviors in the field. The use of these two methods entails no common-method / source-bias in this study. However, this study is still subject to several relevant limitations.

First, given the exploratory qualitative approach adopted for the study of followers' perceptions of effective leaders, the relevant findings should be interpreted with caution until they have been replicated with multiple methodologies and with a variety of samples. It is important to note that data collected from the open-question format is a subjective reflection of followers' perspectives and experiences, rather than an objective account of reality. Even though this qualitative approach is appropriate for understanding followers' perceptions of effective leaders, the data collected in the present study does not examine variation in leadership perceptions from followers at various organizational levels or across industries. Moreover, it is recommended in future research to adopt more indirect measures, such as scenario studies, to assess followers' perceptions of effective leaders. In addition, future research must benefit more from perceptual data from different industries, as the current study is limited within one large public-sector organization in Western Europe. Therefore interesting avenues for future research shall include more variations of followers in the data and investigate the influence of those variations on effective leadership perceptions.

Second, the open question i.e. *what are the characteristics of an effective leader?* was placed at the end of the survey. The respondents had to first go through all other questions before

filling out the answers for one open question. Thus their perceptions are not completely naïve but influenced by the items appearing earlier. In addition, this question asks about "characteristic" of an effective leader. A characteristic is broadly defined and it can include all kinds of elements such as behaviors, attributes etc. In this study, they are compared with actual "behaviors" of effective leaders. The comparison between "characteristics" and "behaviors" might cause some confusion and inconsistency. Furthermore, the present study cannot compare between individual codes, but only on the aggregated level of task-, relation- and change-oriented behavior. Therefore, new studies are recommended to design the open questions in surveys more in specific-behavioral terms. The response rate of the followers to the open question is 56.5% (843 followers), and whether this percentage does reflect the true images of all the followers in the sample is unknown, at this point. Regarding the response rates, there are now higher expectations to ensure the representativeness of the results. Response rates approximating 60% for most research should be the goal of researchers. Certainly are the expectation of the Editor and Associate Editors of top journals even higher (Fincham, 2008). In order to examine to what extent the findings of the current study could be seen as representative, it is recommended in the future research to conduct an analysis of the demographic characteristics of those who did answer this open question versus those that did not.

Third, the findings are based on data gathered from one public Dutch organization, with relatively limited variety of backgrounds, occupations and nationality. It is highly likely that the perception of effective leaders will vary across national and industrial cultures (Den Hartog et al., 1999). Besides the culture, some studies show that expressed behavior differs between the public and the private sector (e.g. Brugha and Zwi, 1998). Therefore there might be an issue of generalizing the findings of this research. Culture profiles as derived from, for instance, Hofstede's (1980) theoretical dimensions of cultures, yield many hypotheses regarding cross-cultural differences in effective leadership. The Netherlands is a country with highly individualistic national value, which is categorized with lower power distance, and higher level of individualism etc. (Hofstede, 1990). Effective leadership in countries that are more collective (e.g. China and Japan) is higher in power distance while emphasizing collective decision-making and valuing seniority (Hofstede, 1990). A less negative attitude towards authoritarian leadership will likely be found in high power distance societies. In such societies dominance and more ostentatious displays of power might be appropriate for leaders. In contrast, in more egalitarian societies leaders should emphasize egalitarian leadership. Thus it could be that more collective cultures may place greater value on established patterns of communications and leaders' hierarchical authority. In addition, some industries are more open to change, more innovative and less bureaucratic than the followers in those industries will expect to have different perceptions about the effective leaders. Yukl (1998) has pointed out that most of the research on leadership during the past half century was conducted in the US, Canada and the Western Europe. There have been studies about the generalizability of ITLs, such as the event-management research of Smith, Peterson, and Misumi (1994), the comparison of leadership in Western and Asian countries (Dorfman et al., 1997). In addition, House Wright and Aditya (1997) and Peterson and Hunt (1997) provide comprehensive overviews of cross-cultural research on leadership. However, future research shall further consider how national and industrial cultures play an important role in the perceptions and behaviors of effective leaders and how this

relates to effective leaders' actual behavioral repertoire, also as seen from followers' perspectives.

Finally, as discussed previously, for leaders' actual behavioral repertoire, the aspect of "external-oriented behaviors" was not included in the coding scheme. Furthermore, the regular staff meetings can be seen as internally oriented in nature because the purpose of such meeting is to facilitate productivity (Miller, 1994). Therefore it is not possible to study this type of behaviors. In light of this, the author recommends the future research to look into the external-oriented behaviors in the following ways. First, include the "external-oriented behavior" in the coding schema. Then, try to record also external meetings, such as meeting between leaders and customers or any other third party. Finally, it is recommended to conduct a content analysis, meaning to have an in-depth look at the content (what leaders and followers have said) in the meetings.

In addition to the trends for future research based on the limitations of this study, there are some other research directions that can be taken into consideration. First, it might be interesting to study the relationship between different mediating variables such as education and followers' perceptions of effective leaders. It can be expected that followers with higher educational level might perceive the prototypical image of effective leaders differently from the ones with lower educational levels. Second, it might also be interesting to study the relationship between perceptions and actual behaviors of leaders, based on their management level. The literature reports that leaders at higher level often display more relation-oriented behaviors while lower level managers display more task-oriented behaviors (Den Hartog et al., 1999). Lastly, the data collected from the open question and video observation are only at one point in time. Regarding followers' prototypical images of effective leaders, studies show that they might stay stable over time (Epitropaki et al., 2013). However, leaders' actual behaviors have been measured once through video recording. As previously noted, actions as taken to minimize the obtrusiveness, however, the author would recommend to adopt a longitudinal study design for gathering more data on leaders' actual behaviors. The purpose is to assess whether there are any differences over time and how they came about and to what extent they result in more effectiveness at the leader, follower or team levels.

8. CONCLUSION

Adopting a mixed-method research design, the present study responds to the calls made by leadership scholars (e.g. Antonakis et al., 2003) to examine the differences between followers' prototypical images of effective leaders and leaders' actual behaviors. The followers in this study (n=1491) are the actual followers of the video-recorded leaders (n=114). The results support earlier findings that followers' prototypical images of effective leaders are mostly relation-oriented in nature, while the actual behavioral repertoire of both effective and ineffective followers are predominantly task-oriented. Therefore, conclusion can be drawn that there is no complete or accurate match between them. Furthermore, the present study has used a reliable video-recording method to examine the actual behavioral repertoire of effective leaders. A categorization has been made between effective leaders and less effective leaders based on leaders' effectiveness scores. Significant differences have been identified only for three behaviors, namely "providing negative feedback", "vision: long term" and "vision: one's own opinion". In other words, compared to less effective leaders, effective leaders display less counter-productive behaviors but more change-oriented

behaviors. Recommended future research includes, for example, a longitudinal study design for gathering more data on leaders' actual behaviors; analysis into the relationship between variables such as "followers' education" and "followers' perceptions of an effective leader". In addition, the relationship between mediating variable and followers' perceptions of effective leaders is also of interest to research. It is also recommended to gain more knowledge of leaders' actual behaviors by adopting a mixed-method design to conduct a series of longitudinal field studies.

9. ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First and foremost, the author would like to sincerely thank her supervisors Drs. A.M.G.M. Hoogbeem and Prof. Dr. C.P.M. Wilderom, who both have put up a significant effort and provided constant support and advise. In addition, the author would like to thank her partner for his tremendous support throughout the entire Bachelor's program at the University of Twente.

10. REFERENCES

1. Antonakis, J., Avolio, B.J., & Sivasubramaniam, N. (2003). Context and leadership: An examination of the nine-factor full-range leadership theory using the Multifactor leadership Questionnaire. *The Leadership Quarterly* 14(2003), 261-295. DOI: 10.1016/S1048-9843 (03) 00030-4
2. Antonakis, J., Fenley, M., & Liechti, S. (2011). Can charisma be taught? Tests of two interventions. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, Vol. 10, No. 3, 374-396. DOI: 10.5465/amle.2010.0012
3. Avolio, B. J., & Bass, B.M. (1991). The full range of leadership development: Basic and advanced manuals. Binghamton, NY. 254-269.
4. Avolio, B. J., Sosik, J. J., Jung, D. I. and Berson, Y. (2003). Leadership Models, Methods, and Applications. *Handbook of Psychology*. Vol. 12, 277-307. DOI: 10.1002/0471264385.wei1212
5. Avolio, B. J., Reichard, R. J., Hannah, S. T., Walumbwa, F. O., & Chan, A. (2009). A meta-analytic review of leadership impact research: Experimental and quasi-experimental studies. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20: 764-784. DOI: 10.1016/j.leaqua.2009.06.006
6. Avolio, B.J., Howell, J.M., & Sosik, J.J. (1999). A funny thing happened on the way to the bottom line: humour as moderator of leadership style effects. *Academy of Management Journal*, 42(2): 219-227. DOI: 10.2307/257094
7. Avolio, B.J., Bass, B.M., & Jung, D. I. (1999). Re-examining the components of transformational and transactional leadership using the multifactor leadership questionnaire. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 72, 441-462. DOI: 10.1348/096317999166789
8. Allen J.A., Rogelberg, S.G. (2013). Manager-Led Group Meetings: A context for promoting employee engagement. *Group & Organization Management*, 38, 543-569. DOI: 10.1177/1059601113503040
9. Amabile, T. M., Schatzela, E. A., Moneta, G. B., & Kramer, S. J. (2004). Leader behaviors and the work environment for creativity: Perceived leader support. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15(2004), 5-32. DOI: 10.1016/j.leaqua.2003.12.2003

10. Bass, B. (1981). Stogdill's handbook of leadership: A survey of theory and research. *New York: Free Press.*
11. Bass, B. M. (1985). Leadership and performance beyond expectations. *Free Press; Collier Macmillan.*
12. Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1989). Potential biases in leadership measures: How prototypes, leniency, and general satisfaction relate to ratings and rankings of transformational and transactional leadership constructs. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 49(3), 509–527. DOI: 10.1177/001316448904900302
13. Bass BM. (1990). *Bass & Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research and managerial applications* (third edition). *The Free Press.* New York
14. Bass, B. M. (1998). Transformational leadership: Industry, military, and educational impact. *Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.*
15. Bass, B., & Bass, R. (2008). The Bass handbook of leadership: theory, research, and managerial applications (4th ed.). *New York, NY: The Free Press.*
16. Bass, B. M., Avolio, B. J., Jung D.I., & Berson, Y. (2003). Predicting unit performance by assessing transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology* (2003), Vol. 88, No. 2, 207–218. DOI: 10.1037/0021-9010.88.2.207
17. Baren, B. E., Shanock, L. R. Rogelberg, S.G. Scott, C. W. (2012). Leading group meetings: supervisors' actions, employee behaviors and upward perceptions. *Small Group Research*. 43(3) 330-355. Sage. DOI: 10.1177/1046496411418252.
18. Bresnen, M. J. (1995). All things to all people? Perceptions, attributions, and constructions of leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 6(4), 495-513. DOI: 10.1016/1048-9843(95) 90024-1
19. Bass, B.M., Avolio, B.J., & Goodheim, L. (1987). Quantitative description of world-class industrial, political, and military leaders. *Journal of Management*, 13(1), 7-19
20. Bjugstad, K, E.C. Thach, K.J. Thompson, and A. Morris, (2006). A fresh look at followership: A model for matching followership and leadership style. *Journal of Behavioral and Applied Management* 7(3), pp. 304-319.
21. Bedeian. A.G., & Hunt, J.G., (2006) Academic amnesia and vestigial assumptions of our forefathers, *The leadership Quarterly* 17(2006), 190-205. DOI: 10.1016/j.leaqua.2005.12.2006
22. Bennis W. G. (2007). The challenges of leadership in the modern world—Introduction to the special issue. *American Psychologist*, vol. 62, No. 1, 2–5. DOI: 10.1037/0003-066X.62.1.2
23. Bycio, P., Hackett, R. D., & Allen, J. S. (1995). Further assessments of Bass's (1985) conceptualization of transactional and transformational leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, vol 80(4), 468–478. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.80.4.468>
24. Brugha, R., & Zwi, A. (1998). Improving the quality of private sector delivery of public health services: challenges and strategies. *Health policy and planning*, 13(2), 107-120.
25. Burns JMG. (1978). *Leadership.* *New York: Harper & Row.*
26. Calder, B. J. (1977). An attribution theory of leadership. In B. M. Staw & G. R. Salancik (Eds.), *New directions in organizational behavior.* *Chicago: St. Clair.* 179, 204
27. Campbell, D.T, & Stanley, J. (1966). Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research. *Chicago: Rand McNally.*
28. Campbell, C.R.; Martinko, M.J. (1998). An integrative attributional perspective of empowerment and learned helplessness: a multi-method study. *Journal of Management* 24(2), pp. 173-200. DOI: 10.1177/014920639802400203
29. Carless, S. A. (1998a). Assessing the discriminant validity of transformational leader behavior as measured by the MLQ. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 71, 353–358. DOI: 10.1111/j.2044-8325.1998.tb00681.x
30. Chen, G., Kirkman, B. L., & Kanfer, R. 2007. A multilevel study of leadership, empowerment, and performance in teams. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, vol. 92, No. 2, 331–346. DOI: 10.1037/0021-9010.92.2.331
31. Cronshaw, S. F., & Lord, R. G. (1987). Effects of categorization, attribution, and encoding processes on leadership perceptions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, vol 72(1), 97–106. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.72.1.97>
32. Creswell, J.W. & Plano Clark, V.L. (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed method research* (2nd edition). *Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.*
33. Conger, J. A. (1998). Qualitative research as the cornerstone methodology for understanding leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 9, 107–121.
34. Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N. (1994). Charismatic leadership in organizations: Perceived behavioral attributes and their measurement. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, vol 15, 439–452.
35. Cox, D. (1987). Motives for private income transfers. *Journal of Political Economy*, 95, 508-546. DOI: 10.1086/261470
36. Day DV (2001) Leadership development: A review in context. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 11(4): 581–613.
37. DeHoog, A.H.B., & Den Hartog D.N. (2008). Ethical and despotic leadership, relationships with leader's social responsibility, top management team effectiveness and subordinate's optimism: a multi-method study. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 19, 297-311. DOI: 10.1016/j.leaqua.2008.03.002
38. Den Hartog, D.N., House, R.J., Hanges, P.J., Ruiz-Quintanilla, S.A., & Dorfmann, P.W. (1999). Culture specific and cross-culturally generalizable implicit leadership theories: are attributes of charismatic / transformational leadership universally endorsed? *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10(2), 219-256. DOI: 10.1016/S1048-9843 (99) 00018-1
39. DeRue, D. S., Nahrgang, J., Wellman, N., & Humphrey, S. E. (2011). Trait and behavioral theories of leadership: An integration and meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Personnel Psychology*, 64(1), 7-52. DOI: 10.1111/j.1744-6570.2010.01201.x
40. Dorfman, P. W., Howell, J. P., Hibino, S., Lee, J. K., Tate, U., & Bautista, A. (1997). Leadership in western and asian countries: commonalities and differences in effective leadership processes across cultures. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 8 (3), 233–274. DOI: 10.1016/S10489843 (97) 90003-5
41. Eden, D., & Leviatan, U. (1975). Implicit leadership theory as determinant of the factor structure underlying supervisory behavior scales. *Journal of*

- Applied Psychology*, 60, 736-741. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.60.6.736>
42. Einarsen, S., Aasland, M.S., & Skogstad, A. (2007). Destructive leadership behavior: a definition and conceptual model. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18, 207-216. DOI: 10.1016/j.leaqua.2007.03.002
 43. Epitropaki, O., Sy, T., Martin, R., Tram-Quon, S., & Topakas, A. (2013). Implicit leadership and followership theories “in the wild”: Taking stock of information-processing approaches to leadership and followership in organizational settings. *The Leadership Quarterly* 24, 858-881. DOI: 10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.10.005
 44. Epitropaki, O., & Martin, R. (2001). Role of Organizational Identification on Implicit Leadership Theories (ILTs), Transformational Leadership and Work Attitudes. *Group processes & Intergroup Relations*. Vol 4(3), 247-262. DOI: 10.1177/1368430201004003005
 45. Epitropaki, O., & Martin, R. (2004). Implicit leadership theories in applied settings: Factor structure, generalizability and stability over time. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol 89, No. 2, 293-310. DOI: 10.1037/0021-9010.89.2.293
 46. Epitropaki, O., & Martin, r. (2005). From ideal to real: A longitudinal study of the role of implicit leadership theories on leader-member exchanges and employee outcomes, *Journal of Applied Psychology* Vol. 90, NO.4, 659-676. DOI: 10.1037/0021-9010.90.4.659
 47. Foti, R. J., Fraser, S. L., & Lord, R. G. (1982). Effects of leadership labels and prototypes on perceptions of political leaders. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 67(3), 326-333. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.67.3.326>
 48. Fincham J.E. (2008). Response rates and responsiveness for surveys, standards, and the Journal. *Am J Pharm Educ*. 72 (2): Article 43.
 49. Gill, R. 2003. Change management or change leadership? *Journal of Change Management*. Vol. 3, NO. 4, 307-318. DOI: 10.1080/714023845
 50. Glynn, M. A., & Raffaelli, R. 2010. Uncovering mechanisms of theory development in an academic field: Lessons from leadership research. *The Academy of Management Annals*, Vol. 4, NO. 1, 359-401. DOI: 10.1080/19416520.2010.495530
 51. Goetz, J.; LeCompte, M., (1981). Ethnographic research and the problem of data reduction. *Anthropology and Education Quarterly*. Vol. 12, No. 1, 51-70. 10.1525/aeq.1981.12.1.05x1283i
 52. Gioia, D.A., & Sims, H.P., Jr. (1985). On avoiding the influence of implicit leadership theories in leader behavior descriptions. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 45.217-232. DOI: 10.1177/001316448504500204
 53. Hater, J., & Bass, B.M. 1988. Superiors' evaluations and subordinates' perceptions of transformational and transactional leadership. *Journals of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 73 (4), 695-702. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.73.4.695>
 54. Hemphill JK, Coons AE. (1957). Development of the leader behavior description questionnaire. In Stogdill RM, Coons AE (Eds.), *Leader behavior: Its description and measurement*, 6-38.
 55. Hinkin, T.R., & Schriesheim, C.A. (2008). An examination of “non-leadership”: from laissez-faire leadership to leader reward omission and punishment omission. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93, 1234-1248. DOI: 10.1037/a0012875
 56. Hoogbeem A.M.G.M., & Wilderom, C.P.M. (2015). Effective leader behaviors in regularly held staff meetings. Surveyed vs Videotaped and video-coded observations. In *The Cambridge Handbook of Meeting Science* edited by Allen J.A., Lehmann-Willenbrock, N., & Rogelberg S.G. (2015). *Cambridge University Press*. 381-412. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781107589735.017>
 57. Hofstede, G. (1980). Culture's consequences: International differences in work related beliefs. *Beverly Hills: Sage Publications*.
 58. Hofstede, G. (1990). Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind. *New York: McGraw- Hill*.
 59. House, R.T. (1977). A 1976 theory of charismatic leadership. In J.G. Hunt & L.L. Larson (Eds.), *Leadership: The cutting edge*. Carbondale, IL: *Southern Illinois University Press*. pp. 189-207
 60. House, R. J., Shane, S., & Herold, D. (1996). Rumours of the death of dispositional theory and research in organizational behavior are greatly exaggerated. *The Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 21, No. 1, 203-224. DOI: 10.5465/AMR.1996.9602161570
 61. House, R. J., Wright, N. S., & Aditya, R. N. (1997). Cross-cultural research on organizational leadership: A critical analysis and a proposed theory. In P. C. Early & M. Erez (Eds.), *New perspectives on international industrial/organizational psychology*. *San Francisco: The New Lexington Press*. 535-625
 62. Hodgson, D.E., (2004). Project work: the legacy of bureaucratic control in the post-bureaucratic organization. *Organization*, Vol. 11 (1), 81-100. DOI: 10.1177/1350508404039659
 63. Hooijberg, R., Quinn, R. E., 1992. Strategic leadership: A multi-organizational level perspective. *Quorum, New York*, 161-175.
 64. Hindmarsh, J., & Heath, C. 2007. Video-based studies of work practice. *Sociology Compass*, 1(1): 156-173. DOI: 10.1111/j.1751-9020.2007.00012.x
 65. Hunt, J. G. (1991). *The Leadership: a new synthesis*. *CA: Sage Publications*.
 66. Hunter JE, Hunter RF. (1984). Validity and utility of alternative predictors of job performance. *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol. 96, NO. 1, 72-98. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.96.1.72>
 67. Janda, K.F. (1960). Towards the explication of the concept of leadership in terms of concept of power. *Human relations*, Vo. 13, 345-363. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/001872676001300404>
 68. Jenkins WO. (1947). A review of leadership studies with particular reference to military problems. *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol. 44 (1), 54-79. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/h0062329>
 69. Judge, T. A., & Piccolo, R. F. (2004). Transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 89, No. 5, 755-768. DOI: 10.1037/0021-9010.89.5.755
 70. Kaplan, S., Cortina, J., Ruark, G. LaPort, K., & Nicolaides, V. (2014). The role of organizational leaders in employee emotion management: atheoretical model. *Leadership Quarterly*, 25, 563-580. DOI: 10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.11.015.
 71. Katz, J., (1983) A theory of qualitative methodology. In: R. M. Emerson, ed., *Contemporary field research:*

- A collection of readings, Prospect Heights, Ill, Waveland. pp. 127–148.
72. Kauffeld, S., Lehmann-Willenbrock, N., 2012. Meetings matter: Effects of team meetings on team and organizational success. *Small Group Research*, 43(2), 130-158. DOI: 10.1177/1046496411429599
 73. Kenney, R.A., Schwartz-Kenney, B.M., & Blascovich, J. (1996). Implicit leadership theories: Defining leaders described as worthy of influence. *Personality and Social Psychology, Bulletin*, 22, 1128-1143. DOI: 10.1177/01461672962211004
 74. Kraus, G., & Gemmill, G. (1990). Idiosyncratic effects of implicit theories of leadership. *Psychological Reports*, 66, 247-257. DOI: 10.2466/pr0.1990.66.1.247
 75. Kriesberg, M. (1950). Executives evaluate administrative conferences. *Advanced Management*, 15, 15-17.
 76. Kubr, M. (1996) *Management Consulting: A Guide to the Profession*, 3rd (revised) edition. *International Labour Office*, Geneva.
 77. Landy, F.J., & Farr, J.L. (1987). Performing rating. *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol. 87, 72-107. DOI: 10.1037/0033-2909.87.1.72
 78. Lord, R.G., Foti, R.J., & de Vader, C.L. (1984). A test of leadership categorization theory: Internal structure, information processing, and leadership perceptions. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 34, 343-378. DOI: 10.1016/0030-5073(84) 90043-6
 79. Lowe, K. B., Kroek, K. G., & Sivasubramaniam, N. (1996). Effectiveness correlates of transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic review. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 7(3), 385–425. DOI: 10.1016/S1048-9843 (96) 90027-2
 80. Lee T.W. (1999), Using qualitative methods in organizational research. *Sage, Thousands Oaks*.
 81. Lee, T.W.; Mitchel, T.R., & Sablynski, C.J. (1999). Qualitative research in organizational and vocational psychology, 1979-1999. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. 55, 161-187. DOI: 10.1006/jvbe.1999.1707
 82. Ling W., Chia C. R. & Fang, L (2000). Chinese implicit leadership theory. *The Journal of Social Psychology*. 140(6), 729-739.
 83. Lord, R.G. & Maher, K.J. (1993). Leadership and information processing. *London: Routledge*.
 84. Lord, R., & Maher, K. (1991). Leadership and information processing: Linking perceptions and processes. *Boston: Unwin Hyman*.
 85. Lord, R. G. (1981). Heuristic social information processing and its implications for behavioral measurement: An example based on leadership categorization. Paper presented at the meeting of the *American Psychological Association, Los Angeles*.
 86. Lord, R. G., Foti, R. J., & Phillips, J. S. (1982). A theory of leadership categorization. In J. G. Hunt, U. Sekaran, & C. Schriesheim (Eds.), *Leadership: Beyond establishment views*. Carbondale, IL: *Southern Illinois Univ. Press*. 104-121
 87. Mann RD. (1959). A review of the relationships between personality and performance in small groups. *Psychological Bulletin, Vol. 56*, No. 4, 241–270. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/h0044587>
 88. Myrsiades, L. (2000). Meeting sabotage: Met and conquered. *Journal of Management Development*, 19, 870-885. DOI: 10.1108/02621710010379182
 89. Noldus, L. P. J. J., Trienes, R. J. H., Hendriksen, A. H. M., Jansen, H., & Jansen, R. G. 2000. The observer video-pro: New software for the collection, management, and presentation of time-structured data from videotapes and digital media files. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, and Computers*, 32(1): 197-206. DOI: 10.3758/BF03200802
 90. Offermann, L.R., Kennedy, J.K., & Wirtz, P.W. (1994). Implicit leadership theories: Content, structure, and generalizability. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 5, 43-58. DOI: 10.1016/1048-9843(94) 90005-1
 91. Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods* (3rd ed.). *Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage*.
 92. Peterson, M. F., & Hunt, J. G. (1997). International perspectives on international leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 8 (3), 203–231. DOI: 10.1016/S1048-9843 (97) 9002-3
 93. Phillips, J. S., & Lord, R. G. (1981). Causal attributions and perceptions of leadership. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 28, 143-163. DOI: 10.1016/0030-5073 (81) 90020-9
 94. Phillips, J. S. (1984). The accuracy of leadership ratings: A cognitive categorization perspective. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 33, 125–138. DOI: 10.1016/0030-5073(84) 90015-1
 95. Phillips, J.S. & Lord, R.G. (1986). Notes on the practical and theoretical consequences of implicit leadership theories for the future of leadership measurement. *Journal of Management*, 12, 31- 41. DOI: 10.1177/014920638601200104
 96. Poole, P. P., Gioia, D. A., & Gray, B. (1989). Influence modes, schema change, and organization transformation. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 25, 271–289. DOI: 10.1177/0021886389253004
 97. Rosch, E. (1978). Principles of categorization. In E. Rosch & B. B. Lloyd (Eds.), *Cognition and categorization*. *Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum*. pp. 27-48
 98. Rogelberg, S. G. (2006). Meetings at work. In S. G. Rogelberg (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of industrial and organizational psychology*. *Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage*. pp. 474–475.
 99. Rogelberg, S.G., Allen, J.A., Shanock, L., Scott, C., & Shuffler, M. (2010). Employee satisfaction with meetings: a contemporary facet of job satisfaction. *Human Resource Management*, 49(2), 149-172. DOI: 10.1002/hrm.20339
 100. Salvoye, P. & Mayer, J.D. (1990). Emotional intelligence: Imagination, cognition and personality. *Baywood Publishing Co., Inc.*, 9, 185-211. DOI: 10.2190/DUGG-P24E-52WK-6CDG
 101. Yukl, G.A. (1998). *Leadership in organizations*. (4th edition). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
 102. Yukl, G. A. 2006. *Leadership in organizations* (6th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson/Prentice Hall.
 103. Yukl, G.A. (2008). How leaders influence organizational effectiveness. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 19(6), 708-722. DOI: 10.1016/j.leaqua.2008.09.008
 104. Yukl, G., & Mahsud, R. (2010). Why flexible, adaptive leadership is important. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, Vol 62(2), Jun 2010, 81-93. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0019835>
 105. Yukl, G. (2012). Effective leadership behavior: What we know and what questions need more attention.

- Academy of Management Perspectives*, 26(4): 66-85. DOI: 10.5465/amp.2012.0088
106. Yukl, G. (2013). *Leadership in organizations* (8th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
 107. Yukl, G.A., Gordon A., Taber, T. (2002). A hierarchical taxonomy of leadership behavior: integrating a half-century of behavior research. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, Vol. 9, No.1, 15-32. DOI: 10.1177/107179190200900102
 108. Lowe, K.B., Kroeck, K.G., & Sivasubramaniam, N. (1996). Effectiveness correlates of transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic review of the MLQ literature. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 7, 385-425.
 109. Meindl, J.R. (1990). On leadership: An alternative to the conventional wisdom. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 12, 159-203.
 110. Niccolo Machiavelli (1469–1527) The Prince, translated from the Italian by Hill Thompson, Collector's Edition, 1980, The Easton Press, Norwalk, CT, 55.
 111. O'shea, P.G., Foti, R.J., Hauenstein, N.M.A., & Bycio, P. 2009. Are the best leaders both transformational and transactional? A pattern-oriented analysis. *Leadership*, 5(2): 237-259. DOI: 10.1177/1742715009102937
 112. Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(5), 879-903. DOI: 10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879
 113. Schein, V. E. (1973). The relationship between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 57, 95–100.
 114. Schwartzman, H. B. (1986). The meeting as a neglected social form in organizational studies. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 8, 233-258.
 115. Schyns, B., Felfe, J. & Blank, H. (2007). Is charisma hyper-romanticism? Empirical evidence from new data and a meta-analysis. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 56, 505–527. DOI: 10.1111/j.14640597.2007.00302.x
 116. Schyns, B. and Schillings, J. (2011). Implicit leadership theories: think leader, think effective? *Journal of Management Inquiry*, 20(2), 141-150. DOI: 10.1177/1056492610375989
 117. Schyns, B. and Schillings, J. (2013). How bad are the effects of bad leaders? A meta-analysis of destructive leadership and its outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 24, 138-158. DOI: 10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.09.001
 118. Schyns, B. & Meindl, J.R. (Eds.) (2005), The Leadership Horizon Series: Implicit Leadership Theories - Essays and Explorations. *Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing*. Vol. 3, pp. 15-36. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-31816_5_2186-1
 119. Shamir, B. (1992). Attribution of influence and charisma to the leader: The Romance of Leadership revisited. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 22, 386-407. DOI: 10.1111/j.1559-1816.1992.tb01546.x
 120. Shrondrick, S.J., & Lord, R.G. (2010). Implicit leadership and follower theories: dynamic structures for leadership perceptions, memory and leader-follower processes. In G.P. Hodgkinson & J.K.Ford (Eds), *International review of industrial and organizational psychology*. Vol. 25, NO. 1, 1-34.
 121. Smith, P. B., Peterson M. F., & Misumi, J. (1994). Event management and work team effectiveness in Japan, Britain and the USA. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 67, 33–43. DOI: 10.1111/j.2044-8325.1994.tb00547.x
 122. Stentz, J.E. Plano Clark, V.L., & Matkin, G.S. (2012). Applying mixed methods to leadership research: A review of current practices. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 23, 11173-1183. DOI: 10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.10.001.
 123. Stogdill, R. M. (1963). Manual for the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire - Form XII (Ohio State University, Bureau of Business Research, Columbus, OH). Stogdill Manual for the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire - Form XII1963.
 124. Stogdill, R.M. (1974). *Handbook of leadership: a survey of the literature*. New York: Free Press.
 125. Stogdill, R. M., & Coons, A. E. (Eds.) (1957). Leader behavior: its description and measurement (Research Monograph No. 88). Bureau of Business Research, Ohio State University, Columbus, OH. Spiers, J. A. 2004. Tech tips: Using video management analysis technology in qualitative research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 3(1): 1-8.
 126. Tracy, K., & Dimock, A. (2004). Meetings: discursive sites for building and fragmenting community. In P.J.Kabfleisch (ed.), *Communication Yearbook* (Vol.28; pp. 127-165). Mahwah, NJ; Erlbaum. DOI: 10.1080/23808985.2004.11679034
 127. Van der Weide, G.J., Wilderom C.P.M., (2004), Deromancing leadership: what are the behaviours of highly effective middle managers? *Int. J. Management Practice*, Vol. 1, No. 1, 3-19. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1504/IJMP.2004.004867
 128. Wherry, R.J., Sr., & Barlett, C.J. (1982). The control of bias in ratings: A theory of rating. *Personal Psychology*, 35, 521-551. DOI: 10.1111/j.1744-6570.1982.tb02208.x
 129. Wood, W., Quinn, J. M., & Kashy, D. A. (2002). Habits in everyday life: Thought, emotion, and action. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 83(6), 1281–1297. DOI: 10.1037//0022-3514.83.6.1281
 130. Wu, J. B., Tsui, A. S., & Kinicki, A. J. 2010. Consequences of differentiated leadership in groups. *Academy of Management Journal*, 53(1): 90-106. DOI: 10.5465/AMJ.2010.48037079

11. APPENDIX

Appendix 11.1: Followers' 30 prototypical characteristics of effective leaders with definitions and illustrations

Characteristic	Definitions	Examples
Cognitive job capability	Trust others based on their knowledge, skills and competencies (McAllister, 1995)	I consider my supervisor as competent. I think my supervisor has enough experience and competencies to do the work.
Empathy	The ability to comprehend another's feelings and to re-experience them oneself (Salovey and Mayer, 1990).	My leader is highly considerate and sensitive to my needs. My leader understands my emotions
Intra-team trust	Shared generalized perceptions of trust that team members have in their fellow team mates (De jong & Elfring, 2010)	I am able to count on my team members for help if I have difficulties with my job. I trust my team members.
Goal orientation	Leadership that uses policies and practices to communicate organizational goals and align employee's efforts with these goals (Colbert & Witt, 2009)	My leader defines proprieties well. My leader always follows up and make sure that the job gets done. My leader clarifies specific roles and responsibilities.
Integrity	Adherence to moral and ethical principles; soundness of moral character	My leader is honest. My leader is justice. My leader always keeps his / her promises.
Team player	Willingness to work in cooperation with others; emphasizing collective effort and cooperation	My leader strives for the well being of the team.
Openness to change	This is one of the work values. Open-minded and not afraid of making changes	My leader is experimental (trying out new things) My leader dares to take risks and seek adventures.
Group focused transformational	Influence the group as a whole through idealized influence and inspirational motivation that emphasize unified effort to achieve group performance	My leader inspires followers to accomplish challenging performance and adaptation goals. My leader motivates followers to perform beyond expectations and transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the unit.
Individual focused transformational	Individual-focused transformational leaders, vary their leadership behaviors based on each follower's different capabilities and needs, consulting with them about solutions to problems, and coaching and guiding them for performance and adaptations during times of change	My leader treats followers as individuals rather than just a member of the group. My leader recognizes the follower's individual needs and desires.
Directive leadership	Leaders tell followers what they are expected to do and how to perform the task	Assign task Initiate and organize group work activity
Engagement	Employee engagement is a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption (Macey & Schneider, 2008).	At my work, I feel bursting with energy. I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose. I feel happy when I am working intensely.
Job involvement	Represents a cognitive or belief state of psychological identification with one's present job (Kanungo, 1982)	I am very much personally involved with my job. My job is very important part of my life.
Social	The property of socializing	Knowing how to make contacts with followers Knowing to talk more than just work
Affective trust	Trust others based on the emotional needs and close relationship (McAllister, 1995); consisting of emotional bonds between individuals (Lewis & Wiegert, 1905).	I can freely talk about problems I face in my work with my supervisor, knowing that he / she will listen. I have a good work relation with my leader.
Conservative values	It is one of the work values – the things or activities you place worth upon and strive to obtain or engage in	Traditional Self discipline (self control) Respectful
Voice climate	Shared beliefs about speaking up on voice behavior within work groups (Morrison, wheels –smith & Kamer, 2011)	Members feel that speaking up is safe, not dangerous. Members feel that their input will be taken seriously

		and acted upon by the leaders.
Responsible	Being responsible at the work; the extent to which members of a team do a fair share of the team's work (Erez & Lepine & Elms, 2002)	Adequately completed his / her responsibilities here in this team. Took responsibilities for teamwork even though he or she would have avoided it.
Networking	Building contact with people	Building connections with others
Environmental monitoring	Knowing the organizations and the surrounded environment well	Understand the constraints / strengths of the organization. Capitalizes on opportunities represented by the external environment.
Pro-active behavior	Self-directed and future-focused action whereby employees aim to bring about change (Bindl & Parker, 2010)	I try to introduce more efficient procedures. I make constructive suggestions for improvement.
Empowerment	The process of strengthening people by gaining control over a situation. This is because of knowledge about the meaning and impact of a situation, own skills, critical thinking and self-determination	I have confidence in my ability to do my job. I master the skills necessary for my job. I have plenty of opportunity to decide how I do my job.
Management by exception (active)	Monitoring the performance and outcome; taking corrective actions before problems occur	Focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards. Direct my attention toward failures to meet standards
Resilience	Being resilient	
Calm	Easy going, no big emotion changes	Easy Relaxed
Customer oriented	Customer centered	Focus on customers' needs Good customer relationship
Positive affect	Positive affect reflects the extent to which a person feels enthusiastic, active and alert.	Interested Alert Inspired Proud
Loyalty	Being faithful	My leader is loyal to the company
Good communicator	Someone being good at communicator	Knowing how to build up a good conversation; good at information sharing; good at listening
Instrumental leadership	The application of leader expert knowledge on monitoring of the environment and of the environment and of performance, and the implementation of strategic and tactical solutions.	Ensure that the vision is understood in specific terms Develop specific policies to support visions Assist followers to learn from their mistakes

Appendix 11.2: The used coding scheme with 19 leaders' actual mutually exclusive behaviors during regular staff meetings with definitions and illustrations

Behavior	Definition / Short description	Example
Informing	Giving factual information	The budget for this project is XXX. The board will make a decision within next two week.
Verifying	Making sure of something	Have you understood the objective for next month? The budget needs to be decreased with 10% not 5%.
Structuring the conversation	Structuring the meetings; changing the topic; shifting towards next agenda point	We will end this meeting at 14:00. The next agenda point is XXX.
Directing / delegating	Diving tasks among followers (without enforcing them); determining the direction for the staff	John, I'd like you to be responsible for this project.
Directing / Interrupting	Providing followers with directions but interrupting	While a follower is talking about his plan and the leader interrupts him/her.
Directing / correcting	Providing followers with directions and correct them when necessary	No, you should be doing this.
Agreeing	Thinking the same as followers; approval of their proposal etc.	John, yes, I agree with you.
Positive attention	Noticing what followers do and providing them with positive attention such as encouragement	You have done it well.
Intellectual stimulation	Positively stimulate the behavior of followers: challenging professionally.	How do you think we can solve this problem? Don't worry. We will solve this together.
Humor	Making jokes and bring the team good atmosphere	My leader makes jokes and he/ she is funny.
Providing positive feedback	Complementing and approving followers; behaviors or work or performance	You have done a very good job. I am happy with your work.
Personal informing	Giving the factual information to followers personally	My leader calls me personally to inform me about his plan of this project.
Vision: one's own opinion		Given the recent development, I think we should XXX.
Vision: long term	Explaining long term goals and directions; giving an opinion about future pans	I think we should focus more on this market in the future.
Vision: own opinion on organizational strategy		
Defending own position	Emphasizing own leadership position; emphasizing own importance	I cannot help it; my boss wants it like that.
Disagreeing	The apposite of agreeing: disapproval, having different ideas	I don't agree with your proposal.
Providing negative feedback	Criticizing the behaviors or performance of followers	I am not happy with the way you did this.
Showing disinterest	Not taking any action (when expected)	Not listening actively, looking bored

Appendix 11.3: Followers' perceived leaders' characteristics in the Task-, Relation- and Change-categories (n=1491)

Prototypical characteristic	Frequency
1. Being goal oriented	13,12
2. Cognitive job capability	10,74
3. Directive leadership style	4,44
4. Being responsible	2,01
5. Being engaged	1,40
6. Managing by exception	0,79
7. Instrumental leadership style	0,65
8. Being resilient	0,23
<i>Subtotal task-oriented</i>	<i>33,38</i>
1. Integrity	13,59
2. Group focused transformational style	8,64
3. Being empathic	8,40
4. Good communicator	3,73
5. Individual focused transformational	3,69
6. Team player	3,17
7. Job involvement	2,52
8. Being social	1,96
9. Displaying affective trust	1,91
10. Displaying positive affect	1,91
11. Conservative	1,77
12. Empowered	1,45
13. Intra-team trust	1,35
14. Supportive leadership style	1,21
15. Being calm	0,65
16. Being loyal	0,09
<i>Subtotal relation-oriented</i>	<i>56,07</i>
1. Voice climate	6,16
2. Openness to change	3,92
3. Pro-active behavior	0,37
4. Customer oriented	0,09
<i>Subtotal change-oriented</i>	<i>10,55</i>
Total	100%

Appendix 11. 4: The actual behaviors of effective leaders (n=114) in term of Yukl’s Task-, Relation and Change-categories

Actual Leader Behavior	Frequency (%)	Duration (%)
1. Informing	28,66	47,92
2. Verifying	13,41	5,92
3. Structuring the conversation	11,87	8,65
4. Directing / delegating	1,99	1,55
5. Directing / Interrupting	1,79	0,38
6. Directing / correcting	0,72	0,38
<i>Subtotal Task-oriented</i>	<i>58,44</i>	<i>64,78</i>
1. Agreeing	5,81	1,69
2. Positive attention	4,43	2,31
3. Intellectual stimulation	3,65	3,04
4. Humor	2,92	1,52
5. Providing positive feedback	1,92	0,98
6. Personal informing	0,88	0,92
<i>Subtotal Relation-oriented</i>	<i>19,63</i>	<i>10,46</i>
1. Vision: one's own opinion	20,51	22,03
2. Vision: long term	1,15	2,24
3. Vision: own opinion on organizational strategy	0,27	0,49
<i>Subtotal Change-oriented</i>	<i>21,93</i>	<i>24,76</i>
Total	100	100

Appendix 11.5: Normality test results

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
LOGDisongeinterfreq	.504	114	.000	.371	114	.000
LOGDisEigenposfreq	.174	114	.000	.849	114	.000
LOGDisnegFBfreq	.315	114	.000	.752	114	.000
LOGDishetoneensfreq	.150	114	.000	.912	114	.000
LOGDisheteensfreq	.091	114	.022	.938	114	.000
LOGDisdircorrfreq	.245	114	.000	.725	114	.000
LOGDisdirdeleg	.055	114	.200*	.980	114	.079
LOGDisdirinterruptfreq	.118	114	.001	.931	114	.000
LOGDisveriffreq	.067	114	.200*	.978	114	.053
LOGDisovvormgevfreq	.121	114	.000	.927	114	.000
LOGDisinformingfreq	.116	114	.001	.831	114	.000
LOGDisvisieeigenmeningfreq	.111	114	.001	.925	114	.000
LOGDisvisielangetermijnfreq	.253	114	.000	.779	114	.000
LOGDisvisieeigenmenorgstratiefreq	.467	114	.000	.457	114	.000
LOGDisposfeedbackfreq	.072	114	.200*	.961	114	.002
LOGDisprofuitdagfreq	.080	114	.068	.966	114	.006
LOGDisaandachtfreq	.061	114	.200*	.977	114	.051
LOGDisumorfreq	.056	114	.200*	.983	114	.144
LOGDispersinfofreq	.291	114	.000	.740	114	.000

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Appendix 11.6: Independent samples t-test breakdown for each behavior

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
LOGDisongeinterfreq	Equal variances assumed	6.539	.012	-1.360	110	.177	-.01719	.01264	-.04225	.00786
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.288	77.916	.202	-.01719	.01335	-.04376	.00938
LOGDiseigenposfreq	Equal variances assumed	1.911	.170	-1.440	110	.153	-.07190	.04994	-.17086	.02706
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.392	85.890	.168	-.07190	.05167	-.17462	.03082
LOGDisnegFBfreq	Equal variances assumed	10.532	.002	-2.322	110	.022	-.07933	.03416	-.14703	-.01163
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.186	75.477	.032	-.07933	.03629	-.15162	-.00704
LOGDishetoneensfreq	Equal variances assumed	.547	.461	-1.580	110	.117	-.06403	.04051	-.14432	.01626
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.574	97.892	.119	-.06403	.04067	-.14473	.01668
LOGDisheteensfreq	Equal variances assumed	2.788	.098	-.570	110	.570	-.02730	.04791	-.12224	.06765
	Equal variances not assumed			-.588	108.069	.558	-.02730	.04644	-.11935	.06476
LOGDisdircorrffreq	Equal variances assumed	3.744	.056	-1.471	110	.144	-.04240	.02882	-.09951	.01471
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.404	80.936	.164	-.04240	.03019	-.10247	.01767
LOGDisdirdeleg	Equal variances assumed	.004	.952	.641	110	.523	.02680	.04184	-.05611	.10970
	Equal variances not assumed			.636	96.427	.527	.02680	.04216	-.05688	.11047
LOGDisdirinterruptionfreq	Equal variances assumed	3.863	.052	-1.176	110	.242	-.06339	.05391	-.17022	.04345
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.136	85.753	.259	-.06339	.05580	-.17432	.04754
LOGDisveriffreq	Equal variances assumed	1.744	.189	-.014	110	.988	-.00054	.03767	-.07520	.07411
	Equal variances not assumed			-.015	110.000	.988	-.00054	.03579	-.07148	.07039
LOGDisovormgevfreq	Equal variances assumed	.410	.523	.238	110	.812	.00887	.03724	-.06492	.08266
	Equal variances not assumed			.236	95.567	.814	.00887	.03761	-.06578	.08352
LOGDisinformingfreq	Equal variances assumed	.944	.333	.016	110	.988	.00046	.02953	-.05807	.05899
	Equal variances not assumed			.015	93.298	.988	.00046	.03000	-.05912	.06004
LOGDisvisieeigenmeningfreq	Equal variances assumed	1.095	.298	2.370	110	.020	.08799	.03713	.01442	.16157
	Equal variances not assumed			2.359	97.482	.020	.08799	.03731	.01395	.16203
LOGDisvisielangetermijnfreq	Equal variances assumed	16.565	.000	-2.975	110	.004	-.20778	.06985	-.34621	-.06935
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.820	78.235	.006	-.20778	.07368	-.35446	-.06109
LOGDisvisieeigenmenorgstratiefreq	Equal variances assumed	5.205	.024	-1.103	110	.273	-.03307	.02999	-.09249	.02636
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.027	71.471	.308	-.03307	.03221	-.09728	.03115
LOGDisposfeedbackfreq	Equal variances assumed	2.091	.151	-.288	110	.774	-.01383	.04799	-.10893	.08127
	Equal variances not assumed			-.294	105.719	.769	-.01383	.04701	-.10704	.07938
LOGDisprofruitdagfreq	Equal variances assumed	.032	.858	-.138	110	.890	-.00862	.06226	-.13200	.11477
	Equal variances not assumed			-.139	101.561	.889	-.00862	.06185	-.13131	.11407
LOGDisaandachtreq	Equal variances assumed	1.269	.262	-.778	110	.439	-.04740	.06097	-.16822	.07342
	Equal variances not assumed			-.764	92.340	.447	-.04740	.06208	-.17069	.07589
LOGDishumorffreq	Equal variances assumed	.136	.713	.576	110	.566	.02903	.05038	-.07082	.12888
	Equal variances not assumed			.571	95.761	.569	.02903	.05086	-.07193	.12999
LOGDispersinfofreq	Equal variances assumed	2.064	.154	-1.052	110	.295	-.05061	.04810	-.14594	.04472
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.020	87.327	.310	-.05061	.04960	-.14918	.04796