Leadership, Values and Communication:

A Cross-cultural Investigation of the Extended Full-Range of Leadership Behaviors

Dissertation

Submitted to the

Faculty of Business and Economics

TU Dortmund University

Dortmund

In partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree of

Doctor Rerum Politicarum

Submitted by

Ute Poethke

27.11.2018

Reviewer

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Acknowledgements

With the completion of my dissertation four exciting and exhausting years come to an end. I would like to thank everyone who accompanied me and supported me during this time. First of all, I would like to thank my supervisor Prof. Dr. Jens Rowold. Thank you for the support during these years, the opportunity to work on various exciting projects in the area of leadership, and for leaving me enough space to pursue my own ideas while always making me feel that I am on the right way. I would also like to thank Prof. Dr. Andreas Engelen and Prof. Dr. Liudvika Leisyte for being part of the examination board and for offering their time and experience. Further, I would like to thank my awesome colleagues Carina, Catrin, Kai, Kai, Kathi, Mathias, and Sarah for the funny, sporty, lively and inspiring time at the ZHB. Finally, I would like to thank my family and friends, especially Janis for being by my side and supporting me emotionally.

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Summary

Cross-cultural leadership has increasingly attracted the attention of practitioners as well as scholars in recent years due to important challenges that international firms are facing on the global market. Nevertheless, key research questions remain unanswered. Therefore, this dissertation examines cultural impacts on leader behaviors in relation to the leadership styles of the extended full-range of leadership framework – including laissez-faire, transactional, transformational, and instrumental leadership – to provide a comprehensive model of leadership behaviors, underlying processes (mediators), and conditions (moderators) in an intercultural context. For this purpose, three complementary and concerted empirical studies were carried out. The first study simultaneously explores all of the extended full-range of leadership styles to identify which of these leader behaviors are most effective to enhance job satisfaction and affective commitment across cultures. The second study sheds light on the influence of cultural and individual openness values as moderators in order to investigate under which conditions the influence of transformational and instrumental leadership is particularly strong. The third study looks at the leader's communicator style to investigate the underlying processes of transformational and instrumental leadership behaviors in greater detail.

The aim of the first study is twofold. First, it aims to advance knowledge of the effectiveness and variation of the extended full-range of leadership styles in different cultures. Second, it explores whether the heretofore rarely investigated strategic-oriented instrumental leadership style is effective beyond the established full-range of leadership, namely laissez-faire, transactional, and transformational leadership. Therefore, the first study analyzes the relative importance of the four extended full-range of leadership constructs as predictors for leadership effectiveness in ten cultures. A total of 3,455 employees in Brazil, Cameroon, China, France, Germany, India, Iran, Poland, Russia, and Spain were surveyed using validated questionnaires at two measurement times (t1: extended full-range leadership styles, and t2:

outcome criteria job satisfaction and affective commitment). Relative weight analyses show that transformational leadership and instrumental leadership were most important for explaining the variance in job satisfaction and affective commitment. Transactional and laissez-faire leadership had no significant effects beyond transformational and instrumental leadership on both outcomes. These results provide the first evidence that instrumental aspects of leadership operate effectively across cultures in addition to transformational leadership. Furthermore, the study reveals a strong variability in the extent of the effects of transformational and instrumental leadership among cultures, which is an indication of moderators.

The aim of the second study was therefore to shed light on potential moderators, which influence transformational and instrumental leadership processes. Values play a key role as moderators in leadership processes because they shape – as overarching guiding principles through life – how individuals perceive and react to leadership. The majority of studies on cross-cultural leadership have examined values while considering cultural value indices (e.g., Hofstede, GLOBE) as moderators, thereby neglecting individual differences. Drawing on assumptions of the cultural congruence hypotheses, culturally endorsed implicit leadership theories, and the individualized leadership approach, the second study aimed to take the individual level into account by investigating whether it is cultural or rather individual values that moderate the relationship between transformational and instrumental leadership and job satisfaction and affective commitment. For this purpose, the influence of GLOBE's cultural dimension of future orientation and Schwartz's individual value of openness to change were compared in three cultures with the strongest divergence in regard to future orientation. In total, 1,631 people working in German-speaking countries, Eastern Europe, and the Middle East were surveyed. Stepwise regression analyses revealed positive relationships between transformational leadership and instrumental leadership and job satisfaction, and transformational leadership and affective commitment across cultures. While openness to

change moderated all relationships, future orientation did not. The results support the notion that followers' individual openness values influence leadership outcomes to a greater extent than differences between cultures. This result shows that not all individuals of a particular culture react to universally effective leadership styles in the same way. Therefore, it is important to consider leadership behaviors across cultures more differentiated.

Thus, the third study aimed to investigate leadership processes across cultures in a more differentiated way to get a better understanding of the micro-processes of leadership. Recent criticisms of the operationalization of transformational leadership as well as improvements in leadership research indicate that collective-focused and individual-focused facets of leadership affect leadership outcomes differently. However, the underlying mechanisms for explaining these differences as well as the robustness of findings across cultures remain unclear. To understand how collective- and individual-focused leadership foster job satisfaction in different ways, the third study utilizes a moderated mediation model focusing on the supervisor's communicator style as mediator in individualistic and collectivistic cultures. I argue, that collective- and individual-focused transformational as well as instrumental leadership behaviors might work differently across individualistic versus collectivistic cultures because leaders use different communicator styles. For this study, the data from all subjects (i.e., the entire data set consisting of 5,284 employees working in Brazil, Cameroon, China, France, Georgia, Germany, India, Iran, Poland, Russia, Spain, Switzerland, Turkey, and the United Arab Emirates) were analyzed to cover the widest possible range of different cultures. Multi-group structural equation modeling (MG-SEM) analyses revealed first evidence that collective-focused and individual-focused facets of leadership differently affect job satisfaction mediated via the supervisor's communicator style in individualistic and collectivistic cultures.

In summary, this dissertation represents an important step towards a more robust understanding of the effectiveness of the extended full-range of leader behaviors across cultures.

This dissertation contributes to the leadership literature in two key ways. On the one hand, it scrutinizes the *extended* full-range of leadership model – including instrumental leadership – in a wide range of different cultures. On the other hand, it expands this model in the sense of an input-process-output model which additionally includes boundary conditions. As such, this dissertation helps to reveal differentiated insights on underlying processes (mediators) and conditions (moderators) that shape the micro-level dynamics of leadership processes in different cultures. The main result of this dissertation is that – in line with theoretical expectations – transformational and instrumental leadership were the best predictors for job satisfaction and affective commitment across cultures. Moreover, although culture did not impact the direct relationships between transformational and instrumental leadership and job attitudes, more fine-grained analyses showed that culture had an influence on micro-processes of leadership.

Zusammenfassung

Digitalisierungsprozesse treiben die weltweite Vernetzung von Unternehmen voran, die kulturübergreifende Mobilität von Arbeitnehmern wächst stetig und Arbeitsgruppen werden zunehmend internationaler. Dies stellt Führungskräfte vor viele Herausforderungen und führt zu einem gesteigerten Interesse an dem Zusammenwirken von Kultur und Führung in Wissenschaft und Praxis. Zahlreiche interkulturell angelegte Studien haben bereits Zusammenhänge zwischen Führungsverhalten und daraus folgenden Arbeitseinstellungen untersucht. Dennoch besteht weiterhin Unklarheit über zugrundeliegende Prozesse sowie Bedingungen unter denen Führungsverhalten in unterschiedlichen Kulturen wirksam ist. Die vorliegende Dissertation untersucht anhand von drei empirischen Studien die Führungsstile des erweiterten Full-Range of Leadership Modells – dem derzeit umfassendsten Führungsmodell mit den Führungsstilen laissez-faire, transaktional, transformational und instrumentell – in 14 weltweiten Kulturen. Zusätzlich werden individuelle Werte als Moderatoren und der Kommunikationsstil der Führungskraft als Mediator betrachtet. Das erweiterte Full-Range of Leadership Modell wird auf diese Weise im interkulturellen Kontext überprüft und darüber hinaus im Sinne eines Input-Process-Output-Modells erweitert, um Aufschluss über zugrunde liegende Prozesse (Mediatoren) und Bedingungen (Moderatoren) zu geben.

Das Ziel von Studie 1 war dabei zunächst zu klären, welche Führungsstile des erweiterten Full-Range of Leadership Modells über Kulturen hinweg die größte Wirksamkeit aufweisen. Zu diesem Zweck wurde die relative Bedeutsamkeit dieser vier Führungsstile in 10 Ländern untersucht. Dies sollte Erkenntnisse zur Effektivität und Variabilität der Führungsstile in unterschiedlichen Kulturen bereitstellen und vor allem Aufschluss über die Effektivität des bisher kaum erforschten strategisch-orientierten instrumentellen Führungsstils erbringen. Befragt wurden 3.455 Berufstätige in Brasilien, Kamerun, China, Frankreich, Deutschland, Indien, dem Iran, Polen, Russland und Spanien mit validierten Online-Fragebögen zu zwei

Messzeitpunkten. Zum ersten Messzeitpunkt wurden die Führungsstile und zum zweiten Messzeitpunkt die Effektivitätskriterien Arbeitszufriedenheit und affektives Commitment erfragt. Über eine Analyse der relativen Gewichte konnte gezeigt werden, dass von den vier untersuchten Führungsstilen die transformationale und die instrumentelle Führung den wichtigsten inkrementellen Beitrag zur Varianzaufklärung von Arbeitszufriedenheit und affektivem Commitment leisteten. Diese Ergebnisse deuten darauf hin, dass neben transformationaler auch instrumentelle Führung über Kulturen hinweg effektiv wirkt. Des Weiteren offenbarte die Studie eine starke Variabilität der Wirkung der beiden Führungsstile zwischen den Kulturen, was häufig ein Hinweis auf das Vorliegen von Moderatoren ist.

Das Ziel von Studie 2 war daher Aufschluss zu geben, inwiefern Moderatoren auf transformationale und instrumentelle Führungsprozesse einwirken. Eine zentrale Rolle als Moderatoren im Führungsprozess spielen Werte, da sie prägen, wie Führung wahrgenommen wird. Werte steuern als übergeordnete Leitprinzipien das Verhalten und haben Einfluss darauf, wie Mitarbeiter auf Führungsverhalten reagieren. Bisherige Studien haben Werte im interkulturellen Kontext jedoch verstärkt auf nationaler Ebene untersucht, indem Kulturdimensionen (z.B. nach Hofstede oder GLOBE) als Moderatoren betrachtet wurden. Individuelle Wertunterschiede der Geführten wurden in diesen Studien häufig vernachlässigt. Studie 2 hatte daher zum Ziel, auch individuelle Werte zu berücksichtigen, indem auf Grundlage von kulturabhängigen impliziten Führungstheorien, der Kulturkongruenzhypothese und dem individualisierten Führungsansatz untersucht wurde, ob die Zusammenhänge zwischen transformationaler sowie instrumenteller Führung und den subjektiven Arbeitseinstellungen Arbeitszufriedenheit und affektivem Commitment eher durch die nationale Kultur oder individuelle Werte auf Mitarbeiterebene moderiert werden. Zu diesem Zweck wurde der Einfluss der GLOBE-Kulturdimension Zukunftsorientierung und des individuellen Wertes Offenheit für Wandel nach Schwartz in den drei Kulturen mit der höchsten Divergenz in Bezug

auf Zukunftsorientierung verglichen. Befragt wurden 1.631 berufstätige Personen in deutschsprachigen Kulturen, Osteuropa, und dem Nahen Osten. Hierarchische Regressionsanalysen zeigten in allen Kulturen einen signifikant positiven Zusammenhang zwischen transformationaler wie auch instrumenteller Führung und Arbeitszufriedenheit sowie transformationaler Führung und affektivem Commitment. Die Zusammenhänge wurden durch den individuellen Wert Offenheit, nicht aber durch den kulturellen Wert Zukunftsorientierung moderiert. Dies führte zu dem Schluss, dass die individuellen Werte der Mitarbeiter Führungsergebnisse stärker beeinflussen als die Unterschiede zwischen den Kulturen und Führungsstile nicht pauschal auf alle Individuen einer Kultur angewendet, sondern differenziert betrachtet werden sollten.

Nicht nur die Seite der Mitarbeiter, sondern auch die Seite der Führungskraft sollte differenziert untersucht werden, um der Führung zugrunde liegende (Mikro-)Prozesse zu ergründen. Das Ziel von Studie 3 war daher abschließend einen differenzierten Blick auf transformationale und instrumentelle Führung in allen erhobenen Kulturen unter Einbezug des Kommunikationsstils der Führungskraft zu werfen. Jüngste Kritik an der Operationalisierung von transformationaler Führung deutet darauf hin, dass Führungsfacetten, die an eine Gruppe oder ein Kollektiv gerichtete sind, anders wirken, als Führungsverhaltensweisen, die sich an Individuen richten (im Folgenden als kollektiv- bzw. individuell-orientierte Führungsfacetten bezeichnet). Eine Übertragbarkeit dieser dualen Perspektive auf weitere Führungsstile, die zugrundeliegenden Mechanismen und die Robustheit der Befunde über Kulturen hinweg, sind bislang jedoch weitgehend unerforscht. In Studie 3 wurde daher ein moderiertes Mediationsmodell mit dem Kommunikationsstil der Führungskraft als Mediator in individualistischen und kollektivistischen Kulturen untersucht. Dies sollte Aufschluss darüber geben, wie kollektiv- und individuell-orientiertes transformationales und instrumentelles Führungsverhalten die Arbeitszufriedenheit von Mitarbeitern begünstigt. Das Modell basiert auf der Annahme, dass sich kollektiv- und individuell-orientiertes Führungsverhalten zwischen individualistischen und

kollektivistischen Kulturen unterscheidet, da Führungskräfte auf unterschiedliche Kommunikationsstile zurückgreifen. Multi-Gruppen-Strukturgleichungsmodelle mit den Daten der Gesamtstichprobe, bestehend aus 5.284 Mitarbeiter aus Brasilien, Kamerun, China, Frankreich, Georgien, Deutschland, Indien, dem Iran, Polen, Russland, Spanien, der Schweiz, der Türkei und den Vereinigten Arabischen Emiraten, konnten diese Annahme bestätigen. Es zeigte sich, dass Einflüsse der kollektiv- und individuell-orientierten Führungsfacetten auf die Arbeitszufriedenheit in individualistischen und kollektivistischen Kulturen über unterschiedliche Kommunikationsstile der Führungskraft vermittelt werden.

Die vorliegende Dissertation trägt durch die Untersuchung der Führungsstile des erweiterten Full-Range of Leadership Modells in 14 Kulturen zu einer Erweiterung bestehender Führungsforschung bei. Durch den Einbezug der instrumentellen Führung wird dabei neben den bereits etablierten Führungskonzepten der Full-Range of Leadership Theorie auch ein neukonzipierter Führungsstil erforscht, der in Empirie und Praxis erst wenig und im globalen Vergleich noch keine Beachtung gefunden hat. Darüber hinaus werden – auf Grundlage etablierter Theorien und eingebettet in ein übergeordnetes Forschungsmodell – moderierende und mediierende Mechanismen aufgezeigt, um die Zusammenhänge zwischen Führungsstilen und Arbeitseinstellungen in verschiedenen Kulturen differenziert zu betrachten. Insgesamt zeigen die Ergebnisse der drei Studien, dass transformationale und instrumentelle Führung kulturübergreifend die wirksamsten Führungsstile des erweiterten Full-Range of Leadership Modells zur Steigerung der Arbeitszufriedenheit und des affektiven Commitments sind. Differenzierte Analysen offenbaren zudem Kultureinflüsse auf Mikroprozesse der Führung. Zusammenfassend leistet die Dissertation somit einen Beitrag zur Verringerung aktuell bestehender Forschungslücken, indem sie neue Befunde zur Wirkung der Führungsstile des erweiterten Full-Range of Leadership Modells in 14 stark unterschiedlichen Kulturen sowie zu wichtigen moderierenden und mediierenden Faktoren im Führungsprozess bereitstellt.

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List of Abbreviations

AV	Identifying and Articulating a Vision
cf.	from Latin *confer* ‚compare' or ‚consult'
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CI	Confidence Interval
CSM	Communicator Style Measure
df	Degrees of Freedom
eFRLT	extended Full-Range of Leadership Theory
EE	Eastern Europe
e.g.	from Latin *exempli gratia* 'for example'
EM	Environmental Monitoring
et al.	from Latin *et alia* 'and others'
FAG	Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals
FO	Future Orientation
FRLT	Full-Range of Leadership Theory
GE	Germanic Europe
GLOBE	Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Research Program
HPE	High Performance Expectation
i.e.	from Latin *id est* 'that is'
IL	Instrumental Leadership
ILcol	Collective-focused Instrumental Leadership
ILind	Individual-focused Instrumental Leadership
ICC	Intraclass Correlation Coefficient
IGC	In-Group Collectivism
INC	Institutional Collectivism

IS	Providing Individualized Support
ISN	Intellectual Stimulation
LF	Laissez-faire Leadership
M	Mean
ME	Middle East
MG-SEM	Multi-group Structural Equation Modeling
N	Sample Size
OM	Outcome Monitoring
PDI	Power Distance Orientation
PGF	Path-goal Facilitation
PAM	Providing an Appropriate Model
RMSEA	Root-mean-square Error of Approximation
SD	Standard Deviation
SE	Standard Error
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SF	Strategy Formulation and Implementation
SRMR	Standardized Root Mean Residual
TAL	Transactional Leadership
TFL	Transformational Leadership
TFLcol	Collective-focused Transformational Leadership
TFLind	Individual-focused Transformational Leadership
TLI	Transformational Leadership Inventory
UA	Uncertainty Avoidance
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor

1 Introduction

Advances in communication technology and an increasing cross-cultural mobility have enabled people from all over the world to work together. Firms are rapidly becoming multicultural environments where employees from different cultures meet and cooperate to achieve innovative work results. These employees reflect different working cultures, are inspired by different values, and they filter their actions through different norms and beliefs (Gelfand et al., 2011). Research draws a heterogeneous picture of the advantages and disadvantages of cultural diversity for organizations. Meta-analytic evidence of multicultural workgroups suggests, on the one hand, that cultural diversity increases task conflicts and reduces social integration among team members. On the other hand, it exhibits gains in the form of enhanced creativity and satisfaction with team performance (Stahl et al., 2010; Bell et al., 2011). Nevertheless, examples from practice show that cultural differences can cause considerable problems for organizations if they are not handled properly: about 35% of mergers fail due to cultural incompatibility (Rottig, Reus, & Tarba, 2013). Two prominent examples of this are the failed merger of the German and American car manufacturers Daimler and Chrysler, and the failure of the Swedish-Norwegian merger of the telecommunication companies Telia and Telenor. The last example demonstrates that cultural differences can even be a critical factor between two seemingly similar cultures (Fang et al., 2004; Holtbrügge et al., 2012).

Among the main causes for this incompatibility are so-called *soft* factors or human factors, such as incongruent values, misleading internal communication processes, and a different understanding of management principles (Franklin, 2007; Thomas & Peterson, 2018). Therefore, it is crucial to deepen our understanding of the impact of culture on these factors. The importance of cross-cultural research was recently emphasized in a review in the Journal of Applied Psychology. The authors of this review concluded that cross-cultural research "is needed more than ever to understand and leverage similarities and differences in an ever-more

increasingly globalized and interdependent world" (Gelfand et al., 2017: 524). They also point out that it is especially important to go beyond the question of *whether or not* culture matters and instead focus on *when* and *how* it matters (Gelfand et al., 2017: 522).

Leaders play a crucial role in successfully handling the challenges of a globally connected work environment in organizations. They shape working conditions, guide their followers' attitudes and behaviors, and create common values (Bass, 1990). However, leaders face many challenges to achieve this aim. They need to build up multicultural teams (Greer, Homan, DeHoogh, & DenHartog, 2012) and must find ways to help their employees to work well together (Liu, Chua, & Stahl, 2010). Additionally, due to the advantages of a globally connected work context, leaders have to deal with high levels of complexity (Gupta & Govindarajan, 2002), handle a high frequency of boundary-crossing activities (Beechler & Javidan, 2007), and they must cope with inconsistent working conditions that result in pressure to adapt to change (Burke, 2014). These various leadership tasks are best covered by the behaviors of the extended full-range of leadership model (Antonakis & House, 2014). This theoretical framework builds on the popular full-range leadership theory (Avolio & Bass, 1991) and in addition to relations-, change-, and task-oriented leadership behaviors it also integrates the strategic side of management, which is labeled as instrumental leadership. Currently, this framework displays the fullest spectrum of possible leader behaviors to describe core leadership behavior patterns (Antonakis & House, 2014).

Although culture might impact all these leadership behaviors, no study so far has examined the transferability of the extended full-range of leadership to cultures beyond the Western context. Testing the generalizability of this Western theory will become increasingly important as economic power shifts from the United States, Western Europe, and Japan to countries such as China, India, Russia, and Turkey by 2030 (National Intelligence Council's Global Trends Report, 2012). These countries are rapidly becoming trading partners and places

for industrial investment for Western companies (Dauth et al., 2014). Additionally, as emphasized by Gelfand et al. (2017) it is important to focus on *when* and *how* culture matters. To address the *when*, this dissertation will look at the employees' individual values that might moderate the reaction to these leadership behaviors within and across cultures. While managers may show a certain leadership style with universal relevance, this does not mean that all employees react in the same way to these behaviors (cf. individualized leadership approach, Dansereau et al., 1995). To address the *how*, the focus is set on the leader's communication behaviors, which constitute up to 80 percent of a manager's daily work and are vital for putting leadership goals into action (Mintzberg, 1973; van Quaquebeke & Felps, 2018). A deepened understanding of the micro-level dynamics underlying leadership influences will help to uncover how leadership becomes effective (e.g., Lehmann-Willenbrock, Meinecke, Rowold, & Kauffeld, 2016).

1.1 Research Goals and Research Questions

The overarching goal of this dissertation is to investigate how the effectiveness of leader behaviors differs across cultures. It examines the general effectiveness of the extended full-range of leadership styles (Antonakis & House, 2014) across cultures as well as explores differences in the underlying moderating and mediating mechanisms that shape the micro-level dynamics of these leadership processes in different cultural settings. For this purpose, three empirical studies were conducted to answer four research questions, which will be outlined in the following.

In the first instance, this dissertation aims to explore which leadership styles out of the extended full-range of leadership are most effective in different cultures and across different cultures. There is an increased need to study effective leadership styles across cultures in recent years because due to advancements in communication technology and increasing cross-cultural

mobility firms are becoming multicultural environments, enabling people from all over the world to work together. This development poses great challenges for supervisors. A successful leader in this environment must be able to handle a wide range of diversity, high levels of complexity, and high frequencies of boundary-crossing activities (Beechler & Javidan, 2007; Caligiuri, 2006; Gupta & Govindarajan, 2002; White & Rosamilia, 2010). These aspects are covered by strategic leadership behaviors, which have been shown to be essential for global effective leaders (Hanges et al., 2016; O'Connell, 2014). However, within the current leadership research, especially from an intercultural perspective, these strategic leadership behaviors (e.g., scanning the environment for opportunities and threats) have been neglected (Antonakis & House, 2014). Therefore, there is a growing need to study the outcomes of strategic-oriented, also labelled as instrumental, leadership in an intercultural context.

Instrumental leadership represents one part of the extended full-range of leadership theory, namely the strategic and task-oriented side. Aspects of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership complement a full-range leader (Avolio & Bass, 1991) and have also been demonstrated to play important roles for leading effectively in a global context (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Dorfman et al., 2012). From a methodological perspective, it is important not to consider the impact of only one relevant leadership style on outcome criteria in isolation to prevent endogeneity bias and the under-specification of models (Fischer, Dietz, and Antonakis, 2017). Furthermore, there is an on-going discussion in leadership research about how much overlapping content various leadership styles share and to what degree the established leadership concepts capture different behaviors (e.g., Graen, Rowold, & Heinitz, 2010; Bormann & Rowold, 2018). Due to the high interrelations of these leadership constructs, they need to be tested simultaneously. However, until now only a few studies have looked at the link between different leadership styles and work-related outcomes simultaneously and none of these studies has taken instrumental leadership into account. Thus, the first aim of this

dissertation is to identify the most effective leadership style within the extended full-range of leadership across cultures by comparing all of these leadership constructs simultaneously. Consequently, Study 1 explores the following research question as a starting point for this dissertation:

> *Research Question 1: Which leadership styles of the extended full-range of leadership model are most effective in different cultures while accounting for multicollinearity?*

In Study 1, the transformational and instrumental leadership style were identified – in line with theoretical assumptions – as the most effective leadership behaviors out of the extended full-range of leadership across cultures. The next two research questions build on and extend these results by assessing the micro-processes of transformational and instrumental leadership in more detail. Namely, it considers which conditions (moderators) and underlying processes (mediators) influence and convey the effectiveness of these two leadership styles in different cultural settings. Research Question 2 sheds light on the followers' side in the leader-follower-interaction by investigating the impact of the follower's individual values on leadership. Research Question 3 focuses on the leader's behaviors by concentrating on the leader's communicator style, which represents a concrete leader attribute that can be observed and not a "black box" phenomenon (Norton, 1983). Both values and communication play crucial roles in leadership processes. Values shape personal motives and goals, direct decisions and behaviors and thus greatly influence followers' reactions to leadership behaviors (Ehrhart & Klein, 2001; Shin & Zhou, 2003). The communicator style represents an essential link between leaders and followers in the leadership process and is highly relevant for building relationships as well as imparting goal orientation and stability (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2009, 2012, 2016; Kitchen & Daly, 2002).

Research Question 2 addresses the moderating impact of cultural and individual values on transformational and instrumental leadership behaviors. Although there is a large body of literature on the impact of cultural values on transformational leadership (e.g., Tsui et al., 2007), there is only sparse evidence (e.g., Shin & Zhou, 2003; Walumbwa et al., 2007) that outlines a moderation model for the impact of individual values on transformational leadership in a cross-cultural context. Moreover, to date there exists no theoretical assumptions nor empirical evidence for explaining the influences of any moderator on instrumental leadership. However, it is important to explore the impact of moderators, such as values, on both leadership styles as scholars point out that the universal relevance of an attribute or behavior (e.g., a leadership style) does not mean that it is equally effective in all situations. Consequently, although transformational and instrumental leadership might be of universal relevance, there can exist a significant difference in the expression, perception, and also effectiveness of these behaviors across cultures (Den Hartog et al., 1999; Yukl, 2013). Variation in effectiveness of leadership is often attributed to moderators. To investigate values as potential moderators, Study 2 focusses on openness values at the individual and societal level. This type of values signals a striving for excitement, novelty, and challenge (Schwartz, 2003) and a general openness towards future events (House et al., 2004). Given that an essential function of leadership is envisioning the future and providing long-term direction (Yukl, 2013), these values might be highly relevant for the reaction to leadership. In sum, this leads to the second research question:

Research Question 2: What impact do cultural and individual values have on the relation between transformational and instrumental leadership with job attitudes?

Research Question 3 focuses on the mediating mechanisms underlying transformational and instrumental leadership behaviors. The leadership literature is lacking an understanding of the underlying influence processes and micro-level dynamics of leadership and further

knowledge is needed on how and why leadership becomes effective (cf., Fischer, Dietz, & Antonakis, 2017; Lehmann-Willenbrock, Meinecke, Rowold, & Kauffeld, 2016). To shed light on these underlying processes, Study 3 focusses on the leader's communication behaviors, which constitute up to 80 percent of a manager's daily work and are vital for putting leadership goals into action (Mintzberg, 1973; van Quaquebeke & Felps, 2018). Concretely, it investigates the leader's communicator style – the way the leader communicates (Norton, 1983) – representing a tangible and observable bridging mechanism between leaders and followers during leadership processes. Research shows that the leader's communicator style is, on the one hand, important for building interpersonal relationships between the supervisor and the followers (e.g., De Vries et al., 2010) and on the other, it conveys goal orientation, stability, and enthusiasm for the leader's vision (Kitchen & Daly, 2002). Although these findings signal the importance of the communicator style for leadership goals, research on this construct in the leadership literature is scarce. To elucidate the mediating mechanism of the leader's communicator style in the leadership process, the third research question was formulated:

Research Question 3: How does the leader's communicator style mediate transformational and instrumental leadership processes?

Finally, Research Question 4 picks up recent calls in the leadership research to investigate leadership behaviors on a more differentiated level. Criticism of the operationalization of transformational leadership (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013) as well as improvements in leadership research indicate that collective-focused and individual-focused facets of transformational leadership affect leadership outcomes differently (Kunze, DeJong, & Bruch, 2016; Wu, Tsui, & Kinicki, 2010). These findings are an important step in leadership research, but several theoretical questions and alternate explanations are unresolved. The current research has not yet clarified whether other leadership styles might benefit from this

split, nor which micro-dynamics underlie these processes, and insufficient attention has been paid to ensure the robustness of findings on collective-focused and individual-focused leadership in different cultural settings. The fourth research question draws attention to these points. In the first instance, it considers whether the dual perspective of leadership can be usefully applied to another type of leadership, namely instrumental leadership. Secondly, it investigates the micro-level dynamics underlying collective- and individual-focused leadership influences by taking a differentiated view on transformational and instrumental leadership behaviors in combination with the leader's communicator style. Lastly, it addresses a recent call regarding the robustness of findings on differentiated transformational leadership across cultures (Kunze et al., 2016) by testing the proposed model in 14 countries with different degrees of individualism and collectivism. In sum, this results in the last research question:

> *Research Question 4: How does collectivism /individualism influence the indirect effect of individual-focused and collective-focused transformational and instrumental leadership on job attitudes via the leader's communicator style?*

In order to answer the aforementioned research questions, three complementary and concerted empirical studies were conducted. Study 1 was intended to investigate Research Question 1 by exploring the general effectiveness of the extended full-range of leadership behaviors with a sample of 3,455 employees in Brazil, Cameroon, China, France, Germany, India, Iran, Poland, Russia, and Spain. Through simultaneously analyzing all leadership styles out of the extended full-range of leadership model, Study 1 revealed that transformational and instrumental leadership were the most effective leadership styles across these ten cultures to enhance the followers' job satisfaction and affective commitment. I followed up on these results to investigate relevant conditions (Research Question 2) and underlying processes (Research Question 3) for transformational and instrumental leadership's effectiveness in a more

differentiated way (Research Question 4). Study 2 addressed Research Question 2 and analyzed with a sample of 1,631 employees from the cultural clusters with the highest divergence in terms of future-oriented behaviors, namely Germanic Europe, Eastern Europe, and the Middle East, the moderating influences of individual and societal openness values on the aforementioned relationships. Finally, in Study 3 a fine-grained statistical assessment of the entire data set was applied to cover the widest possible range of different cultures for investigating Research Questions 3 and Research Question 4. Analyzing the total sample consisting of 5,284 employees working in Brazil, Cameroon, China, France, Georgia, Germany, India, Iran, Poland, Russia, Spain, Switzerland, Turkey, and the United Arab Emirates enabled me to explore underlying processes of leadership by taking a differentiated view on both leadership styles while considering the leader's communicator style. Taken together, the three studies offer a comprehensive investigation of the extended full-range of leadership model in a cross-cultural context. Moreover, they provide insights into moderators and mediators as explanatory mechanisms of these leadership processes. The theoretical embedding of the research questions, the integration into an overall research model, and the contribution of this dissertation are presented at the end of the theoretical section (see Chapter 2.3).

1.2 Outline of the Dissertation

This dissertation consists of six main chapters (see Table 1). *Chapter 1* includes the introduction, the overarching research goals, the research questions, and an outline of the structure of the dissertation. *Chapter 2* summarizes the core constructs of this dissertation, namely the leadership styles of the extended full-range of leadership model, cultural and individual values, and the leader's communicator style. Each section entails theories to explain the association of these core variables with leadership and a review of the relevant empirical evidence. Chapter 2 concludes with the overall research model of this dissertation, explaining

the relationships between the variables and the connection between the three studies. In addition, the most important contributions of the dissertation are outlined. *Chapters 3 to 5* include the three empirical studies testing and answering the research questions and representing the core part of the dissertation. Each study describes the underlying theory, the procedure of data collection and data analyses, the results, and a discussion of these results. *Chapter 6* concludes with an overall discussion summarizing the main results of the three studies and linking it to existing theory. Afterwards, the shared limitations of the three studies are discussed leading to an extension of the research model of this dissertation with implications for future research. Additionally, implications for practitioners are derived. Chapter 6 closes with a conclusion of the dissertation.

Table 1. Overview of the Main Chapters.

Chapter	**Content**
1	Introduction, Research Goals and Research Questions, Outline of the Dissertation
2	Theoretical Background
3	Study 1: *A Cross-cultural Investigation of the Extended Full-Range of Leadership Model*
4	Study 2: *The Impact of Cultural and Individual Values on Transformational and Instrumental Leadership*
5	Study 3: *A Cross-cultural Investigation of Individual- and Collective-focused Transformational and Instrumental Leadership Behaviors*
6	Overall Discussion, Summary of Findings, Contribution, Limitations, Theoretical and Practical Implications, Conclusion

2 Theoretical Background

Leadership has been one of most important topics in Work and Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior and Management for over a century (Lord, Day, Zaccaro, Avolio, & Eagly, 2017). As leadership is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon, it is often given highly contradictory definitions (Antonakis, House, & Simonton, 2017). According to Yukl (2013: 2) reflect "most definitions of leadership the assumption that it involves a process whereby intentional influence is exerted over other people to guide, structure, and facilitate activities and relationships in a group or organization". Thus, a widely used and accepted definition across scholars is to regard leadership as "the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives" (Yukl, 2013: 7).

Leadership has been investigated in numerous ways, and theories and concepts of leadership have focused on leader dispositions, leader behaviors, power and influence tactics, relational aspects, team centric criteria, ethical and moral principles, factors of the situation, or a combination of these variables (e.g., trait theories, transformational, transactional, authentic, ethical, servant leadership, abusive supervision, leader-member-exchange, shared leadership, situational leadership, cross-cultural leadership, or contingency theories; e.g., Bass, 1990; Dinh et al., 2013; Fiedler, 1971; Gardner et al., 2011; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Hersey & Blanchard, 1977; Hoch et al., 2018; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Liden & Maslyn, 1998; Pears & Sims, 2002). A useful way to organize the complex field of leadership theory and research is to classify it according to the type of variable that is most frequently emphasized. According to Yukl (2013), these key variables are (1) characteristics of the leader (e.g., traits like motives and personality, leadership behavior, and influence tactics), (2) characteristics of the followers (e.g., traits like needs, values, or the self-concept), and (3) characteristics of the situation (e.g., organizational

culture or national cultural values). Figure 1 visualizes the likely causal relationships among these variables.

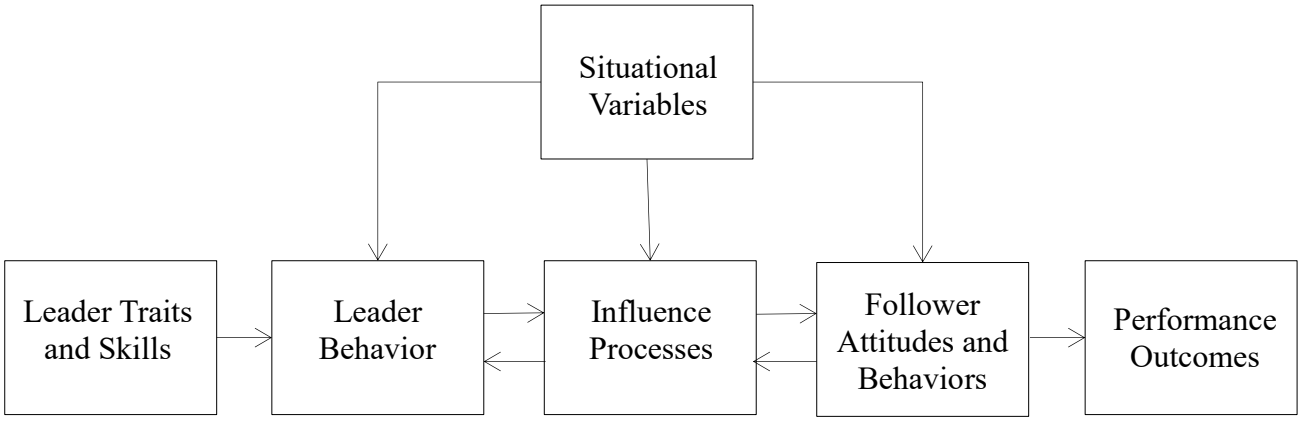


Figure 1. Causal Relationships among the Primary Types of Leadership Variables (Yukl, 2013: 11).

According to Yukl's (2013) conceptualization, situational factors such as culture particularly impact the variables *leader behavior*, *influence processes*, and *follower attitudes and behaviors*. Therefore, this dissertation focuses on these key variables. To address *leader behavior,* it will concentrate on the extended full-range of leadership as the most comprehensive and most recent theoretical framework of effective leadership behaviors (Bormann & Rowold, 2018). To address *influence processes,* the leader's communicator style (Norton, 1983) is investigated as a bridging mechanism between the leader and the follower. Although communication is considered as an elementary component of leadership (e.g., van Quaquebeke & Felps, 2018), in existing leadership theories it is only implicitly included, and research on the interface of leadership and communication theories shows clear deficits (Cohen, 2004; Hertzsch et al., 2012). To shed light on the component *follower attitudes and behaviors*, this dissertation focusses on the follower attitudes job satisfaction and affective commitment. These job attitudes are part of the basic direct results of leader behaviors (Lowe et al., 1996; Jackson et al., 2013) and are reliable predictors for follower behaviors such as organizational citizenship behavior, job performance, and turnover intentions (Williams & Anderson, 1991; Meyer et al.,

2002; Judge et al., 2017). Therefore, both outcomes are an appropriate measure to investigate the general effectiveness of leadership. In addition, employees' values are included because they play an important role as motivators in response to leadership behaviors (Schwartz, 1992; 2003; Shin & Zhou, 2003). The following section provides an overview of the theoretical background of these focal constructs.

2.1 The Extended Full-Range of Leadership

The most influential and best researched leadership model of recent decades is the full-range of leadership theory (FRLT) consisting of laissez-faire, transactional, and transformational leadership (Avolio & Bass, 1991). Avolio and Bass's (1991) original conceptualization is comprised of nine leadership factors: one laissez-faire, three transactional, and five transformational factors. Scholars have criticized this nine-factor model due to its theoretical conceptualization as well as statistical overlap (Heinitz & Rowold, 2007; Podsakoff et al., 1990). Consequently, they refined this FRLT model by reducing transactional leadership to one factor (contingent reward) and a six-factorial conceptualization of transformational leadership showing satisfactory validity criteria (Krüger, Rowold, Borgmann, Staufenbiel, & Heinitz, 2011).

Within the FRLT, the three leadership styles are arranged on a continuum from passive-ineffective to active-effective leadership. Laissez-faire is categorized as the most passive style – the absence of leadership. Transactional – contingent reward – leadership incorporates classic task-oriented management activities such as setting goals and rewarding outcomes. Transformational leadership is characterized by a high level of leader activity to inspire and motivate followers, which aims on transforming their values to enhance performance (Bass, 1985). Following this conceptualization, laissez-faire represents the passive-ineffective pole and transformational leadership the most active and effective pole (Antonakis & House, 2002).

However, the FRLT has been criticized in recent years as it neglects the importance of task-oriented and in particular strategy-oriented leadership behaviors (e.g., initiating structure; Antonakis & House, 2002; Graen, Rowold, & Heinitz, 2010; Yukl, 1999; 2008). Thus, Antonakis and House (2002, 2004) expanded the FRLT, adding instrumental leadership as a highly proactive strategy focused style, complementing the FRLT to the extended full-range of leadership theory (eFRLT[1], Antonakis & House, 2014). In the following section, the four eFRLT styles – laissez-faire, transactional, transformational, and instrumental leadership – will be presented in detail.

2.1.1 Laissez-Faire Leadership

Laissez-faire leadership refers to the inactivity of the leader or the nonexistence of leadership as the leader diminishes leadership activities to a minimum. It is defined as the leader's "passive indifference about the task and subordinates" (Yukl, 2013: 323) and is best described as "the avoidance or absence of leadership" (Judge & Piccolo, 2004: 756). A laissez-faire manager abdicates responsibilities, hesitates in acting, avoids making decisions, ignores problems and subordinates needs, and is absent when needed (Bass, 1990). According to Bass's (1996, 1997) hierarchical arrangement of the FRLT styles, this avoidance of essential leadership functions is the most passive and least effective type of management leading to a number of negative consequences for the leader, the organization, and the followers (Skogstad, Einarsen, Torsheim, Aasland, & Hetland, 2007; Skogstad, Hetland, Glasø, & Einarsen, 2014).

Judge and Piccolo's (2004) meta-analysis revealed that laissez-faire leadership was strongly negatively interrelated to the followers' satisfaction with the leader (r = .58) as well as

[1] To date, this leadership model or theory is not clearly named. John Antonakis refers to it as the "[…] Antonakis-House (Antonakis & House, 2014) 'fuller' full-range leadership model" (Antonakis, House, & Simonton, 2017: 1006), a "[…] 'fuller' full-range leadership theory […]" (Antonakis & House, 2014: 764), an "extension of transformational-transactional leadership theory" (Antonakis & House, 2014: 746), or "[…] extended full-range model (one that would include IL too) […]" (Antonakis & House, 2014: 751). Rowold (2014: 367) refers to it as an "extension to the transformational-transactional leadership paradigm". I refer to this framework as "extended full-range of leadership" including all other designations.

leader effectiveness (r = .54). Other studies have shown that the passivity of the leader includes a lack of transparency concerning followers' obligations and responsibilities, thereby creating a work atmosphere with high degrees of stressors (Skogstad et al., 2007). For example, such interpersonal stressors include role conflicts and role ambiguity (Kelloway, Sivanathan, Francis, & Barling, 2005), conflicts with coworkers (Ågotnes, Einarsen, Hetland, & Skogstad, 2018), bullying at work (Glambek, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2018), psychological distress, and overall work dissatisfaction (Skogstad et al., 2007). Additionally, the negative results of laissez-faire leadership seem to most commonly occur when the leader behavior did not match the followers' expectations. In this case, even empowering leadership was perceived by the followers as laissez-faire, leading to lower leader effectiveness evaluations (Wong & Giessner, 2018).

Therefore, several authors have concluded that laissez-faire leadership "is not a type of zero-leadership, but a type of destructive leadership behavior" (Skogstad et al., 2007: 80), that it is "nearly as important as the presence of other forms of leadership" (Judge & Piccolo, 2004: 765), and "that even engaging in suboptimal leadership behaviors is better than inaction" (De Rue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011). These findings clearly underscore the importance of investigating laissez-faire leadership. Nevertheless, there are far fewer empirical studies including laissez-faire than transactional and transformational leadership (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). More specifically, there are only a few empirical studies comparing laissez-faire leadership across cultures (e.g., Ardichvili & Kuchinke, 2010; Jogulu, 2010; Sarros & Santora, 2001; Zwingmann, Wegge, Wolf, Rudolf, Schmidt, Richter, 2014). However, based on the results of these studies and meta-analytical findings taking into account results of many different countries (e.g., Judge & Piccolo, 2004; DeRue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011), it can be assumed that laissez-fair leadership behavior is a less effective leadership style in most cultures.

2.1.2 Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership is defined as leader behavior that is "largely based on the exchange of rewards contingent on performance" (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009: 427). This exchange process results in the followers' compliance with the leader's request, but it is not to be expected to create commitment and enthusiasm to tasks and objectives (Yukl, 2013). This leadership pattern is built on well-defined, quid-pro-quo transactions between the leader and the followers (Bass, 1990). Bass's (1985) original conception involved two classes of transactional behaviors: contingent reward as an active type and management by exception as a "less active" transactional leader practice (Bass, Waldman, Avolio, Bebb, 1987: 74). In more recent versions, Bass (e.g., Bass & Avolio, 1990) added active management by exception as a supplementary transactional behavior.

Generally, *management by exception* refers to the amount to which a leader correctively intervenes based on the outcomes of the leader–follower transaction. Consequently, *active* and *passive* management by exception differ in the timing of intervening: an active leader monitors the followers' behaviors, anticipates difficulties, enforces rules to avoid mistakes, and interferes before serious problems occur, whereas a passive leader waits until difficulties occur and then acts (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). *Contingent reward* is defined as "the degree to which the leader sets up constructive transactions or exchanges with followers: The leader clarifies expectations and establishes the rewards for meeting these expectations" (Judge & Piccolo, 2004: 755). This reward can be material (e.g., a salary bonus) or immaterial (e.g., praise and appreciation). According to Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990), contingent reward is the key behavior to characterize transactional leadership as it covers the exchange idea, which is essential to transactional leader behaviors. For this reason, only contingent reward is considered as transactional leadership behavior in this dissertation.

The influence process of transactional leadership can be explained through this exchange between the leader and the follower as it is likely to result in the follower's compliance with the leader's request (Yukl, 2013). Meta-analytic studies on transactional (contingent reward) leadership show that these behaviors enhance followers' job satisfaction (Judge & Piccolo, 2004), organizational commitment (Jackson et al., 2013), and performance (Wang et al., 2011). There is also empirical evidence of the "universal potential" (Bass, 1996: 754) of transactional leadership. Dorfman and colleagues (1997) demonstrated that besides leader supportiveness and charisma, transactional contingent reward leadership positively influenced organizational commitment and job performance in Japan, Mexico, South Korea, Taiwan, and the United States. Walumbwa, Lawler, and Avolio (2007) have shown that transactional contingent reward leadership was positively associated with the level of satisfaction with the leader and organizational commitment in China, India, Kenya, and the U.S.

Nevertheless, through transactional processes followers may adapt their behavior in the leader's intended direction, but may not automatically be convinced of what they are doing. This differs from transformational leadership's influences. While transactional leadership forms the basis for a relationship between the leader and the followers, transformational leadership goes further by reaching for performance *beyond expectation* (Bass, 1985). Following Bass (1990), increase transformational leaders the motivation and performance of their followers' more than transactional leaders, but effective leaders combine both types of leadership.

2.1.3 Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership describes a bundle of leader behaviors which aim to transform the followers' attitudes and values, shifting them away from selfish goals towards overarching organizational goals in order to increase the followers' performance (Bass, 1985).

Avolio, Walumbwa, and Weber (2009: 423) define transformational leadership as "leader behaviors that transform and inspire followers to perform beyond expectations while transcending self-interests for the good of the organization". Transformational leaders inspire and motivate their employees intrinsically, for example, by communicating an attractive vision of the future, acting as role models, and supporting the individual development of employees (Avolio & Bass, 1991; Bass, 1985). The idea of transformational leadership goes back to Burn's (1978) biographical analyses of politicians and their leadership styles. Bass (1985) extended Burn's (1978) thinking of "transforming" leadership and coined the term *transformational leadership*. Bass (1985) found that the expression of transformational leadership can primarily be measured by its impact on followers. Followers who were led transformationally develop loyalty, trust, and respect for their leader as he or she provides a long-termed vision of the future as well as an identity, such as by promoting group goals (Bass, 1991). Moreover, Bass (1985) pointed out that transformational and transactional leadership can occur simultaneously in the behaviors of the same leader and do not exclude each other.

Based on Bass's (1985) theory, transformational behaviors can be assigned to four categories (the so-called "four I's"; Bass & Avolio, 1994). First, *inspirational motivation* describes how the leader enhances the followers' intrinsic motivation with an inspiring vision of the future and through the usage of symbols for articulating this vision. Second, *idealized influence* means that leaders serve as charismatic and trustworthy role models for their followers. Third, *intellectual stimulation* means that a leader encourages his or her followers to think innovatively so that they feel positively challenged and view problems and traditional processes from a novel perspective and develop innovative solutions. Fourth, *individualized consideration* means that the leader attends to the followers' individual feelings and needs and develops their individual abilities and strengths.

Building on Bass's (1985) work and other existing interpretations of transformational leadership, Podsakoff and colleagues (e.g., Podsakoff et al., 1990, 1996) refined the transformational leadership paradigm and defined six dimensions to assess transformational leadership behaviors. The dimension *identifying and articulating a vision* is similar to Bass's (1985) inspirational motivation. It describes how the leader creates an inspiring, positive, and emotional picture of the future, which motivates the followers to achieve goals that they previously considered as unachievable. Also linked to Bass's (1985) inspirational motivation is the facet *high performance expectation*. This means that the leader has high individual expectations of the followers and communicates his or her confidence that the followers will meet this expectation. *Providing an appropriate role model* refers to the leader's function as a credible role model which followers can observe and imitate. By doing this, the leader aligns his or her behavior to values and common goals, following the notion of 'walk the talk' (Podsakoff et al., 1990). *Fostering the acceptance of group goals* means that the leader creates a common identity so that followers put aside selfish interests and work towards a common goal. Both the dimensions of providing an appropriate model and fostering the acceptance of group goals are associated with Bass's (1985) dimension of idealized influence. With *intellectual stimulation*, the leader continuously challenges the followers to query their way of thinking and encourages them to embrace innovative thinking and problem-solving solutions. This facet is similar to Bass's (1985) dimension of intellectual stimulation. Lastly, *providing individualized support* correspondents with Bass's (1985) individualized consideration. It describes how the leader recognizes and respects the individual follower's feelings and needs when setting objectives and allocating tasks. In this manner, the leader is able to individually promote and motivate the followers.

Since the mid-1980s, transformational leadership has been increasingly studied (Lord, Day, Zaccaro, Avolio, & Eagly, 2017). Transformational leadership has been examined in a

variety of studies with numerous different outcome criteria, ranging from motivational to affective to performance-oriented variables (e.g., Jackson et al., 2013; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Wang et al., 2011). Additionally, transformational leadership is considered the most effective form of leadership, augmenting transactional leadership's effects (Bass, 1985, 1996, 1997; Wang et al., 2011) and has been demonstrated to have culturally independent positively endorsed leadership attributes (Den Hartog et al., 1999). Nevertheless, transformational leadership has been criticized in recent years for its conceptual and methodical weaknesses (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). Moreover, transformational leadership covers only change- and relations-oriented aspects of leadership (Yukl, Gordon, & Taber, 2002), but does not consider functional and pragmatic leadership behaviors such as to monitor the environment and the followers' performance, or to implement strategic and tactical solutions (Antonakis & House, 2014). These behaviors are covered by instrumental leadership.

2.1.4 Instrumental Leadership

An instrumental leader improves the followers' performance by using knowledge in a strategic and instrumental way to reach organizational goals (Rowold, 2014). Antonakis and House (2014: 749) define instrumental leadership as "the application of leader expert knowledge on monitoring of the environment and of performance, and the implementation of strategy and tactical solutions". For developing the concept of instrumental leadership, Antonakis and House (2014) built on functional (Morgeson et al., 2010) and pragmatic leadership theory (Mumford, 2006) as well as arguments of strategic leadership and path-goal theory (House, 1971). Based on these frameworks, instrumental leadership comprises two strategic and two facilitating subcomponents. The two strategic components, together termed *strategic leadership*, refer to observing the work environment for opportunities and threats (environmental monitoring) and breaking down the company's vision into achievable tasks for

the followers (strategy formulation and implementation). The two facilitating subcomponents, referred to as *follower-work-facilitation*, include supporting the followers' path to goal fulfillment by providing resources and removing obstacles (path-goal facilitation) as well as giving continuously constructive feedback on performance (outcome monitoring; cf. Antonakis & House, 2014; Rowold, 2014; McKee, Lee, Atwater, & Antonakis, 2018).

It should be mentioned that there are other conceptualizations of instrumental forms of leader behaviors (e.g., Stogdill, 1963; Nadler & Tushman, 1990). These behaviors are primarily goal-oriented and focused on completing tasks. Therefore, studies referring to 'instrumental leadership' in this conceptualization use it comparably to transactional leadership (e.g., Kersting, Ulhoi, Song, Niu, 2015; Maurits et al., 2015; Mulki, Caemmerer, & Heggde, 2015; Soodan & Pandey, 2017; Tung & Yu, 2016). However, Antonakis and colleagues (e.g., Antonakis & House, 2002, 2004, 2014; McKee et al., 2018) clearly emphasize that instrumental leadership (IL) is to be differentiated from transactional as well as transformational leadership:

> IL is intended to complement the transactional and transformational components of the full range leadership paradigm (e.g., Bass, 1985). In that regard, IL is a qualitatively different style of leadership as compared to transactional and transformational leadership because IL is wholly focused on strategic and task-oriented leadership functions; as such, it does not include the contingent rewards and sanctions underlying transactional leadership, nor does it include the affective and value-based aspects or inspirational appeals inherent to transformational leadership. (McKee et al., 2018: 12 ff.)

To date, five published studies exist that empirically investigate instrumental leadership according to the aforementioned conceptualization. Antonakis and House (2014) validated a questionnaire to assess instrumental leadership and, further, found that instrumental leadership was seen as prototypical leader behavior and had a stronger relationship to leader effectiveness

and similar relationship to employees' work satisfaction than transformational leadership. Rowold (2014) demonstrated instrumental leadership's effectiveness on job satisfaction and affective commitment as well as on objective performance as outcome criteria in two German samples. Antonakis, House, and Simonton (2017) found that leader intelligence predicted instrumental leadership as prototypical leader behavior. Rowold, Diebig, and Heinitz (2017) examined the positive effects of a leader's instrumental behaviors on followers' subjective and objective levels of strain (self-assessed work stress and hair cortisol). McKee, Lee, Atwater, and Antonakis (2018) investigated the influence of gender and personality on self-other agreement in the rating of instrumental leadership behaviors. These findings show that instrumental leader behaviors are effective for enhancing different outcome criteria. In addition, Antonakis and House (2014) demonstrated that the effects of the full-range leadership factors – especially of transformational leadership – were overstated leading to biased estimates when instrumental leadership was omitted from the analysis.

Regarding the robustness of instrumental leadership across cultures, Antonakis and House (2014: 764) state that their results on instrumental leadership are "quite generalizable given we used samples from several firms, countries, and time periods". Nevertheless, they only included data from Western countries, mainly Switzerland, with fewer data from France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, the Netherlands, Sweden, the United Kingdom, and the United States. Therefore, at present, there are no cross-cultural studies that examine the effectiveness of instrumental leadership outside Western cultures. For this reason, it has not yet been comprehensively clarified where in the activity-effectiveness structure of the *extended* full-range of leadership instrumental leadership it is to be correctly located (i.e., closer to transactional or transformational leadership or even above transformational leadership) and if this behavior has "universal potential" like transactional and transformational leadership.

2.2 Leadership, Job Attitudes, Values, and Communication

This chapter refers to the relationship between the aforementioned leadership styles and job attitudes. Moreover, it addresses cultural and individual values as possible moderators, and the leader's communicator style as a potential mediator of these relationships, resulting in an integrative research model for this dissertation.

2.2.1 Leadership and Job Attitudes

Eagly and Chaiken (1993: 1) define an attitude as "a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor". Consequently, job attitudes describe how people think about and relate to their job. This can be expressed, for example, through the degree of job satisfaction, morale, commitment, involvement, or work engagement. Job satisfaction has been one of the most important job attitudes (Judge et al., 2017). It is defined as the "pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience" (Locke, 1576: 1304) and refers to the overall "evaluative judgement one makes about one's job" (Weiss, 2002: 175). The followers' commitment to the organization is strongly related to job satisfaction. According to Allen and Meyer (1990: 1), organizational commitment can be separated in three components: normative commitment – "the obligation to remain with the organization", continuance commitment – "the costs […] of leaving the organization", and affective commitment – "the emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization". Among these three components, affective commitment has the strongest relation to leadership behaviors.

Both job attitudes are part of the basic direct results of leader behaviors. Positive effects of transformational, and transactional leadership, and negative effects of laissez-faire leadership on the followers' job satisfaction and affective commitment have meta-analytical been confirmed (Dumdum et al., 2002; Jackson et al., 2013; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Sturm et al., 2011). Research on instrumental leadership shows also positive effects on follower's job

satisfaction and affective commitment (Antonakis & House, 2014; Rowold, 2014). Both job attitudes are, further, reliable predictors for the followers' behaviors, such as organizational citizenship behavior, job performance, and turnover intentions (Riketta, 2008; Meyer et at, 2002; Judge et al., 2017). Thus, these attitudes are an appropriate measure to investigate the general effectiveness of leadership and for comparing the effectiveness of leadership in different cultures with different languages as they are easily accessible.

2.2.2 Leadership and Cultural Values

Culture has been defined in various ways, and a substantial body of knowledge has been produced on this topic. Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952) acknowledged 164 definitions of culture but more have been added since then (Rottig, Reus, & Tarba, 2013). The common aspect of these various definitions is that culture is regarded as a complex system of values which – partially subconsciously – influences people's actions and behaviors (Engelen & Tholen, 2014). According to House et al. (2004: 15), culture is the pattern of "shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives and are transmitted across age generations". People who share these patterns belong to a culture or closely related cultures. Hence, ascribing cultural components to a particular social phenomenon implies a consistent pattern of thinking and behavior among a given population, which is shared by many, but not all, of its members. To compare different national cultures with one another in cross-cultural research, it is common to use cultural value dimensions (Engelen & Tholen, 2014). The most comprehensive research project dealing with cultural values and leadership is the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness research program (GLOBE, House et al., 2004).[2] Robert J. House

[2] In addition to the cultural schema of GLOBE, there are other central schemata of cultural dimensions (e.g., Hall, 1989; Hall & Hall, 1990; Hofstede, 2001; Schwartz, 1994; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2012). Since the dissertation focuses on the impact of culture on leadership processes, only the cultural scheme of the GLOBE study is presented within this section.

developed the idea for the ongoing GLOBE project in 1991. This worldwide research project, which includes data from more than 17,000 middle managers in 62 cultures, aims to investigate the relationship between national culture and leadership (Weibler, 2009).

One of the main objectives targeted by GLOBE relates to the dimensions by which culture can be measured (House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla, Dorfman, Javidan, & Dickson, 1999). They identified nine cultural value dimensions through which a national culture can be described (Javidan, House & Dorfman, 2004): Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Humane Orientation, Institutional Collectivism, In-Group Collectivism, Assertiveness, Gender Egalitarianism, Future Orientation, and Performance Orientation. *Power Distance* describes the amount to which a society accepts an unequal distribution of power and status in institutions and organizations. *Uncertainty Avoidance* reflects the degree to which a group, organization, or society adheres to rules, procedures, or social norms to avoid future uncertainty. *Humane Orientation* is the grade to which a community supports individuals in being altruistic, caring, fair, generous, and polite. *Institutional Collectivism* describes the extent to which institutional and organizational practices support and reward the distribution of common resources and common actions. *In-Group Collectivism* is defined as the extent to which people show pride, loyalty, and cohesion with regard to their organization or family. *Assertiveness* is the extent to which individuals behave aggressive, assertive, and confrontational towards others. *Future Orientation* is the degree to which individuals act in future-oriented ways, such as delaying gratification, investing in future actions, and planning. *Performance Orientation* reflects the extent to which the collective supports and rewards their group members for outstanding performance and achievements. *Gender Egalitarianism* describes the degree to which the collective reduces gender differences (cf. Engelen & Tholen, 2014; House et al., 2004; Weibler, 2009; Yukl, 2013). Based on the expression of these nine cultural value dimensions, the participating countries were grouped into ten cultural clusters relating to their regional

proximity as well as similarities in language, religion, and ethnic background (Dorfman, Hanges, & Brodbeck, 2004, cf. Table 2).

Table 2. GLOBE's Cultural Clusters (House et al., 2004: 191).

Cultural Cluster	**Countries**
Anglo	Australia, Canada, England, Ireland, New Zealand, South Africa (White Sample), United States
Confucian Asia	China, Hong Kong, Japan, Singapore, South Korea, Taiwan
Eastern Europe	Albania, Georgia, Greece, Hungary, Kazakhstan, Poland, Russia, Slovenia
Germanic Europe	Austria, Germany, The Netherlands, Switzerland (German-speaking)
Latin America	Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Mexico, Venezuela
Latin Europe	France, Israel, Italy, Portugal, Spain, Switzerland (French-speaking)
Middle East	Egypt, Kuwait, Morocco, Qatar, Turkey
Nordic Europe	Denmark, Finland, Sweden
Southern Asia	India, Indonesia, Iran, Malaysia, Philippines, Thailand
Sub-Saharan Africa	Namibia, Nigeria, South Africa (Black Sample), Zambia, Zimbabwe

A second main objective targeted by GLOBE relates to the degree to which leader behaviors and attributes are "universally endorsed as contributing to effective leadership" (House et al., 1999: 9) or depending on cultural characteristics, respectively. House and colleagues (1999) discovered that some leadership attributes were seen as uniformly effective across cultures (e.g., being visionary, honest and trustworthy, encouraging, positive, dynamic), some were widely rated as ineffective (e.g., being ruthless, dictatorial, self-centered, self-defensive), and other attributes varied in their effectivity across cultures (e.g., ambitious, formal, independent, risk taking). These desirable and undesirable primary leadership attributes were

then assigned to the six global leadership dimensions *Charismatic/Value-Based*, *Team-Oriented*, *Participative*, *Humane-Oriented*, *Autonomous*, and *Self-Protective* (House et al., 2004). The importance of these leadership dimensions varied widely between the cultural clusters: in the Anglo, Germanic Europe, and Nordic European clusters was, for example, participative leadership regarded as particularly important, whereas humane-orientated leadership was more relevant for effective leadership in the Southern Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa (Yukl, 2013). Nevertheless, the fact that the GLOBE researchers designed their own leadership dimensions and did not rely on established leadership styles (e.g., transformational leadership) can be considered as a weakness and has been criticized by scholars (Graen, 2006). However, research on established leadership styles, such as transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire leadership, also reveals universal effectiveness (e.g., for transformational leadership) and also large variations in effects between cultures (cf. Chapter 2.1).

The variation of leadership importance and effectiveness across cultures can be explained by the *cultural congruence proposition* (House, Wright, & Aditya, 1997) and the concept of *culturally endorsed implicit leadership theories* (Brodbeck et al., 2000; House et al., 2004). The *cultural congruence proposition* states that "behavior that is consistent with collective values will be more acceptable and effective than behavior that represents conflicting values" (House, Wright, & Aditya, 1997: 52). Following this assumption, leader behaviors that are most clearly fitting with parameters of the cultural environment surrounding the leader, such as cultural values, are most easily accepted and enacted and most effective within a collective (Dickson et al., 2003). According to House, Wright, and Aditya (1997), the empirical evidence strongly supports the cultural congruence proposition. As an example they cite, that Asian managers place greater emphasis on authoritarianism (Dorfman & Howell, 1988; Farmer & Richman, 1965) and activities for strengthening group maintenance (Bass et al., 1979; Bolon

& Crain, 1985; Ivancevich et al., 1986), which is corresponding to Hofstede's collectivism scores for Asian cultures.

Scholars from the GLOBE project explain the relationship between culture and leadership by the concept of *culturally endorsed implicit leadership theories* (Brodbeck et al., 2000; House et al., 2004). Although the concept of culturally endorsed implicit leadership theories refers to the GLOBE leadership dimensions, the basic idea can also be applied to other leadership concepts. The idea behind the concept of implicit leadership theories is that people's underlying stereotypes, beliefs, schemas, and assumptions influence leadership expectations (e.g., what constitutes "good leadership"; Lord & Maher, 1991; Stephan & Pathak, 2016). In this context, implicit means that the beliefs, assumptions, and judgments about the right way to lead – or even about what constitutes a leader and what makes him or her accepted as a leader – are not expressly recognized, but instruct individuals, nonetheless, like prescribed cognitive scripts (Hofstede, 2001). These prescribed cognitive scripts are a product of both personal experiences and cultural values, what is meant by the term 'culturally endorsed'. These scripts or implicit assumptions are regarded as the link between cultural expectations of leadership and the actual expression of leadership behaviors (Dorfman, Hanges & Brodbeck, 2004). The better the fit between the implicit leadership expectations of the followers and the actual leadership behaviors shown, the more effective this leadership behavior will be. In summary, this means that individuals are more likely to become leaders and to succeed as leaders, if they express characteristics and behaviors that are in line with the implicit leadership theories held by the individuals around them (Stephan & Pathak, 2016).

It should be mentioned that the description of culture through cultural value dimensions is always based on averages or means of these cultural values. Thus, if a culture has a high degree of uncertainty avoidance it does not mean that every single individual in this culture has a high expression of this value. It only means that individuals within this culture have on

average a higher expression of this attribute compared to many other national cultures (Engelen & Tholen, 2014). Of course, the individuals of a particular society demonstrate value similarities as they are socialized in and must adapt to similar societal systems with related underlying cultural values (e.g., educational, media, law, or governance systems). But apart from these common sets of imprints, each member of a society develops individual attitudes and values due to different experiences in life. Schwartz (2011: 31) draws a clear line between values as a cultural and an individual phenomenon, because "cultural value orientations are an aspect of the cultural system of societies; basic values are an aspect of the personality system of individuals". He concludes: "If we do not confuse them, we can employ them together to attain a much richer understanding of human behavior across societies" (Schwartz, 2011: 31).

2.2.3 Leadership and Individual Values

Individual value concepts[3] are often used to better understand and explain differences in attitudes and behaviors of individuals in a wide range of contexts (Schmidt, Bamberg, Davidov, Hermann & Schwartz, 2007; Schwartz, 2012). They are linked to attitudes that are assumed to predict behaviors, forecast several forms of action, and matter across contexts and cultures (Miles, 2015). Although the concrete definition of values varies across scholars, most agree that values are abstract ideals, such as freedom or helpfulness, that function as important guiding principles in shaping attitudes, actions, and behaviors (Miles, 2015: 681; see also Allport, 1955; Hitlin & Piliavin, 2004; Kluckhohn, 1951; Morris, 1956; Miles, 2015; Schwartz, 1992; Rokeach, 1973).

One of the most seminal individual value theories is Schwartz's (1992) theory of basic human values. Within this theory, Schwartz (1992) offers a theoretical structure as well as tools

[3] For the dissertation, I use Schwartz's (1992) theory of basic human values to capture individual values. Schwartz refers to this type of values as both "basic values" and "individual values" (e.g., Schwartz, 2011; 2012). In order to differentiate the cultural value concept from the individual concept of values, I call the Schwartz values "individual values" and the GLOBE values ""cultural values".

for the measurement of values. According to Schwartz (2011: 2), individual values are commonly defined as "trans-situational goals, varying in importance, that serve as guiding principles in the life of a person". He distinguishes ten different motivational value types clustered into four higher order values: self-transcendence (benevolence, universalism), openness to change (hedonism, self-direction, stimulation), conservation (conformity, security, tradition), and self-enhancement (achievement, power). These ten values are arranged in a circumplex structure (cf. Appendix A). Their relationship can be summarized on a two-dimensional structure with openness to change versus conservation forming one of these bipolar dimensions, and self-transcendence versus self-enhancement forming the other bipolar dimension. Values in proximity to one another (e.g., self-direction and stimulation) are motivationally compatible and become increasingly incompatible as the distance within the circumplex grows (e.g., self-direction and conformity; Schwartz & Boehnke, 2004). According to Schwartz (2011: 3), the ten basic values "are likely to be universal because they are grounded in three universal requirements of human existence", namely the "needs of individuals as biological organisms", the "requisites of coordinated social interaction", and the "survival and welfare needs of groups". Indeed, extensive research in many cultures has confirmed the validity of the basic human values model across cultures (Schwartz, 2006a; Schwartz, 2012).

Values also play an important role in leadership processes because they motivate and guide behavior and therefore influence how employees react to leadership behaviors (Ehrhart & Klein, 2001; Shamir, 1991; Shin & Zhou, 2003). These differences in reactions to leadership behaviors can be explained with the individualized leadership theory (Dansereau et al., 1995; Yammarino & Dansereau, 2002). This theory builds on a social exchange between the leader and individual followers. In this individualized view, leadership is a series of dyads, or a series of two-person interactions. A central element in the theory is the maintenance and support for feelings of self-worth. That means that the follower receives support for his or her self-worth

from the leader (e.g., attention, support, and assurance). This investment by the leader (attention, support, etc.) is then returned to the leader as he or she receives satisfying performance from the follower. This investment by the follower also returns to the follower as he or she receives attention, support, and positive feelings for his or her self-worth and so on. For a satisfying relationship to develop between the leader and the follower, investments and returns of both sides must be in balance (Yammarino & Dansereau, 2002).

This dyadic interaction causes that a leader who shows a certain behavior, for example articulates a vision or provides individualized support, will be perceived by some followers as a good leader, as he or she satisfies their personal desire for individual development. For others, however, the same leadership behavior will not be fruitful, because they do not share this desire, and thus it will not provide support for their feelings of self-worth. At the same time, only followers who show the behavior encouraged by the leader will receive the support of their feelings of self-worth, leading to a satisfying and committed relationship with the leader. Thus, the individualized leadership concept suggests that leadership influences differ as followers vary on how they assess the relationship between their leaders and themselves (Shin & Zhou, 2003). The individualized leadership approach is useful to explain why followers with different underlying values respond to the same leadership style differently and vary in their interpretations of, and reactions to, identical leadership behavior. So far, an explanation was given why differences in cultural values and the followers' individual values are related to leadership processes. In the next section, the focus will be set on the leader's side by looking at the leader's communicator style.

2.2.4 Leadership and Communicator Styles

Norton (1983: 99) defines a communicator style broadly as "the way one verbally and paraverbally interacts to signal how literal meaning should be taken, interpreted, filtered, or

understood". He developed the concept of communicator styles based on theories of personality and communication (e.g., Bales, 1970; Liebermann et al., 1973; Mann et al., 1967; Schutz, 1958; cf. Norton, 1978, 1983). A person's communicator style can be expressed through nine concrete communication attributes, namely in an animated, attentive, contentious, dominant, dramatic, friendly, impression-leaving, open, relaxed, and precise way (Norton, 1983; cf. Appendix B for an overview). These attributes are regarded as independent variables and predict the communicator image as dependent variable. The communicator image "taps the person's image of the self's communicative ability" (Norton, 1983: 72). People with a pronounced communicator image find it easy to interact with others despite their relationship (e.g., intimates, friends, or strangers).

Norton's (1983) communicator styles are marked by four main characteristics. First, they are *observable* through verbal and non-verbal cues and therefore are assessable, not a "black box" phenomenon. Second, a person's communicator style is *multifaceted* and can involve different communication attributes. For example, it is possible to communicate at the same time in a dominant and contentious fashion or in a friendly and attentive way. Third, communicator styles are *multicollinear* as they share common variance. A dominant communicator style contains, for example, high rates of information and a loud voice, which are also characteristics of a dramatic communicator style. Lastly, communicator styles are *variable*, but also stable as they are sufficiently patterned. This means that during their communicative interactions, individuals have a stable pattern of communicator styles but can vary this pattern. For example, the same person can display different communication attributes during work hours than when interacting with family or friends.

Communicator styles can be considered at a macro and a micro level. At the *macro level*, the communicator style is understood "as a function of consistently recurring communicative associations" (Norton, 1983: 19). That is, a specific pattern of a person's communicative

behaviors can be observed during interactions with other people. At the *micro level*, the communicator style gives form to the content by signaling "how literal meaning should be taken, interpreted, filtered, or understood" (Norton & Brenders, 1996: x). The micro and the macro level of communication are connected because Norton (1983) regards a person's communicator style as "accumulation of 'micro behaviors' giving form to literal content that add up to a 'macrojudgement' about a person's style of communicating. Style as a consistently recurring pattern of association is form giving at the macro level" (Norton, 1983: 38). Norton (1983) further postulates that contextual factors, such as environmental conditions, influence the way people communicate. He states that communicator styles depend on situational and cultural influences.

Leadership effectiveness has been broadly linked with communication effectiveness (van Quaquebeke & Felps, 2018) and several authors have examined the relationship between both variables (e.g., Berson & Avolio, 2004; Fairhurst & Connaughton, 2014; Hackman & Johnson, 2013; Sager, 2008; Madlock, 2008). Far fewer studies have investigated communicator styles that were used by leaders (e.g., Aritz & Walker, 2014; De Vries et al., 2010). This is surprising because, as Conger and Kanungo (1998: 54) state, for example, to be charismatic, leaders "not only need to have visions and plans for achieving them but also must be able to articulate their visions and strategies for action in effective ways as to influence their followers". Investigating communicator styles may play an important role for the understanding of leadership processes due to the aforementioned characteristics. First, because the communicator style signals to the followers as form-giving micro behavior how abstract contents of leadership (e.g., the articulated vision) should be understood. Second, these micro behaviors are observable at the macro level and therefore are not a "black box" phenomenon. Thus, the communicator style represents a tangible behavior. This is important because, for example, the measurement of transformational leadership behaviors is criticized as it must be inferred from effects on follower outcomes and influence processes are largely unobservable

(cf. van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). Third, the communicator style is multifaceted and variable, which means that the communicator style concept involves adjustment to situational conditions and environments. For example, the leader can use a different communicator style if he or she wants to build relationships, to provide a feeling of stability and security, or in and across different cultural contexts.

De Vries et al. (2010) explain the role of the communicator style in leadership through implicit leadership theories. They assume that followers have implicit leadership theories about appropriate leadership. They align these implicit leadership theories with the leader's demonstrated and observable behaviors, namely his or her communication style. If the communication style fits or matches the implicit leadership theory, the communication behavior is perceived as coherent. Nevertheless, De Vries et al.'s (2010) view represents the communication style as an expression of the leader's personality and excludes the contingency of contextual factors such as culture. Norton (1983), in contrast, assumes communicator styles to be a person's stable pattern of communication attributes, but within this pattern to be variable, depending on time, context, and situations. Therefore, Norton's (1983) concept is more appropriate to investigate possible differences across cultures. Nevertheless, Norton's (1983) communicator style concept is a general approach for describing communication behaviors. Therefore, it is necessary to integrate it in a framework that concentrates on communication behaviors in an organizational setting.

A model that integrates situational factors and bridges the gap between communication research and organizational psychology is the interpersonal communication process model of Hertzsch, Schneider, and Maier (2012). It is based on the general communication process model of Jablin, Cude, House, Lee, and Roth (1994), but refers to leadership. This model stresses the importance of communication as a core concept of leadership (Schneider, Maier, Lovrekovic, & Retzbach, 2015). Hertsch et al. (2012) assume that the dyadic interactions taking place in the

leadership process between leaders and followers act like a feedback loop that helps the interaction partners (e.g., the leader) to develop their communication skills. As a result, the attributed communication competency of the leader mediates the relationship between the leader's behaviors and organizationally-relevant outcome criteria (e.g., commitment, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior). Moreover, the model integrates contextual factors (e.g., organizational culture) influencing these processes. However, it should be critically noted that there is sparse empirical evidence for this model yet and that the variables involved (e.g., the leader's behavior, the communication behavior, etc.) are not further specified.

2.3 Research Model of the Dissertation

The research model of the dissertation presented in Figure 2 provides an integrative and comprehensive outline of the assumed relationships between leadership styles, communicator styles, values, job attitudes, and culture. It is based on Yukl's (2013) compilation of causal relationships among the primary types of leadership variables mentioned in the introductory section of this chapter (cf. Figure 1). The focal constructs of the research model are related to the initial research questions and established theories to illustrate the association between these variables and to explain underlying processes (mediators) and conditions (moderators).

Overall, the research model builds on the *extended* full-range of leadership model (Antonakis & House, 2014) as the theoretical baseline framework. The underlying full-range of leadership theory (Avolio & Bass, 1991) represents a superior leadership theory in which the transactional and transformational leadership style is related to laissez-fair leadership in terms of activity and effectiveness. According to this theory, an increase in leadership effectiveness is explained by an increase in managerial activity (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Antonakis and House's (2014) "fuller" full-range of leadership model includes instrumental leadership

behaviors in addition to transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire behaviors. Leadership effectiveness is measured within this dissertation by the magnitude of the followers' job attitudes – job satisfaction and affective commitment – as one of the basic direct results of leadership efforts (Lowe et al., 1996; Jackson et al., 2013). Although initial findings have shown that instrumental leadership is an effective leadership style to enhance both job attitudes (Antonakis & House, 2014; Rowold, 2014), these relationships have not yet been confirmed outside Western cultures. Therefore, it is not yet fully understood where instrumental leadership, as a highly proactive leadership style, is to be correctly located when investigating all extended full-range of leadership styles simultaneously in a worldwide cultural context. This is clarified in Study 1 by addressing the first research question (*RQ 1): Which leadership styles of the extended full-range of leadership model are most effective in different cultures while accounting for multicollinearity?*

Furthermore, the leadership styles of this framework are assumed to be effective in any situation or culture as the (extended) full-range of leadership theory in its original form does not specify any conditions under which these leadership styles (e.g., transformational leadership) are irrelevant or ineffective (Bass, 1997; House & Antonakis, 2013; Yukl, 2013). Nevertheless, universal relevance does not mean that these behaviors are equally effective in all situations or equally likely to occur. Research on the full-range leadership behaviors on job attitudes in different countries shows large variations in effect sizes (e.g., Dumdum, Lowe, & Avolio, 2002; Jackson, Meyer, & Wang, 2013), which is often an indication of moderators. I propose that values at the cultural as well as the individual level are a candidate for moderating leadership processes because theory and research have suggested cultural and individual values as important psychological strengthening and weakening factors in the context of leadership (e.g., Ehrhart & Klein, 2001; House et al., 2004; Kirkman et al., 2009; Tsui et al., 2007). Deepening the findings of the first study by drawing on theoretical assumptions of the cultural congruence

preposition (House, Wright, & Aditya, 1997), culturally endorsed implicit leadership theories (Brodbeck et al., 2000; House et al., 2004), and the individualized leadership approach (Yammarino & Dansereau, 2002), Study 2 investigates the second research question (*RQ2): What impact do cultural and individual values have on the relation between transformational and instrumental leadership with job attitudes?*

In addition, the (extended) full-range of leadership theory is a conceptual framework, which describes a compilation of leadership styles and associated attributes and behaviors. However, the underlying influence processes of the included leadership behaviors are not clearly explained and must largely be inferred from the description of the behaviors and the effects on follower outcomes (Yukl, 2013). For this reason, within Study 3, I expand this *input-output model* in the sense of an input-*process*-output model (e.g., Fischer, Dietz, & Antonakis, 2017; Ilgen, Hollenbeck, Johnson, & Jundt, 2005) in order to better understand and explain the underlying processes. Process models inform about the "how" and "why" of effects and thereby allow for the assessment of generalizability and boundary conditions (Fischer, Dietz, & Antonakis, 2017). The term "process" in this logic refers to the mechanisms that explain the causal relationships between inputs (e.g., leadership styles) and outputs (e.g., follower attitudes).

For this dissertation, I propose such an input-process-output-model in which the leadership style (input) relates via the leader's communicator style as a concrete and observable activity to the followers (process) and manifests in their job attitudes, such as their level of job satisfaction (output). The mediation route of leadership styles via the communicator style on subjective job attitudes can be explained by adapting the interpersonal communication process model (Hertsch et al., 2012) to Norton's (1983) conceptualization of communicator styles. The application of an appropriate communicator style can be considered as a special form of communication competence, which is defined as "the ability of an interactant to choose among available communicative behaviors in order that he […] may successfully accomplish his own

interpersonal goals during an encounter while maintaining the face and line of his fellow interactants within the constraints of the situation" (Wiemann, 1977: 198). This input-process-output model helps me to derive testable predictions for answering the third research question (*RQ 3): How does the leader's communicator style mediate transformational and instrumental leadership processes?*

Additionally, I propose that the strength of this mediation process depends on culture as a contextual boundary condition. It is to be assumed that culture either increases or decreases the effects that the supervisor's leadership style via the communicator style exert on the followers' job attitudes, because the perception of appropriate leadership and communication behaviors also depend on the cultural context in which individuals perform (Den Hartog et al., 1999; Gudykunst et al., 1996). It is to be expected that the fit between leadership style and communicator style depends on the implicit leadership theories which are prevalent in a particular culture. If the communicator style is in line with the followers' implicit leadership assumptions, then the leader's communication competence is attributed as high, which – according to the interpersonal communication process model – leads to a satisfactory leadership-communication interaction between the leader and the follower and, in turn, to high job satisfaction. To obtain differentiated insights into these processes, I draw my research on findings from the individual-focused and collective-focused leadership literature combined with assumptions of the interpersonal communications process model and implicit leadership theories for investigating the fourth research question (*RQ 4): How does collectivism/ individualism influence the indirect effect of individual-focused and collective-focused transformational and instrumental leadership on job attitudes via the leader's communicator style?*

Of course, this research model represents a simplification of the multifaceted and complex dynamics unfolding between leader behaviors, follower values and attitudes, and the conditions of the cultural context. However, the research model serves to establish associations

between relevant concepts involved in the process of interest in order to derive testable predictions. As such, this dissertation adds a novel perspective to the current knowledge on the influences of the extended full-range of leadership behaviors on subjective job attitudes by investigating underlying processes (mediators) and conditions (moderators) in a cross-cultural context.

This dissertation contributes to the existing leadership literature in three main ways. It is the first to systematically analyze all extended full-range of leadership styles simultaneously across various cultures around the world. It contributes to the leadership literature in particular by including the neglected instrumental leadership style. This enables us to derive conclusions as to whether previous evidence from Western cultures on instrumental leadership effectiveness can be generalized across different cultural contexts. Second, this dissertation contributes to the literature on leadership and values by improving the state of knowledge on the impact of cultural and individual values on transformational and instrumental leadership between and within the cultures studied. Investigating these impacts on both types of leadership enables us to predict under which conditions and for which followers' transformational and instrumental leadership in particular enhances job satisfaction and affective commitment. Third, this dissertation extends previous leadership research by demonstrating the usefulness of a differentiated perspective on transformational and instrumental leadership behaviors. Moreover, it offers insight into the mediating role of the supervisor's communicator style in leadership processes across cultures. These differentiated analyses of micro behaviors of leadership help to better understand how leaders affect followers' job attitudes and under which cultural conditions these influences are particularly strong.

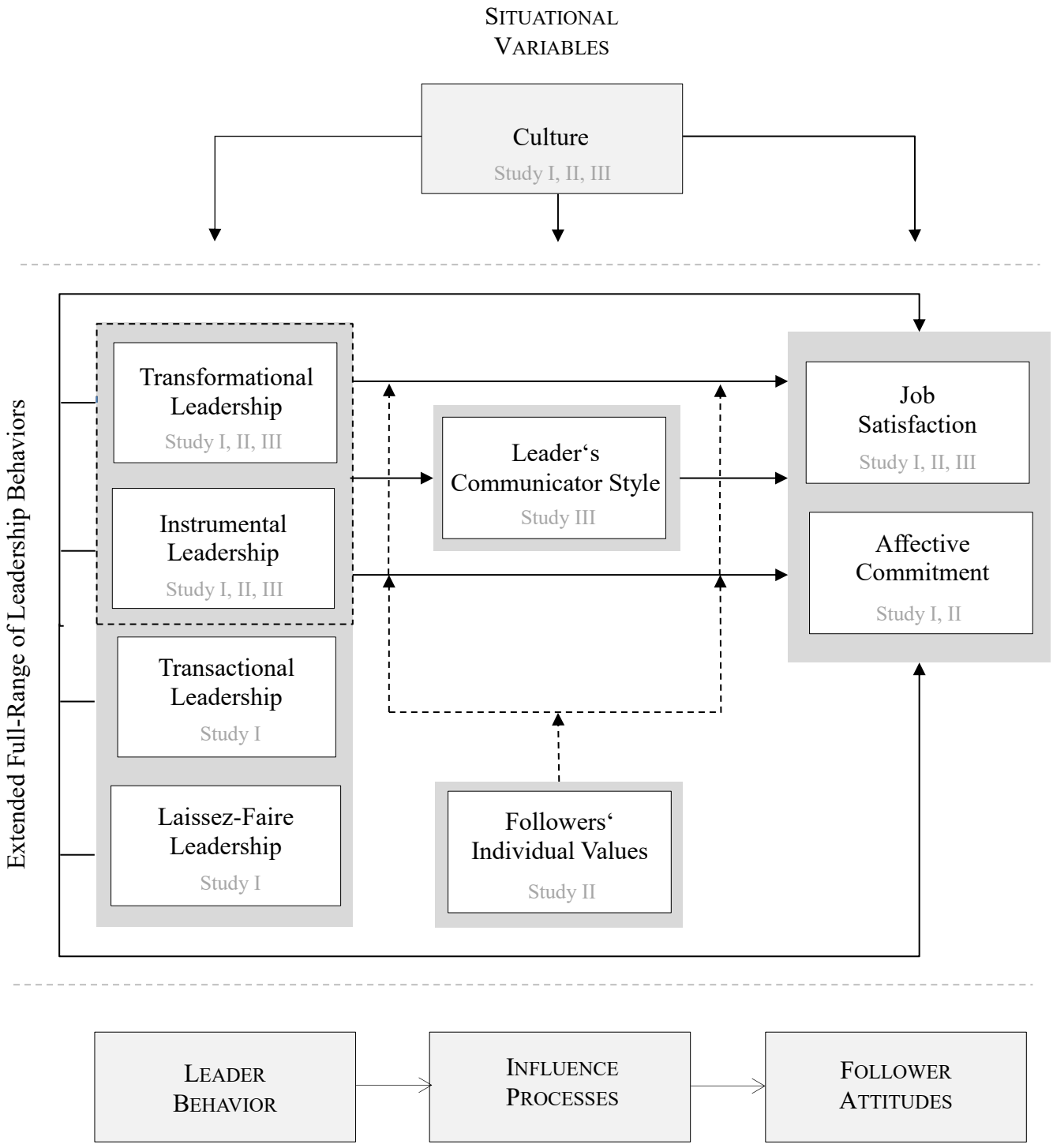


Figure 2. Research Model of the Dissertation.

3 Study 1 – A Cross-cultural Investigation of the Extended Full-Range of Leadership Model

3.1 Introduction

Advancements in communication technology enable people from all over the world to work together. Employees from various cultures are assigned to workgroups and have to cooperate to achieve innovative results (Morris et al., 2009). This poses a great challenge for supervisors – not merely because they have to lead people with diverse cultural backgrounds. Scholars agree that global leadership is significantly different from domestic leadership (Mendenhall et al., 2012). Two aspects have been shown to be of major importance for leading successfully across national and cultural borders in this globally connected working environment. These are the ability to deal with an increased level of complexity, and to act in a 'boundary-spanning' fashion, i.e. be able to act across borders and divisions (Mendenhall & Bird, 2013).

A globally successful leader must – due to the salience of the context – deal with a wide range of diversity (Gupta & Govindarajan, 2002), handle high levels of complexity (White & Rosamilia, 2010), and a high frequency of boundary-crossing activities (Beechler & Javidan, 2007). Furthermore, he or she has to cope with ambiguous situations regarding decision-making (Caligiuri, 2006; Gupta & Govindarajan, 2002) as well as inconsistent working conditions resulting in pressure to adapt to change (Burke, 2014). All these aspects are covered by strategic leadership behaviors, for example scanning the environment for opportunities and threats. It has been shown that strategic leadership is essentially for global effective leaders (Hanges et al., 2016; O'Connell, 2014). However, in current leadership research, especially from an intercultural perspective, these strategic behaviors have been neglected (cf., Antonakis & House, 2014). Therefore, there is an increased need to study the outcomes of strategic-oriented, also labelled as instrumental, leadership in an intercultural context.

From a methodological perspective, it is important not to consider instrumental leaderships' impact on outcome criteria in isolation. Instrumental leadership, as one part of an extended full-range of leadership theory, represents the strategic and task-oriented side of a global leader. Transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership aspects complement a full-range leader (Avolio & Bass, 1991) and have been demonstrated to play important roles for leading effectively in a global context (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). For example, transformational leadership has been shown to be universally endorsed as positive across national borders (Dorfman et al., 2012).

Due to the high interrelations of the full-range leadership constructs (Bass, 1985) they need to be tested simultaneously to draw conclusions about their individual incremental validity beyond each other. There is a still on-going discussion in leadership research about how much overlapping content various leadership styles share and to what degree the established leadership concepts capture different things (e.g., Graen, Rowold, & Heinitz, 2010). Fischer, Dietz, and Antonakis (2017) state that modeling similar but different leadership styles simultaneously is necessary to prevent the under-specification of models. Thus, they call for correcting the "bad practice" (p. 29) of modeling transformational leadership's effects without accounting for transactional as well as instrumental leadership behaviors. However, to date only a few studies have examined the link between different leadership styles and work-related outcomes simultaneously and none of these studies has taken instrumental leadership into account.

Therefore, the aim of the present study is to compare all *extended* full-range of leadership constructs simultaneously and to identify the most effective constructs for subjective work-related outcomes in a multinational investigation. The focus is set on job satisfaction and affective commitment as work outcomes, because both work-related attitudes are part of the basic direct consequences of leader behaviors (Jackson et al., 2013; Lowe et al., 1996) and have

proven to be reliable predictors for organizationally relevant criteria such as organizational citizenship behavior, job performance, and turnover intentions (Meyer et al., 2002; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Furthermore, both outcomes are well suited to the purpose of comparing the effectiveness of leadership in highly different countries with different languages, as they are easily accessible.

The study contributes to the literature of leadership, because it is the first to systematically analyze all eFRLT styles simultaneously in a multinational context. It contributes to the leadership literature particularly by examining the so far neglected instrumental leadership style in a cross-cultural context by lending a closer look at the job-related consequences of the extended full-range of leadership behaviors.

3.2 Theory and Hypotheses

3.2.1 The Extended Full-Range of Leadership Theory

The most influential and best researched leadership model of recent decades is the full-range of leadership theory (FRLT) consisting of laissez-faire, transactional, and transformational leadership (Avolio & Bass, 1991). Within the FRLT, these leadership styles are arranged on a continuum from passive-ineffective to active-effective leadership, whereas laissez-faire represents the passive-ineffective pol and transformational leadership the most active and effective pol (Antonakis & House, 2002). The FRLT has nevertheless been criticized in recent years as it neglects the importance of task- and in particular strategy-oriented leadership behaviors e.g., initiating structure (Yukl, 1999; 2008). Thus, Antonakis and House (2002, 2004) expanded the FRLT. They added instrumental leadership as a highly proactive strategy focused style, complementing the FRLT to the extended full-range of leadership theory (eFRLT, Antonakis & House, 2014).

Transformational Leadership. The central aspect of TLF is to transform followers' attitudes and values, shifting them away from selfish aims and towards overarching organizational goals (Bass, 1985). Therefore, transformational leaders inspire and motivate their employees intrinsically through six distinctive behaviors, making the work more meaningful: they identify and articulate a vision, provide an appropriate role model, foster the acceptance of group goals, stimulate intellectually, provide individualized support, and expect high performance (Podsakoff et al., 1990; 1996).

Transactional Leadership. In contrast to transformational leadership, transactional leaders do not operate with long-term and visionary goals. This leadership pattern is built on clearly defined, quid-pro-quo transactions between the leader and the followers (e.g., Bass, 1990). Transactional leadership is based on a fair exchange principle in which the employee performs and, as a reaction, receives a contingent reward. This can be a material (e.g., a salary bonus) or an immaterial reward (e.g., praise and appreciation).

Laissez-faire Leadership. Laissez-faire leadership is defined as "the avoidance or absence of leadership" (Judge & Piccolo, 2004: 756). It refers to the inactivity of the leader or the nonexistence of leadership. A laissez-faire manager abdicates responsibilities, hesitates in taking action, avoids making decisions and is absent when needed (Bass, 1990).

Instrumental Leadership. An instrumental leader improves the followers' performance by using knowledge in a strategic and instrumental way to reach organizational goals. Instrumental leadership consists of strategic as well as facilitating behaviors. Strategic leadership refers to observing the work environment for opportunities and threats and breaking down the company's vision into achievable tasks for the followers. Follower-work-facilitation includes support on the followers' path to goal fulfillment by providing resources and removing obstacles as well as giving continuously constructive feedback on performance (Antonakis & House, 2014).

Empirical research and meta-analytical results support a positive relationship between transformational and transactional leadership with various subjective (Dumdum, Lowe, & Avolio, 2002; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Lowe et al., 1996) and objective (Barling et al., 1996; Rowold & Heinitz, 2007) performance indicators. Laissez-faire leadership, in contrast, has been demonstrated to be negatively associated with most organizational success criteria (Dumdum et al., 2002; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). From a cross-cultural perspective, transformational leadership has received the most attention out of the eFRLT styles. It consists of attributes such as being visionary, inspirational, motivating, just, honest, and being a team-builder, which are universally positively endorsed (House et al., 1999). Effects of transformational leadership on diverse outcome criteria are also assumed to be universally positive (Bass, 1997; Den Hartog et al., 1999; Dorfman et al., 2012). Moreover, positive interdependencies between transformational leadership, job satisfaction and affective commitment have already been meta-analytically confirmed in highly different countries (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Wang et al., 2011). Thus, it is likely that transformational leadership will positively affect both outcomes across the cultures studied here as well.

Transactional leadership forms the basis of transformational leadership. Consequently, there is also a trend towards universalism for this type of leadership. Bass, for example, concluded that, "although the model of transformational and transactional leadership may have needs for adjustment and fine-tuning as we move across cultures, particularly into non-Western, overall, it holds up as having considerable universal potential" (1996: 754). In line with this, Dorfman and colleagues (1997) demonstrated that, besides leader supportiveness and charisma, transactional contingent reward leadership positively influenced organizational commitment and job performance in Japan, Mexico, South Korea, Taiwan, and the United States. Walumbwa, Lawler, and Avolio (2007) showed that transactional contingent reward leadership was

positively associated with the level of satisfaction with the leader and organizational commitment in China, India, Kenya, and the United States.

For laissez-faire leadership, fewer cross-cultural studies exist. Nevertheless, theoretical assumptions on the universality of the hierarchy, augmentation, and prototypicality of the FRLT styles (Bass, 1996; 1997) as well as empirical evidence from different single countries e.g., the former Soviet Union, Germany, the U.S., Norway, and Turkey (Ardichvili & Kuchinke, 2002; Deluga, 1990; Pasa, Kabasakal, & Bodur, 2001; Skogstad et al., 2007) show laissez-faire to be a less efficient and undesirable leadership behavior across cultures.

Instrumental leadership is to be assumed to be positively associated with leadership effectiveness criteria, because of its proactivity and facilitating behaviors (Antonakis & House, 2014). In total, only three empirical studies on instrumental leadership exist and no study has explicitly examined it in a multi-national context. However, all previous studies support instrumental leadership's effectiveness. Antonakis and House (2014) demonstrated that it positively affects followers' satisfaction with their leader. Rowold (2014) showed that instrumental leadership behaviors positively affected both job satisfaction and affective commitment. Rowold, Diebig, and Heinitz (2017) discovered that instrumental leadership decreased subjective as well as objective stress indicators. Based on the available evidence on the effectiveness of the four eFRLT leadership behaviors, I assume:

Hypothesis 1. Transformational (a), transactional (b), and instrumental(c) leadership are positively related to job satisfaction and affective commitment in all investigated countries. Laissez-Faire leadership (d) is negatively associated with both outcomes in all countries.

3.2.2 Multicollinearity of Leadership Styles

A critical point in leadership research is the high multicollinearity of the different leadership constructs. Leadership concepts are often highly related (e.g., Judge & Piccolo, 2004), because a certain leadership style includes a wide range of leader behaviors that overlap with dimensions from other leadership styles. For example, for transactional leadership, Bass (1998) argues that positive effects could be described as simple by-products of transformational leadership. At the same time, recent research emphasizes the importance of transactional leadership (e.g., for actual task performance, Hargis et al., 2011), since it overlaps with transformational leadership in some points but also captures unique aspects. For example, increasing the efficiency of established routines, which is not covered by transformational leadership behaviors (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Wang et al., 2011).

A similar phenomenon can be assumed for the relationship between transformational and instrumental leadership, which both are classified as positive and highly proactive leading behaviors. Antonakis and House (2014) reported moderate to high correlations (r = .43 - .66) between instrumental and transformational facets. Rowold (2014) also reported high positive correlations between transformational and instrumental leadership (r = .11 - .80) and attributes this to common theoretical base constructions (e.g., articulating a vision as being transformational and achieving this vision by strategy formulation as well as showing instrumental leadership behavior). Nevertheless, both researchers demonstrated equally strong effects on job satisfaction for instrumental and transformational leadership and even an incremental contribution of instrumental leadership *beyond* transformational leadership for several outcome criteria (e.g., effectiveness, commitment, saliva and hair cortisol levels; Antonakis and House, 2014; Rowold, 2014; Rowold, Diebig, & Heinitz, 2017). Therefore, they conclude that instrumental leadership, especially the strategic sub dimensions, are an important

complement for transformational and transactional leadership and a necessary extension of the full-range of leadership model.

Moreover, a high positive correlation shows that both, the scores of construct A and the scores of construct B are high (e.g., a leader who is perceived as highly transformational is also regarded as highly transactional). This does not necessarily imply that A and B are the same constructs. A high correlation might be due to the similarity of the constructs, but it might even be due to the fact that leaders who are able to lead transformational are able to lead transactional (or vice versa) as well. Rowold, Borgmann, and Diebig (2015) identified in a recent meta-analysis on the interrelationships and structure of leadership constructs seven dimensions of theoretical overlap between leadership styles: (1) the level of activity, (2) building trust in followers, (3) role modeling, (4) expression of emotions, (5) controlling followers, (6) motivating followers intrinsically, and (7) followers' work facilitation and feedback. Of these seven dimensions, the leader's level of activity was the only factor that was associated with all tested leadership constructs transformational, transactional, laissez-faire, consideration, initiating structure and leader-member exchange. Thus, this factor might cause that a highly proactive leader is perceived as successful on different leadership dimensions (e.g., implementing a strategy and providing individualized support), although the associated leadership styles and skills required differ to a high degree as such.

However, the problem of multicollinearity has to be addressed to clarify whether the different leadership styles measure different entities (Johnson, 2000). It is necessary not only to consider a single leadership construct but to have a closer look at the single contribution of each leadership style by controlling for shared common elements or potential overlap (Rowold & Borgmann, 2013; Fischer, Dietz, & Antonakis, 2017). This is also important to account for endogeneity. Endogeneity means that, in a regression equation, the explanatory or independent variable is correlated with the error term. The error term reflects unobserved causes of the

dependent variable as well as other sources of error e.g., measurement error (Antonakis, Bendahan, Jacquart, & Lalive, 2010). Endogeneity has various reasons, but an obvious point is the non-consideration of relevant, explanatory variables that are correlated with the actual investigated independent variable. These 'omitted causes' (Antonakis et al., 2010) lead to the problem that the effect of x (e.g., transactional leadership) on y (e.g., job satisfaction) cannot be correctly interpreted, because it is caused by another variable z (e.g., transformational leadership). To take both points into account, I analyze to which part the eFRLT leadership styles contribute relative to the subjective work-related attitudes job satisfaction and affective commitment by testing them in a single investigation.

Based on the theoretical assumptions of Bass and Avolio (1991) and Antonakis and House (2014) combined with the assumption of the leader's activity as a meta-factor of effective leadership, I assume that transformational leadership, consisting of universally positive endorsed attributes, has the highest relative contribution to enhance job satisfaction and affective commitment. For instrumental leadership, as highly proactive leadership style, it is theoretically to be assumed that it has to be arranged in proximity to transformational leadership and beyond the less active transactional leadership regarding its effectivity (Antonakis & House, 2014). Laissez-faire is assumed to be the less important style, because overall it has the smallest effect sizes compared to other leadership styles (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Because it is likely, that the leadership constructs are overlapping to some degree, I expect only small differences between transformational, instrumental, and transactional leadership.

Hypothesis 2. Transformational and instrumental leadership predict job satisfaction and affective commitment significantly better compared to transactional and laissez-faire leadership.

Figure 3 illustrates the hypothesized underlying model.

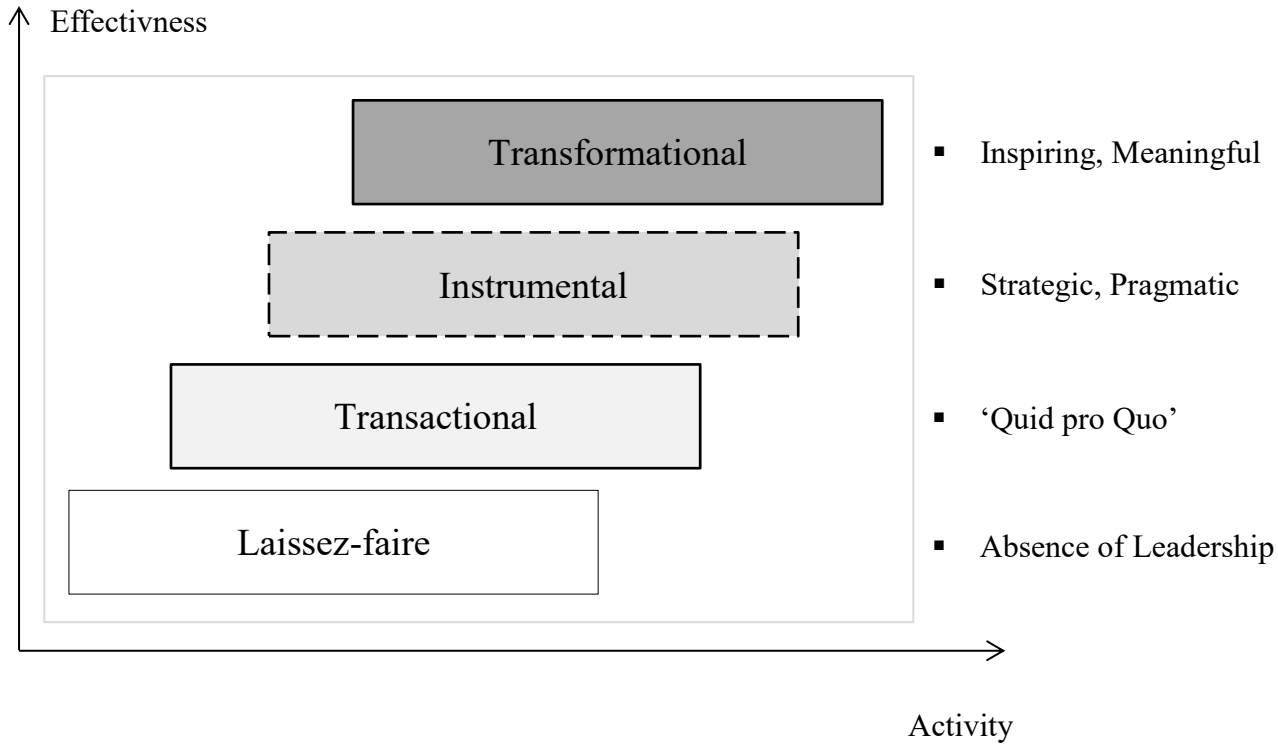


Figure 3. The Extended Full-Range of Leadership Model.

3.3 Methods

3.3.1 Sample and Procedure

The sample consisted in total of 3,455 employees who worked in Brazil (N = 285), Cameroon (N = 160), China (N = 429), France (N = 215), Germany (N = 1,565), India (N = 44), Iran (N = 241), Poland (N = 289), Russia (N = 158) and Spain (N = 69). In all samples, nearly all (> 90.0%) respondents worked in the same country they were born in. Demographic characteristics for all ten samples are shown in Table 3. The data was collected with online surveys from November 2014 to December 2016 at two times (t1: independent variables; t2 – four weeks later: dependent variables). Research assistants with their cultural origin in the respective country contacted employees from their direct environment (colleagues, relatives, and friends) who worked in this country via email and social networks (e.g., Facebook).

Table 3. Respondents' Demographic Information.

	Brazil (*N*=285)	Cameroon (*N*=160)	China (*N*=429)	France (*N*=215)	Germany (*N*=1,565)	India (*N*=44)	Iran (*N*=241)	Poland (*N*=289)	Russia (*N*=158)	Spain (*N*=69)	Total (*N*=3,455)
Language [a)]	Portuguese	French	Mandarin	French	German	English	Farsi	Polish	Russian	Spanish	
Gender											
Female	50.2 %	34.2 %	53.6 %	47.0 %	51.1 %	16.3 %	57.3 %	72.6 %	36.4 %	58.5 %	51.6 %
Male	49.8 %	65.8 %	46.4 %	53.0 %	48.9 %	83.7 %	42.3 %	27.4 %	63.6 %	41.5 %	48.3 %
Age	32.5 (9.5)	31.2 (7.9)	32.9 (11.0)	33.2 (6.3)	36.7 (12.6)	35.3 (9.7)	35.1 (11.1)	28.8 (8.9)	37.9 (7.7)	31.3 (9.3)	34.5 (11.2)
Education [b)]											
Sec School	17.9 %	23.2 %	7.3 %	1.4 %	20.0 %	25.0 %	4.5 %	6.6 %	10.6 %	14.1 %	14.6 %
College	11.6 %	33.3 %	8.8 %	3.8 %	26.8 %	0.0 %	16.2 %	33.7 %	9.9 %	7.7 %	20.0 %
University	70.5 %	43.4 %	84.0 %	94.8 %	53.1 %	75.0 %	79.2 %	59.7 %	79.6 %	78.2 %	65.6 %
Working Time											
Full-time	65.3 %	70.3 %	89.0 %	84.4 %	71.2 %	-	78.3 %	66.9 %	91.6 %	76.1 %	74.8 %
Part-time	34.7 %	29.7 %	11.0 %	15.6 %	28.8 %	-	21.7 %	33.1 %	8.4 %	23.9 %	25.2 %
Tenure	7.2 (8.6)	5.7 (6.1)	9.6 (10.9)	5.3 (4.9)	10.4 (10.1)	7.2 (5.1)	7.0 (10.1)	5.2 (6.3)	8.2 (6.1)	13.9 (9.6)	8.6 (9.4)
Sector [f)]											
Manufacturing	21.1 %	10.1 %	31.0 %	-	20.6 %	100 %	12.0 %	8.0 %	-	20.4 %	20.7 %
Trade	11.2 %	14.6 %	11.2 %	-	36.9 %	-	10.0 %	42.4 %	-	4.9 %	16.1 %
Banking [c)]	6.7 %	8.2 %	3.1 %	-	58.9 %	-	5.0 %	3.8 %	-	2.1 %	12.9 %
Consulting	4.2 %	1.9 %	1.9 %	-	60.6 %	-	4.1 %	1.1 %	-	4.2 %	2.2 %
Tourism	6.3 %	14.6 %	3.5 %	-	63.8 %	-	3.7 %	2.3 %	-	14.8 %	4.7 %
Healthcare	11.2 %	5.7 %	1.2 %	-	69.5 %	-	13.7 %	4.6 %	-	4.9 %	6.3 %
Public Admin.	10.2 %	14.6 %	15.1 %	-	78.2 %	-	27.0 %	3.8 %	-	2.8 %	10.5 %
Others	28.8 %	30.4 %	32.9 %	-	20.6 %	-	24.5 %	33.6 %	-	44.4 %	26.2 %
Gender $_{\text{Superv.}}$											
Female	28.4 %	32.9 %	19.9 %	14.0 %	29.9 %	2.3 %	29.9 %	47.8 %	20.6 %	27.3 %	28.2 %
Male	71.6 %	67.1 %	80.1 %	86.0 %	70.1 %	97.7 %	70.1 %	52.2 %	79.4 %	72.7 %	71.8 %
Age (years) $_{\text{Superv.}}$	45.6 (11.1)	41.5 (7.8)	40.7 (11.6)	46.2 (8.5)	44.2 (8.1)	49.8 (6.7)	44.3 (9.8)	-	39.6 (7.8)	51.3 (9.6)	43.8 (9.3)
Level $_{\text{Supervisor}}$ [d)]											
Low	17.0 %	7.0 %	12.4 %	1.9 %	26.4 %	-	11.2 %	15.0 %	6.4 %	15.0 %	17.8 %
Middle	41.1 %	62.0 %	59.2 %	24.7 %	39.8 %	-	46.9 %	44.7 %	62.8 %	40.7 %	44.0 %
Upper	41.8 %	38.0 %	28.4 %	73.5 %	33.7 %	-	41.5 %	40.3 %	30.8 %	44.3 %	38.2 %

Note. Missing of 100 % did not provide information.

a) Language of the questionnaire, b) I used country-specific equivalents for educational institutions in every country, c) Banking and Insurance, d) Level = Management level, e) Age and tenure in years, SD in brackets

Within the first part of the questionnaire, participants assessed their direct supervisor's leadership style as well as demographics, and organizational and work-related information (e.g., working time, sector). The average response rate to the t1-request was 35.0%. Participants could voluntarily provide a contact email address on the survey's last page to fill out the second part four weeks later. 50.8% of the participants completed the second part of the questionnaire as well. When data collection was complete, the two parts were matched by individual codes.

3.3.2 Measures

All data were collected with validated surveys in the local language. When there was no validated version available, a professional agency translated the questionnaires into the respective language (Farsi, French, Mandarin, Polish, Portuguese, Russian, and Spanish). Due to various native language dialects in Cameroon and India, the data was gathered with questionnaires in the second official language French (Cameroon) or English (India). Research assistants who were native speakers in the respective language and fluent in English confirmed the semantic and conceptual conformity of all versions used (Brislin, 1980). The response format for all scales ranged from 1 "I strongly disagree" to 5 "I strongly agree".

Transformational Leadership. Participants rated their direct leader's transformational leadership behavior by using 22 items of the Transformational Leadership Inventory (TLI, Podsakoff et al., 1990; 1996). Rowold and Heinitz's (2007) validated version was used for the German sample. A sample item is, "My supervisor provides a good model for me to follow." Cronbach's α ranged between .77 (Cameroon) and .97 (Brazil).

Instrumental Leadership. Instrumental leadership was assessed with Antonakis and House's (2004) 16-item scale. A sample item is, "My supervisor removes obstacles to my goal attainment." Cronbach's α ranged between .75 (Cameroon) and .98 (India).

Transactional Leadership. Four items of the TLI (Podsakoff et al., 1990; 1996) were utilized for the assessment of transactional leadership. Rowold and Heinitz's (2007) validated version was used in Germany. A sample item is, "My supervisor personally compliments me when I do outstanding work." Cronbach's α ranged between .70 (Russia) and .89 (Germany).

Laissez-faire Leadership. Laissez-faire leadership was measured with Rowold's (2011) four-item scale. Prior research demonstrated adequate factorial and discriminant validity and internal consistency for the scale (Rowold, 2011). A sample item is, "My supervisor often tries to avoid making pending decisions." Cronbach's α ranged between .79 (Cameroon) and .92 (Brazil, China).

Job Satisfaction. To measure job satisfaction, a translated versions of the eight items from Neuberger and Allerbeck's (1978) validated job descriptive questionnaire was used. A sample item is, "I am satisfied with my colleagues." Cronbach's α ranged between .72 (Cameroon) and .90 (Spain).

Affective Commitment. Affective commitment was assessed by the eight items of Allen and Meyer's (1990) Organizational Commitment scale. A sample item is, "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization." Cronbach's α in the Cameroonian sample was insufficient (.31). All other α ranged between .72 (Iran) and .80 (Poland, Spain).

Control Variables. Followers' age, gender, and education were included as control variables because of its potential influence on reactions to leadership behavior (Tsui & O'Reilly III, 1989) to eliminate alternative explanations of study results.

3.3.3 Data Analyses

Confirmatory Factor Analyses. I ran maximum likelihood confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) to evaluate the discriminant validity of the questionnaires in each country separately. I used Chi-Square statistics (χ^2), the comparative fit index (CFI), the root mean square of approximation (RMSEA) and the standardized root mean residual (SRMR) to assess model fit

(Beauducel & Wittmann, 2005). CFI values > .90, RMSEA values < .10, and SRMR values < .08 reflect an acceptable fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Hu & Bentler, 1999). For each scale three parcels of items were built to form the measurement model (Bandalos & Finney, 2001). The hypothesized six-factor measurement model fit the data well for all samples. Only the samples from Cameroon and Spain were marginally below the recommended cut-off values (cf. Table 4). Contrasting this model with alternative three- and one-factor models revealed a significantly worse fit for the alternative models in all samples. Therefore, results supported the discriminant validity of the measures.

Measurement Equivalence. To ensure measurement equivalence across all samples I ran multi-group CFAs using IBM SPSS Amos 22. I tested for configural and metric measurement invariance between the samples as these criteria have to be fulfilled for an interpretation of relationships across groups (Van de Schoot, Lugtig, & Hox, 2012). I used the ΔCFI to indicate fit differences between the models because of insensitivity to sample size. A value of ΔCFI > 0.01 indicates a significant decrease of fit (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). Results indicated good support for the model testing configural (χ^2_{890} = 1903.37, p < .001, RMSEA = .02, SRMR = .04, CFI = .97) as well as metric invariance (χ^2_{980} = 2316.17, p < .001, RMSEA = .02, SRMR = .04, CFI = .96). The ΔCFI was .009, indicating that there was no decrease of fit between the models. Thus, there was sufficient evidence that the measures captured the same constructs in all countries.

Relative Weight Analyses. I performed relative weight analyses (RWA, Johnson, 2000) to identify the relative importance of every leadership style by taking into account high correlations among the leadership styles. Relative weight is defined as "the proportionate contribution each predictor makes to R^2, considering both, its unique contribution and its contribution when combined with other variables" (Johnson, 2000: 1). Through this approach, explained variance can be divided among multiple correlated predictors to trace back the importance of each predictor in the regression equation (Tonidandel & Lebreton, 2011).

Table 4. Confirmatory Factor Analyses.

Model	χ^2	*df*	$\Delta\chi^2$ (Δ *df*)	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Brazil						
6-factor model	137.740**	89	686.092** (12)	.984	.050	.039
3-factor model	823.832**	101	380.682** (3)	.765	.181	.110
1-factor model	1204.514**	104		.643	.220	.163
Cameroon						
6-factor model	189.263**	89	143.093** (12)	.880	.093	.074
3-factor model	334.356**	101	81.162** (3)	.720	.133	.100
1-factor model	415.518**	104		.626	.151	.111
China						
6-factor model	162.917**	89	691.497** (12)	.982	.053	.047
3-factor model	854.414**	101	590.068** (3)	.815	.158	.088
1-factor model	1445.094**	104		.670	.208	.129
Germany						
6-factor model	401.398**	89	1836.048** (12)	.981	.053	.039
3-factor model	2237.446**	101	2511.745** (3)	.872	.131	.059
1-factor model	4749.191**	104		.722	.190	.134
France						
6-factor model	174.965**	89	255.769** (12)	.952	.080	.051
3-factor model	430.734**	101	402.639** (3)	.815	.148	.083
1-factor model	833.373**	104		.591	.216	.148
India						
6-factor model	89.220	89	47.025** (12)	1.000	.008	.047
3-factor model	136.245*	101	93.849** (3)	.955	.090	.070
1-factor model	230.094**	104		.840	.168	.127
Iran						
6-factor model	199.946**	89	296.552** (12)	.962	.077	.044
3-factor model	496.498**	101	459.601** (3)	.865	.136	.070
1-factor model	956.099**	104		.709	.197	.150
Poland						
6-factor model	185.457**	89	276.293** (12)	.971	.073	.051
3-factor model	461.750**	101	477.573** (3)	.890	.132	.066
1-factor model	939.323**	104		.746	.197	.127
Russia						
6-factor model	141.154**	89	197.434** (12)	.965	.069	.050
3-factor model	338.588**	101	170.182** (3)	.840	.138	.073
1-factor model	508.770**	104		.727	.178	.101
Spain						
6-factor model	150.142**	89	132.78** (12)	.937	.115	.061
3-factor model	282.922**	101	78.96** (3)	.813	.186	.083
1-factor model	361.882**	104		.735	.218	.104
Total						
6-factor model	675.209**	89	4627.881** (12)	.983	.050	.034
3-factor model	5303.090**	101	5022.864** (3)	.850	.139	.061
1-factor model	10,325.954**	104		.705	.192	.126

Note. All alternative models were compared to the hypothesized 6-factor-model.
6-factor model = transformational, instrumental, transactional, laissez-faire leadership, job sat., aff. commit.
3-factor model=leadership (transformational, instrumental, transactional, laissez-faire), job sat., aff. commit.
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

For both dependent variables (job satisfaction and affective commitment) separate RWA were computed in each country using the Lorenzo-Seva, Ferrando, and Chico (2010) code as recommended by Kraha et al. (2012). Further, RWAs for job satisfaction as well as for affective commitment were calculated for the total sample. To analyze the incremental amount of variance explained by transformational and instrumental leadership beyond transactional and laissez-faire leadership, I additionally conducted stepwise hierarchical regression analyses.

3.4 Results

3.4.1 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Table 5 and 6 present means (*M*), standard deviations (*SD*), correlations, and internal consistencies (Cronbach´s α) for the variables included in the analysis. Table 6 shows that transformational, instrumental, and transactional leadership as presumed active and effective leadership styles were positively associated with job satisfaction ($p < .001$) and affective commitment ($p < .01$) in each country. The only exception was a non-significant correlation of transactional leadership and affective commitment in the Indian sample. For job satisfaction, the correlations with transformational leadership ranged from $r = .36$ (Brazil) to .67 (India), for instrumental leadership from $r = .30$ (France) to .71 (India), and for transactional leadership from $r = .25$ (Cameroon) to .60 (Poland). For affective commitment, the correlations with transformational leadership ranged from $r = .22$ (Iran) to .51 (Cameroon), for instrumental leadership from $r = .16$ (Iran) to .62 (Russia), and for transactional leadership from $r = .16$ (Brazil) to .38 (Russia).

Laissez-faire, which is presumed to be a passive and ineffective leadership style, was significantly negatively associated with job satisfaction ($p < .001$) in all countries except for Cameroon, and with affective commitment ($p < .01$) except for France and Spain. In these countries the correlations were negative but non-significant. For job satisfaction, the correlation

Table 5. Means (*M*), Standard Deviations (*SD*), Internal Consistencies (α) and Correlations of the Leadership Styles.

		TFL			IL			TAL			LF			Correlations					
	N	*M*	*SD*	*α*	*M*	*SD*	*α*	*M*	*SD*	*α*	*M*	*SD*	*α*	TFL x IL	TFL x TAL	TFL x LF	IL x TAL	IL x LF	TAL x LF
Brazil	285	3.47	1.04	.97	3.39	0.92	.95	3.48	1.18	.87	2.00	1.13	.92	.63**	.86**	- .55**	.55**	- .45**	- .52**
Cameroon	160	3.46	0.50	.77	3.52	0.54	.75	3.49	0.65	.21	2.39	1.02	.79	.70**	.63**	- .02	.44**	- .07	- .09
China	429	3.79	0.82	.94	3.85	0.92	.96	3.93	0.98	.79	2.27	1.22	.92	.86**	.84**	- .32**	.77**	- .29**	- .29**
France	215	3.55	0.62	.90	3.59	0.77	.95	3.57	0.89	.83	2.33	0.95	.82	.75**	.66**	- .29**	.54**	- .28**	- .41**
Germany	1,565	3.38	0.75	.94	3.50	0.82	.95	3.44	1.03	.89	2.10	1.03	.89	.85**	.71**	- .59**	.66**	- .62**	- .49**
India	44	3.52	0.85	.95	3.70	1.02	.98	3.50	0.94	.73	2.27	1.11	.91	.96**	.82**	- .53**	.84**	- .54**	- .42**
Iran	241	3.37	0.75	.93	3.36	0.91	.96	3.48	0.93	.77	1.98	0.86	.85	.87**	.75**	- .43**	.74**	- .50**	- .43**
Poland	289	3.36	0.82	.95	3.44	0.90	.96	3.37	1.10	.89	2.30	1.08	.87	.87**	.79**	- .59**	.71**	- .60**	- .57**
Russia	158	3.64	0.66	.92	3.68	0.72	.93	3.61	0.75	.70	2.05	0.94	.86	.76**	.71**	- .47**	.54**	- .58**	- .42**
Spain	69	3.49	0.82	.94	3.55	0.97	.96	3.59	1.03	.83	2.26	1.21	.91	.82**	.76**	- .54**	.74**	- .62**	- .60**
Total	3,455	3.47	0.79	.94	3.54	0.85	.95	3.49	0.98	.80	2.15	1.06	.89	.82**	.73**	- .48**	.64**	- .49**	- .45**

Note. TFL = Transformational Leadership; IL = Instrumental Leadership, TAL = Transactional Leadership, LF = Laissez-Faire, *α* = Cronbach's alpha

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

Table 6. Means (*M*), Standard Deviations (*SD*), Internal Consistencies (α) and Correlations of the Outcome Criteria.

		Job Satisfaction			Affective Commitment			Correlations								
	N	*M*	*SD*	*α*	*M*	*SD*	*α*	TFL x JS	TFL x AC	IL x JS	IL x AC	TAL x JS	TAL x AC	LF x JS	LF x AC	JS x AC
Brazil	285	3.24	0.76	.82	3.16	0.70	.72	.36**	.26**	.53**	.34**	.32**	.16**	- .23**	- .17**	.56**
Cameroon	160	3.19	0.86	.72	3.44	0.63	.31	.43**	.51**	.41**	.30**	.25**	.29**	- .08	- .19*	.29**
China	429	3.62	0.84	.89	3.55	0.70	.60	.48**	.40**	.49**	.37**	.39**	.37**	- .10**	- .27**	.45**
France	215	3.20	0.82	.88	3.25	0.81	.75	.42**	.37**	.30**	.31**	.39**	.21**	- .21**	- .13	.41**
Germany	1,565	3.51	0.72	.85	3.32	0.73	.78	.43**	.28**	.41**	.24**	.37**	.22**	- .33**	- .21**	.53**
India	44	4.13	0.64	.88	4.00	0.60	.74	.67**	.40**	.71**	.44**	.58**	.27	- .40**	- .35*	.64**
Iran	241	3.37	0.74	.89	3.35	0.63	.72	.44**	.22**	.46**	.16*	.40**	.24**	- .34**	- .16*	.53**
Poland	289	3.52	0.77	.87	3.30	0.77	.80	.60**	.42**	.57**	.35**	.60**	.35**	- .46**	- .29**	.65**
Russia	158	3.64	0.67	.84	3.68	0.72	.83	.63**	.46**	.66**	.62**	.46**	.38**	- .40**	- .42**	.64**
Spain	69	3.28	0.92	.90	2.91	0.80	.80	.59**	.50**	.59**	.39**	.58**	.37**	- .47**	- .17	.52**
Total	3,455	3.47	0.77	.86	3.34	0.73	.74	.44**	.32**	.46**	.30**	.37**	.24**	- .27**	- .21**	.52**

Note. TFL = Transformational Leadership; IL = Instrumental Leadership, TAL = Transactional Leadership, LF = Laissez-Faire, JS = Job Satisfaction, AC = Affective Commitment, *α* = Cronbach's alpha

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

with laissez-faire ranged from r = -.10 (China) to -.47 (Spain). For affective commitment, the correlation with Laissez-faire ranged from r = -.16 (Iran) to -.35 (India). Thus, Hypotheses 1 is fully supported for transformational and instrumental leadership, but only partly for transactional and laissez-faire leadership.

3.4.2 Relative Weight Analysis

Table 7 presents the results of the relative weight analyses for the leadership styles on job satisfaction and affective commitment. The relative weight as a calculated estimate of importance for every leadership style is presented as a percentage of the total amount of variance (R^2). The columns show the results for each country and for the total sample.

In the total sample, instrumental leadership made a proportionate contribution of 38%, transformational leadership of 31%, transactional leadership of 20%, and laissez-faire leadership of 11% to the R^2 (23%) of job satisfaction. Transformational leadership made a proportionate contribution of 40%, instrumental leadership of 30%, transactional leadership of 17%, and laissez-faire leadership of 13% to the R^2 (12%) of affective commitment. Thus, relatively to the other leadership styles, instrumental leadership was the most important style, followed by transformational leadership for predicting job satisfaction. There was no significant difference between either leadership styles as the 95% confidence intervals overlapped.

Compared with all eFRLT styles, both instrumental and transformational leadership predicted job satisfaction significantly better than transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership did. This implies that although all leadership constructs were highly correlated among each other (cf. Table 5), each style had an incremental and unique contribution in predicting job satisfaction. Regarding affective commitment, transformational leadership was the most important predictor, followed by instrumental leadership. Again, both predictors were not significantly different because the 95% confidence intervals were overlapping. Nevertheless, both styles significantly differed from transactional and laissez-faire leadership.

Table 7. Relative Weight Analyses of the Leadership Styles on Job Satisfaction and Affective Commitment.

	Job Satisfaction										
	Brazil (*N*=269)	Cameroon (*N*=145)	China (*N*=397)	France (*N*=196)	Germany (*N*=1,483)	India (*N*=43)	Iran (*N*=240)	Poland (*N*=255)	Russia (*N*=151)	Spain (*N*=69)	Total (*N*=3,248)
TFL	.16 [.10; .24]	.46 [.24; .63]	.39 [.30; .48]	.44 [.25; .59]	.32 [.27; .38]	.31 [.24; .41]	.27 [.16; .38]	.28 [.22; .35]	.30 [.22; .39]	.28 [.16; .40]	.31 [.28; .35]
IL	.68 [.52; .78]	.42 [.19; .62]	.39 [.30; .50]	.15 [.08; .32]	.28 [.23; .34]	.39 [.27; .49]	.32 [.19; .45]	.24 [.17; .32]	.42 [.32; .52]	.28 [.15; .39]	.38 [.34; .42]
TAL	.11 [.06; .19]	.10 [.04; .29]	.20 [.15; .27]	.32 [.14; .51]	.22 [.17; .28]	.21 [.12; .35]	.20 [.10; .35]	.33 [.24; .42]	.14 [.08; .24]	.28 [.18; .44]	.20 [.17; .23]
LF	.06 [.03; .15]	.03 [.01; .27]	.01 [.01; .06]	.09 [.02; .28]	.18 [.13; .25]	.10 [.02; .24]	.21 [.06; .43]	.15 [.08; .25]	.13 [.07; .24]	.17 [.06; .34]	.11 [.08; .15]
R^2	**.28** **[.20; .39]**	**.21** **[.13; .34]**	**.27** **[.18; .37]**	**.20** **[.11; .34]**	**.20** **[.16; .25]**	**.51** **[.24; .81]**	**.23** **[.16; .37]**	**.41** **[.32; .52]**	**.48** **[.39; .58]**	**.41** **[.22; .66]**	**.23** **[.20; .26]**

Note. TFL = Transformational Leadership; IL = Instrumental Leadership; TAL = Transactional Leadership; LF = Laissez-Faire Leadership

	Affective Commitment										
	Brazil (*N*=269)	Cameroon (*N*=145)	China (*N*=397)	France (*N*=196)	Germany (*N*=1,483)	India (*N*=43)	Iran (*N*=240)	Poland (*N*=255)	Russia (*N*=151)	Spain (*N*=69)	Total (*N*=3,248)
TFL	.26 [.14; .40]	.64 [.42; .75]	.31 [.21; .42]	.57 [.33; .71]	.41 [.31; .50]	.27 [.13; .40]	.32 [.11; .54]	.42 [.27; .53]	.16 [.10; .26]	.53 [.30; .63]	.40 [.34; .45]
IL	.57 [.36; .71]	.14 [.07; .28]	.23 [.15; .32]	.27 [.12; .47]	.20 [.15; .27]	.36 [.14; .47]	.14 [.09; .27]	.22 [.15; .34]	.53 [.35; .69]	.22 [.12; .39]	.30 [.25; .36]
TAL	.10 [.07; .18]	.12 [.06; .25]	.26 [.16; .37]	.12 [.07; .30]	.20 [.12; .29]	.12 [.08; .38]	.40 [.14; .62]	.22 [.13; .36]	.11 [.04; .25]	.19 [.11; .36]	.17 [.13; .22]
LF	.07 [.03; .21]	.11 [.01; .33]	.20 [.07; .37]	.03 [.01; .25]	.19 [.10; .31]	.25 [.04; .58]	.14 [.03; .48]	.15 [.06; .32]	.19 [.07; .35]	.06 [.03; .22]	.13 [.08; .19]
R^2	**.13** **[.07; .23]**	**.30** **[.19; .45]**	**.19** **[.13; .28]**	**.16** **[.09; .27]**	**.08** **[.06; .12]**	**.24** **[.07; .57]**	**.08** **[.04; .18]**	**.19** **[.11; .30]**	**.41** **[.29; .57]**	**.29** **[.13; .56]**	**.12** **[.10; .14]**

Note. TFL = Transformational Leadership; IL = Instrumental Leadership; TAL = Transactional Leadership; LF = Laissez-Faire Leadership

3.4.3 Hierarchical Regression Analyses

To further analyze the incremental amount of variance explained by transformational and instrumental leadership beyond transactional and laissez-faire leadership, I run stepwise hierarchical regression analyses. I estimated five models for each dependent variable (cf. Table 8). Model 1 included age, gender, and education as control variables[4]. In Model 2 I added laissez-faire and transactional leadership. In Model 3a to 3c, I entered transformational leadership (Model 3a), instrumental leadership (Model 3b), as well as transformational and instrumental leadership together (Model 3c).

Transformational and instrumental leadership together explained an incremental amount of variance of 7.0% ($p < .001$) in job satisfaction and 3.5% ($p < .001$) in affective commitment (cf. Table 8). Importantly, the effects of laissez-faire and, especially, transactional leadership on both outcomes largely decreased when transformational as well as instrumental leadership were added. Moreover, as can be seen in Model 3c, instrumental leadership strongly dropped the effect of transformational leadership on job satisfaction (from $\beta = .34$ to .16, $p < .001$). Likewise, transformational leadership strongly dropped the effect of instrumental leadership on affective commitment (from .21, $p < .001$ to .09, $p < .01$).

Thus, transformational as well as instrumental leadership were more important for explaining variance in job satisfaction and affective commitment than transactional and laissez-faire leadership. Furthermore, instrumental leadership was most important for enhancing job satisfaction, whereas transformational leadership had the greater influence on affective commitment. Hence, Hypothesis 2 could be supported.

[4] Additional models with other demographic and organizational variables as covariates (sector, organization size, tenure, working time, supervisor's age, supervisor's gender and management level) did not change result patterns. Thus, I present the more parsimonious model as this is generally to be preferred (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2013).

Table 8. Hierarchical Regression Analyses with Leadership Styles and Outcome Criteria.

Variables	Job Satisfaction									
Predictors	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3a		Model 3b		Model 3c	
	b (se)	*β*	*b (se)*	*β*	*b (se)*	*β*	*b (se)*	*β*	*b (se)*	*β*
Age	.01 (.00)	.08***	.01 (.00)	.12***	.01 (.00)	.12***	.01 (.00)	.12***	.01 (.00)	.11***
Gender	- .02 (.03)	- .01	- .04 (.03)	- .02	- .04 (.02)	- .03	- .04 (.02)	- .02	- .04 (.02)	- .03
Education	.03 (.02)	.03	.03 (.02)	.03	.02 (.02)	.02	.03 (.02)	.03	.02 (.02)	.03
LF			- .11 (.01)	- .16***	- .06 (.01)	- .08***	- .05 (.01)	- .06**	- .04 (.01)	- .05**
TAL			.23 (.01)	.32***	.07 (.02)	.09***	.09 (.02)	.12***	.04 (.02)	.06*
TFL					.34 (.03)	.34***			.16 (.03)	.16***
IL							.32 (.02)	.36***	.24 (.03)	.27***
R^2	.01		.18		.22		.24		.25	
$F_{(R^2)}$ *(df1, df2)*	7.34***(3,3095)		131.97***(5,3093)		146.83***(6,3092)		161.83***(6,3092)		143.81***(7,3091)	
ΔR^2			.17***		.05***		.06***		.07***	
$F_{\Delta R^2}$ *(df1, df2)*			316.68***(2,3093)		182.40***(1,3092)		256.57***(1,3092)		143.09***(2,3091)	

Variables	Affective Commitment									
Predictors	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3a		Model 3b		Model 3c	
	b (se)	*β*	*b (se)*	*β*	*b (se)*	*β*	*b (se)*	*β*	*b (se)*	*β*
Age	.01 (.00)	.16***	.01 (.00)	.19***	.01 (.00)	.19***	.01 (.00)	.19***	.01 (.00)	.19***
Gender	.03 (.03)	.02	.02 (.02)	.01	.01 (.03)	.01	.02 (.02)	.01	.01 (.03)	.01
Education	.02 (.02)	.02	.02 (.02)	.02	.02 (.02)	.02	.02 (.02)	.02	.02 (.02)	.02
LF			- .10 (.01)	- .14***	- .05 (.01)	- .07***	- .06 (.01)	- .08***	- .05 (.01)	- .06**
TAL			.15 (.01)	.21***	.01 (.02)	.01	.07 (.02)	.09***	.00 (.02)	.00
TFL					.28 (.03)	.29***			.23 (.03)	.23***
IL							.19 (.02)	.21***	.08 (.03)	.09***
R^2	.03		.11		.15		.13		.15	
$F_{(R^2)}$ *(df1, df2)*	28.93***(3,3118)		78.54***(5,3116)		87.91***(6,3115)		80.31***(6,3115)		76.92***(7,3114)	
ΔR^2			.09***		.03***		.02***		.04***	
$F_{\Delta R^2}$ *(df1, df2)*			148.85***(2,3116)		119.77***(1,3115)		79.28***(1,3115)		64.81***(2,3114)	

Note. N = 3,455. Gender coded as 1 = female and 2 = male, *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

3.5 Discussion

The aim of this study was to compare the eFRLT leadership styles in a multinational context with regard to their consequences on the work-related attitudes job satisfaction and affective commitment. To take into account the multicollinearity of the leadership styles, I ran relative weight analysis testing the individual influence of each style simultaneously. The results revealed that overall transformational and instrumental leadership were the best predictors for job satisfaction and affective commitment across countries. Instrumental leadership predicted job satisfaction better than transformational leadership. Transformational leadership had a greater influence on affective commitment than instrumental leadership. Both styles predicted the outcomes significantly better than transactional and laissez-faire leadership did. For transformational leadership, this is in line with previous results (e.g., Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Wang et al., 2011). For instrumental leadership, this implies that these leader behaviors should receive more attention in future (cross-cultural) leadership research.

In any case, I have to acknowledge that the differences between the leadership styles were small. This is in line with my assumption and with the results of other researchers, who assessed leadership styles simultaneously in one investigation (cf., Gregersen et al., 2014; Rowold et al., 2014). The small differences might be due to conceptual and empirical overlap between leadership styles as also stated by Rowold and Borgmann (2013). Nonetheless, the results of this study emphasize that although the leadership constructs are highly correlated they each have a single contribution to both work related attitudes.

Overall, in this study, instrumental leadership seems to be especially suitable for enhancing job satisfaction and transformational leadership to increase affective commitment. Transformational leadership is an emotional style based on values and socio-emotional interactions, whereas instrumental leadership is a pragmatic style with a primarily focus on organizational goals (Antonakis & House, 2014). As affective commitment represents an

employee's emotional bond to the organization (Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001), it might be easier to build this bond with a transformational rather than an instrumental leader.

Hence, while affective commitment is the sole affective component of organizational commitment, job satisfaction consists of both, an affective and a cognitive component (Illies & Judge, 2004). Weiss (2002, p. 175) describes job satisfaction as "a positive (or negative) evaluative judgment one makes about one's job or job situation." Thus, it reflects a feeling, but also a rational judgment towards the overall working conditions. An instrumental leader ensures more specifically and visibly than a transformational leader that work processes run well (e.g., by removing obstacles) and conveys through strategic and stabilizing behaviors that he/ she is in control of the overall situation. These behaviors might be especially important to create a good work environment and thereby enhance the overall judgment about the job. Nevertheless, this pattern is not consistent in all countries (e.g., Poland, Germany, France). Therefore, it is important to analyze the reasons for cultural differences in more detail in future studies.

3.5.1 Limitations and Future Research

Since this study was conducted to gain an initial understanding of the eFRLT in an intercultural context, there are some limitations that should be addressed in future research. A first limitation is that all data was collected from the same source. Although I tried to overcome this problem by collecting data at two points in time, which is recommended to reduce common method variance in cross-cultural survey designs (Chang, van Witteloostuijn, & Eden, 2010), followers rated their leaders' behavior and their own job satisfaction and affective commitment. In future investigations, an independent third party (e.g., colleagues) should rate the leader's behavior as well to reduce single-source variance.

A second point to be mentioned is that the internal consistencies (Cronbach's α) for transactional leadership and affective commitment were insufficient in the Cameroonian

sample. I therefore ran a second relative weight analysis without transactional leadership in this sample. Excluding transactional leadership led to an increase in the relative importance of transformational as well as instrumental leadership in the Cameroonian sample. Importantly, this did not change the ranking of the leadership styles – ether in the Cameroonian or in the total sample.

Another limitation of this study is the small sample sizes in India and Spain. To improve the generalizability of my findings, I encourage future studies to analyze the proposed model and hypotheses with samples equal in size. Further, I would appreciate being able to test the generalization of these results and practicability of the eFRLT in other countries (e.g., developing and emerging states). The results have shown that instrumental leadership has been particularly effective in the BRIC states Brazil, Russia, India, and China. Employees in these economically unstable and turbulent countries seem to especially appreciate this structuring and stabilizing leadership style.

Besides these methodological improvements, these findings provide an interesting basis for future research. As the results revealed large differences regarding the relative weight of a single leadership style between the samples, it remains to be tested in follow-up studies how moderators (e.g., cultural dimensions like power distance or uncertainty avoidance) influence the effectiveness of the leadership styles (cf. review of Gelfand et al., 2007). Another point to be addressed in future investigations is the role of mediators in the relationship between the leadership styles and outcome criteria. As stated in the theoretical section, the degree of activity might be a promising mediator for shedding light on leadership processes. Therefore, it is important to directly measure the degree of activity between the supervisor and the followers. The degree of activity can be operationalized by measuring the frequency of interactions e.g., hours of direct contact with the supervisor per week. This would provide a chance to control

the level of activity that is actually applied by the leader for the enactment of transformational, instrumental, and transactional behaviors in this interval.

3.5.2 Practical Implications

The results suggest that leadership development initiatives should highlight the importance of actively and assertively occupying the leadership role. This is in line with the results of a meta-analysis of De Rue, Nahrgang, Wellman, and Humphrey (2011), who concluded that even engaging in suboptimal leadership behaviors is better than inaction. In all the countries investigated in this study, passive laissez-faire leadership was negatively related to subjective job attitudes. Additionally, the most active styles – transformational and instrumental leadership – were the most effective behaviors to enhance job satisfaction and affective commitment. Thus, leadership development programs should encourage individuals to proactively assume their leadership responsibilities rather than passively waiting to act until problems develop.

To lead successfully, managers should demonstrate transformational as well as instrumental leadership behaviors. Thus, organizations should select leaders, who show components of both styles (e.g., strategic as well as inspirational skills). For developing its leaders, companies should provide transformational and instrumental leadership trainings. Training in transformational leadership has already been shown to have positive effects on the degree of a supervisor's transformational behaviors and their followers' job performance (Lacerenza et al., 2017). No training or development program has been validated for instrumental leadership so far. But as executive coaching and 360°-feedback has been demonstrated to successfully enhance leadership skills (Lee & Carpenter, 2017; Thach, 2002), this offers an appropriate tool to increase instrumental leadership behaviors.

3.5.3 Conclusion

In line with previous research and theoretical assumptions, the leadership styles transformational, transactional, and instrumental leadership were positively associated with job satisfaction and affective commitment, whereas laissez-faire was negatively associated with both work-related attitudes across countries. Overall, transformational and instrumental leadership predicted both outcomes more effectively than transactional and laissez-faire leadership did. Although I did not find significant differences between transformational and instrumental leadership, the activity-effectiveness-structure of the eFRLT could broadly be confirmed. The results revealed much variation in the importance of the leadership styles between the countries. Therefore, it is important to examine potential moderators causing these differences in future investigations.

4 Study 2 – The Impact of Cultural and Individual Values on Transformational and Instrumental Leadership

4.1 Introduction

Values determine our understanding of individual attitudes and behaviors and the functioning of organizations and societies. They are commonly defined as ‘guiding principles’ in the life of individuals or other social entities (e.g., Hofstede, 1980; Kluckhohn, 1951; Schwartz, 1992). Values play an important role in management processes because they are key elements in shaping motives, goals, and behaviors, predicting in turn how individuals or groups respond to leaders’ influences. Values can be considered at a cultural and individual level. Whereas cultural values refer to a society’s shared values due to similar socialization processes, individual values represent a set of personal guidelines depending on different experiences in life (Fischer & Boer, 2016). Both cultural as well as individual values are important for reactions to leadership. Shin and Zhou (2003), for instance, demonstrated that leadership effectiveness depends on the follower's individual level of conservation values. Elenkov and Manev (2005) showed that cultural values such as power distance and uncertainty avoidance influenced leadership effects on organizational innovation.

Cross-cultural studies on values and leadership commonly focus on cultural values (e.g., by using the Hofstede and GLOBE indices, Venaik & Brewer, 2016). Such a comparison captures the value differences that exist between cultures, but variances of individuals within these cultures remain largely unnoticed. Following the Individualized Leadership Approach (Yammarino & Dansereau, 2002), reactions to leadership are reliant on followers' individual characteristics. Consequently, leadership efforts must vary depending on the individual with whom the supervisor interacts to be successful. These days, it might be especially important to set the focus on individual differences rather than solely on differences between cultures, as

national boundaries in our 'global village' are blurring and attitudes and values tend to converge across borders (Fischer & Schwartz, 2011).

Other global trends and societal changes impacting leadership processes include an increased level of globalization, economic turbulences, and rapid technological advances. A successful leader in this environment must be able to handle these circumstances, for example by monitoring internal and external markets, competitors, and opportunities and by mapping out a clear strategy to reach organizational goals (Boal, 2007). To date, we know only little about these strategic management behaviors in a cross-cultural context (Dorfman et al., 2012). While transformational and transactional leadership include numerous important leadership activities, none of the aforementioned behaviors has been included in the "full range" of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership (Yukl, 2009). Therefore, there is an increased need to study these task- and strategy-oriented management behaviors, also labeled 'instrumental leadership' (Antonakis & House, 2014) – particularly in a cross-cultural perspective.

Additionally, economic power is shifting from the US, Western Europe, and Japan to countries like China, India, Russia, and Turkey by 2030 (National Intelligence Council's Global Trends Report, 2012) and Eastern European countries are becoming important trading partners and places for industrial investments for Western companies (Dauth et al., 2014). Thus, it becomes highly relevant to examine which leadership styles are perceived as effective in these cultures. But even though there have been "various calls to go beyond Western settings, and tap into the empirical phenomena of the East" (Barkema et al., 2015: 460) in management research, few studies so far have investigated effective leadership prototypes outside Western and Asian cultures. For regions such as Eastern Europe or the Middle East, knowledge of organizational culture and leadership practices is especially scarce (Gelfand et al., 2007; Kabasakal et al., 2012).

In order to address these points, I draw on the extended Full Range of Leadership theory (eFRLT, Antonakis & House, 2014) as the overarching theoretical framework. To explain the impacts of cultural values, I combine it with assumptions of Culturally Endorsed Implicit Leadership Theories (Brodbeck et al., 2000). To uncover the influence of individual values, I associate it with the Individualized Leadership Approach (Yammarino & Dansereau, 2002). I focus on transformational and instrumental leadership, as they are considered the most active and effective behaviors within the eFRLT. In this way, I also address van Knippenberg and Sitkin's (2013) concerns about transformational leadership's imprecise conceptualization by contrasting it with instrumental leadership, which is clearly defined according to behaviors. What makes transformational and instrumental leadership particularly interesting for this study is that both styles are directed towards future events but can be essentially distinguished by the degree of socio-emotional interaction and engagement with the followers' values. Transformational leaders inspire, intellectually stimulate, and actively transform their followers' values, ideals, and behaviors, whereas instrumental leaders act strategically, pragmatically, and in a task-oriented manner in order to reach organizational goals (Antonakis & House, 2014).

To assess the moderating influence of values at the societal as well as individual level, I focus on openness values. Since an essential function of leadership is envisioning the future and providing long-term direction (Yukl, 2013), this type of values is assumed to be particularly important for the reaction to leadership. To examine the influence at the societal level, I compare leadership effects in the cultural clusters with the highest divergence in terms of GLOBE's cultural dimension of future orientation, namely Germanic Europe, Eastern Europe, and the Middle East. As GLOBE's cultural dimensions are only intended to display differences at the societal level (cf. Venaik & Brewer, 2013), I investigate followers' openness to change values (Schwartz, 2003) to address differences at the individual level. This type of value can be

measured at the individual level of analysis and also signifies a striving for new experiences, proactivity, and challenge (Schwartz, 1992).

This study contributes to the literature of leadership and values in three ways. Firstly, it improves the state of knowledge on the impact of future-oriented and openness-to-change values – which are assumed to be particularly important for reactions to leadership and for long-term and challenging work tasks – on leadership effectiveness between and within the cultures studied. Secondly, the study provides an initial understanding of instrumental leadership in a cross-cultural context. Empirical evidence on this hitherto less-researched strategic and task-oriented concept of the eFRLT may prove essential for effective leadership in an environment characterized by increased globalization, turbulence, and change. Thirdly, by combining both research strands, this study contributes practically to an effective management of employees. The results show that it might be appropriate to apply transformational and instrumental leadership behaviors to suit followers' individual (value) characteristics to lead most effectively across cultures.

4.2 Theory and Hypotheses

4.2.1 Transformational and Instrumental Leadership

One of the most influential leadership theories of the past decades is the full-range leadership theory (FRLT) comprising transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership (Avolio & Bass, 1991). The FRLT has nevertheless been criticized as it neglects the importance of task- and strategy-oriented leadership behaviors for example, initiating structure (Judge, Piccolo, & Illies, 2004). To put more weight on these substantial aspects of management, Antonakis and House (2014) expanded the FRLT by adding instrumental leadership, thereby creating the extended full range of leadership theory (eFRLT). Within the eFRLT,

which forms the theoretical basis of this paper, I concentrate on transformational and instrumental leadership. These behaviors are considered the most active and effective styles out of the eFRLT augmenting transactional and laissez-faire leadership (Antonakis & House, 2014).

Transformational leadership (TFL) is defined as "the process of influencing major changes in the attitudes and assumptions of organization members and building commitment for the organization's mission, objectives, and strategies" (Yukl, 1989: 269). The core characteristic of TLF is to transform followers' values and attitudes, shifting them away from selfish, individual goals towards long-term, overarching goals in order to enhance performance (Bass, 1985). To this end, transformational leaders motivate their employees intrinsically through six distinctive behaviors: identifying and articulating a vision, providing an appropriate (role) model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, expecting high performance, providing individualized support, and stimulating their followers intellectually (Podsakoff et al., 1990; 1996).

Instrumental leadership (IL) is defined as "the application of leader expert knowledge on monitoring of the environment and of performance, and the implementation of strategic and tactical solutions" (Antonakis & House, 2014: 749). The central aspect of IL is using knowledge in a strategic and instrumental way and thereby improving followers' performance in order to reach organizational goals. IL includes strategic as well as facilitating leadership behaviors. Strategic leadership affects followers' performance indirectly by breaking down the company's vision into achievable tasks (strategy formulation and implementation) and observing the internal and external work environment for opportunities and threats (environmental monitoring). Follower-work-facilitation refers to the supervisor's direct support on the followers' path to goal fulfillment by providing resources and removing obstacles (path-goal facilitation) as well as giving constructive feedback on performance during the work progress (outcome monitoring).

4.2.2 Direct Effects on Job Satisfaction and Affective Commitment

To assess the effectiveness of both leadership styles, I focus on job satisfaction, the "pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience" (Locke, 1976: 1304) and affective commitment, defined as "employees' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in, the organization" (Allen & Meyer, 1990:1). Both work-related attitudes are part of the basic direct results of leader behaviors (Lowe et al., 1996; Jackson et al., 2013) and reliable predictors for organizational relevant criteria such as organizational citizenship behavior, job performance, and turnover intentions (Williams & Anderson, 1993; Meyer et al., 2002). Affective commitment indicates, further, the followers' internalization of goals and values (Johnson et al., 2010) and is thus well suited to examining the differences of value impacts on leadership processes.

TFL has been studied intensively in recent years and is considered the most active and effective type of leader behavior (Bass, 1997). But in regions such as Eastern Europe or the Middle East only little empirical evidence exists even for TFL (Gelfand et al., 2007). I expect, nevertheless, positive effects of TFL on both outcomes in these cultures, because TFL consists of visionary, inspirational, motivating, and team-building behaviors, which are universally positive endorsed leadership attributes (House et al., 1999). The positive effects of TFL are also assumed to be relatively universal (Bass, 1997; Dorfman et al., 2012) and positive interdependencies between TFL and both outcomes could already be meta-analytically confirmed in highly different countries (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Wang et al., 2011). Thus, it is likely that TFL will positively affect job satisfaction and affective commitment across the cultures studied here as well.

A high expression of IL should be positively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment, because IL's strategic behaviors (e.g., scanning the environment for opportunities and threats) suggest that everything is under control and therefore provide a

feeling of safety and trust in the leader, which results in job satisfaction as well as affective commitment (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001). IL's facilitating behaviors should also have positive effects on job satisfaction and affective commitment. Both outcomes are created, inter alia, by a positive relationship with the leader (Becker, 1992). A regular exchange of performance results (outcome monitoring) and a clearly defined direction with adequately provided resources allowing the elimination of obstacles and assistance in defining the goal (path-goal facilitation), should improve the quality of the leaders' and followers' relationships and thus increase both commitment to the organization as well as job satisfaction.

In line with this argument, and because the support provided by the supervisor is highly correlated with affective commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1996), Norris-Watts and Levy (2003) showed that a positive supervisor feedback environment increased affective commitment. Further, Antonakis and House (2014) discovered that IL positively affects followers' satisfaction with their leader. In a German sample, Rowold (2014) found that IL positively affected both job satisfaction and affective commitment. The IL questionnaire has been validated with a sample from different Western-European countries (primarily Switzerland) and the US (Antonakis & House, 2014), but no study at present has examined IL in a non-western context. Therefore, this study should, in the first instance, reveal whether positive effects of TFL and IL on employees' job satisfaction and affective commitment can be confirmed across the cultures studied. I investigated TFL and IL as higher-order constructs as there is no theoretical rational for opposite directions of effects for the single facets. On the basis of the previous research outcomes, I postulate:

Hypothesis 1. Transformational and instrumental leadership is positively related to followers' job satisfaction and affective commitment across all investigated cultures.

4.2.3 Moderating Effects of Cultural and Individual Values

Den Hartog and colleagues (1999: 225) point out that the "universal endorsement of an attribute does not preclude cultural differences in the enactment of the attribute". That means that, while the concepts of TFL and IL might be universal, there can be substantial differences in the expression and also perception of these attributes and behaviors in different cultures. TFL, for example, has substantial variation with regard to the magnitude of its effect across countries. For follower satisfaction effect sizes range from $r = .00$ to .87 (Dumdum et al., 2002) and for affective commitment from $r = .23$ to .66 (Jackson et al., 2013). The varying effectiveness of leadership on outcomes is often attributed to moderators, for example cultural and individual values (Tsui et al., 2007; Erhart & Klein, 2001).

Cultural Values. Although scholars generally agree that differences between groups can be found along various dimensions (behavior, cognition, and values) cross-cultural research has concentrated on shared cultural values as the leading cause of variation between national groups (Tsui et al., 2007). House et al. (2004: 15) define culture as a collective's "shared motives, values, beliefs, identities and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from the common experiences of members of collectives and are transmitted across age generations". It is important to note that culture must thus not be understood as the characteristics or attitudes of single individuals. It refers to the common values and the resulting behavior of a collective.

The impact of cultural values on leadership can be explained by the concept of *culturally endorsed implicit leadership theories* (Brodbeck et al., 2000; House et al., 2004) in combination with the *cultural congruence proposition* (House, Wright, & Aditya, 1997). The idea behind the concept of implicit leadership theories is that people's underlying stereotypes, beliefs, schemas, and assumptions influence leadership expectation e.g., the extent to which a person is perceived as a good leader (Lord & Maher, 1991). 'Culturally endorsed' means that these underlying attitudes are largely attributable to cultural imprints (e.g., traditions, norms, and values).

The cultural congruence proposition assumes that those leader behaviors that most clearly fit with the cultural surrounding of the leader (e.g., cultural values) are best accepted and enacted and most effective within a collective (Dickson et al., 2003).

GLOBE's cultural value dimension, Future Orientation (FO) is "the degree to which a collectivity encourages and rewards future-oriented behaviors such as delaying gratification, planning and investing in the future" (House et al., 1999: 76). Organizations in countries with a low level of FO set goals that are focused more on the short-term and oriented towards action rather than following an abstract vision for the future. By contrast, cultures with high FO have "a strong capability and willingness to imagine future contingencies, formulate and seek to achieve future goals, and develop strategies to meet their future aspirations" (Ashkanasy et al., 2004: 285). FO reflects, thus, the societal experience of time and the degree of general open-mindedness towards future events and changes in a society.

The degree of FO may have an impact on the effectiveness of leadership, but has rarely been examined so far (Venaik, Zhu, & Brewer, 2013). An important function of leadership is envisioning the future, providing long-term direction, and articulating that direction to followers (Yukl, 2013). This concerns TFL in particular, since it is by definition a visionary leadership style that is strongly focused on future events. In accordance with the cultural congruence proposition and the concept of culturally endorsed implicit leadership theories, an implicit leadership theory that meets the characteristics of TFL should be well received in cultures scoring highly on FO. That is, the leaders in these cultures should accept and apply TFL in a coherent way and the followers should perceive TFL as a coherent leadership approach that fits their expectations of good leadership.

In line with this, project GLOBE discovered that visionary leadership, which includes attributes that are similar with the TFL facets articulating a vision and intellectual stimulation, works well in high FO cultures such as the geographic regions of Nordic Europe, Germanic

Europe, and the Anglo Cluster (Ashkanasy et al., 2004). They also found a positive relationship between FO and the globe-specific leadership dimension of charismatic/value-based, human-oriented and team-oriented leadership (House et al., 2014), which are comparable to the TFL facets articulating a vision and fostering the acceptance of group goals. Thus, it is plausible that TFL should be especially effective in cultures with a high degree of FO, and lead to high subjective work outcomes such as job satisfaction and affective commitment, as it fits well with followers' expectations of good leadership.

IL is characterized as a strategic leadership style that aims at securing the long-term success of an organization or working group. But it is also focused on facilitating followers' task completion in day-to-day business. As IL has only been investigated in high FO countries so far, assumptions for varying influences of FO cannot be derived from country differences. Evidence on initiating structure, which is in parts similar to IL, shows then again that this type of leadership is effective across most settings (Judge, Piccolo, & Illies, 2004). Moreover, instrumental attributes are perceived as highly prototypically of good leadership (Antonakis & House, 2014) and structuring supervisory behaviors e.g., supporting task completion, being administrative skilled and coordinating are appreciated in every society (House et al., 1999). Therefore, it is to assume that IL works both in cultures that focus on the long-term and those that focus more on the short-term and will not moderate IL's effectiveness[5]. In summary, this results in the second hypothesis:

> *Hypothesis 2. The degree of FO moderates the relationship between TFL and both outcome variables: For cultures scoring high on FO, TFL is more strongly and positively related to job satisfaction and affective commitment than for cultures scoring low on FO.*

[5] As I do not expect a moderating influence for IL, which is a null hypothesis, I do not formulate a hypothesis for IL.

Individual Values. Individuals of one society exhibit values similarities because they are socialized in and must adapt to similar societal systems with related underlying cultural values (e.g., educational, media, law or governance systems). But apart from these common set of imprints each member of a society develops individual attitudes and values due to different experiences in life. Schwartz (1994: 21) defines values as "desirable, transsituational goals […] that serve as guiding principles" and motivate and cause action. They have an important relevance for activities as they provide their possessors with direction and affective intensity and can serve to justify decisions or evaluate standards. Thus, values are key elements for shaping individuals' goals and behaviors, in turn influencing how they respond to leadership (Shin & Zhou, 2003). Schwartz (1994, 2003) postulates ten different motivational basic value types grouped into four higher order values. Of these values, openness to change – striving for new experiences, thinking and acting independently – may be particularly important for reactions to leadership. According to the individualized leadership approach (Dansereau & Yammarino, 2002), individuals respond differently to the same leadership style, depending on how they regard their supervisor. Thus, followers with varying degrees of openness to change may differ in their perception of and response to transformational and instrumental leadership.

For the effectiveness of TFL, a high degree of openness to change seems to be important, because individuals scoring highly on these values seek excitement, novelty, and challenge. They assess independent thinking, creating, and exploring as important factors in their lives (Schwartz, 2003). Followers with high levels of openness to change might therefore react positively to TFL. For example, when intellectual stimulation is provided, a highly open follower may be more willing to reconsider previous actions, to come up with new ideas and to try out new solutions and approaches as empirical evidence demonstrates that highly open individuals seek interesting and varied work tasks (Ros, Schwartz, & Surkiss, 1999) and adopt new technologies more readily (Beyth-Marom, Hayut, Roccas & Sagiv, 2003; Sagiv, Roccas &

Halevi, 2005). Similarly, employees with a high degree of openness to change may receive the leader's articulated vision more positively. Oreg and colleagues (2008; 2009) showed that highly open individuals are more willing to accept voluntary organizational change. They might, thus, be accordingly open to potential innovation and new methods and ready to engage in missions to bring the vision to fruition. These followers might also react with more engagement to high performance expectations from the leader because they strive for new challenges (Schwartz, 2003) and work autonomy (Ros et al., 1999). Finally, these followers may be more likely to react to their supervisors' individualized support because they recognize that this support enables them to develop and do not stick to routines.

For the more pragmatic and guiding IL, the moderating influences of openness to change values might be opposite. It is to be assumed that followers who place little value on openness to change benefit most from IL. An instrumental leader aims to create optimal working conditions for employees and assist them strongly in achieving their task objectives. He or she does not focus primarily on encouraging followers to think independently, inspire, developing new ideas or striving for visionary goals "beyond expectations" (Bass, 1985), unlike TFL. The leader conceptualizes and implements a strategy for reaching organizational goals that followers are supposed to put into practice. It is "a highly proactive strategic-focused style […] to increase the likelihood that the organizational goals will be met" (Antonakis & House, 2014: 750). Tasks for which a high degree of openness is necessary (e.g., exploring the environment for opportunities, implementing a new strategy) fall within the leader's scope. Consequently, it seems implausible that a high degree of openness is needed on the follower's side to improve IL's effectiveness. On the contrary, less open employees might especially appreciate these structuring behaviors by the leader. They do not have the need to actively shape or create their work environment, but benefit, nonetheless, from enhanced working conditions. This should have positive psychological implications leading to enhanced job satisfaction and commitment.

Another important target of instrumental leaders is to clarify the followers' paths to goal attainment by allocating resources, removing obstacles and giving direction and support. Instrumental leaders continuously monitor outcomes and provide feedback during the working progress, helping followers to correct mistakes and reach their goal (Antonakis & House, 2014). This strong guidance in the goal attainment process provides a feeling of stability and security but might hinder self-realization and introducing own ideas in some way as a supervisor's close monitoring correlates negatively with followers' creativity (Zhou, 2003). For less open followers this conflict of objectives should not arise. These individuals prioritize security, conformity and tradition as orthogonal-opposing values of openness to change and do not value independent thought and action as important (Schwartz, 2012). Thus, less open employees should be particularly content with IL, as no personal need for autonomy is restricted and the strong guidance satisfies their need for stability and security. Therefore, I assume:

Hypothesis 3a. Openness to change moderates the relationship between leadership style and both outcome variables: for followers scoring highly on these values, TFL is more strongly and positively related to job satisfaction and affective commitment.

Hypothesis 3b. Openness to change moderates the relationship between leadership style and both outcome variables: For followers scoring low on these values, IL is more strongly and positively related to both outcomes.

Figure 4 summarizes the research model of this study and the presumed relationships.

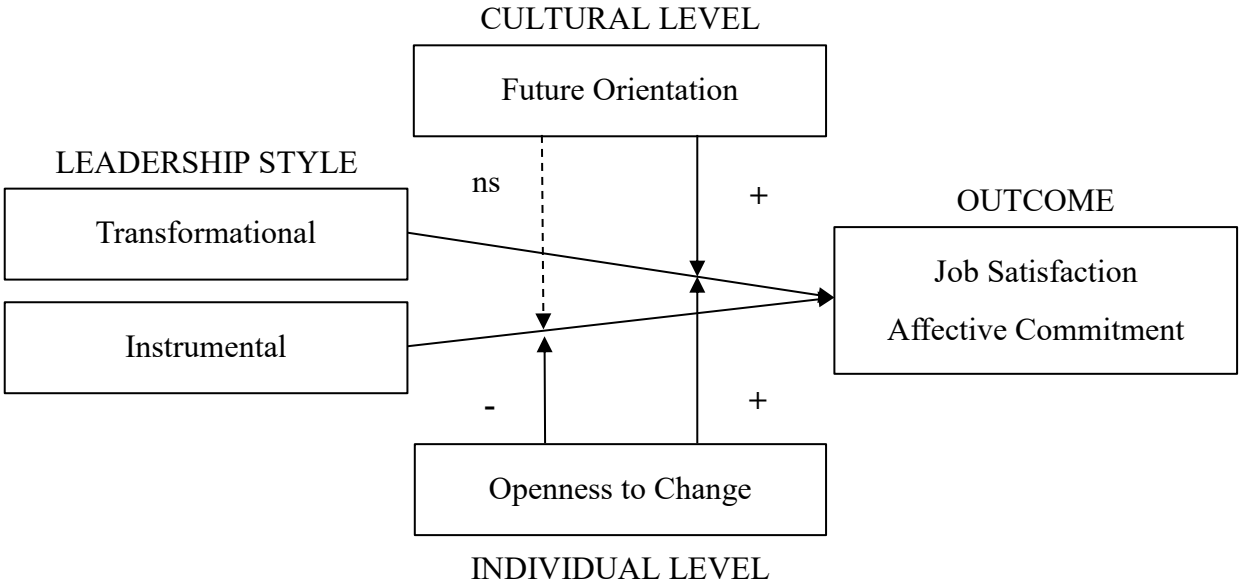


Figure 4. Hypothesized Model of Relationships.

4.3 Methods

4.3.1 Sample and Procedure

The data was gathered via web-based surveys from November 2013 to December 2016. Measurements were conducted at two times (t1: independent and moderator variables; t2: dependent variables). This ex ante questionnaire design is recommended to reduce common method variance if it is not possible to obtain data from different sources (Chang, van Witteloostuijn, & Eden, 2010). The first questionnaire's link was disseminated via email and social networks (e.g., Facebook) to employees from a wide variety of industries and organizations. Within the survey, employees assessed their immediate supervisor's leadership style as well as their own individual values, demographics, and information concerning organizational and work-related characteristics. At the end of the questionnaire, participants could voluntarily provide an email address to be contacted for the second part of the survey four weeks later. 55% of the participants who filled in the first questionnaire completed the

second questionnaire as well (average response rate t1: 36%). Both surveys were matched to each other through individual codes when data collection was completed.

In total, the analysis ended up using the data of 1,631 people who mainly worked in the trade (18.3 %), industrial (17.1 %) and public-service sectors (12.9 %) in the cultural clusters Germanic Europe (GE, N = 906), Eastern Europe (EE, N = 379), and Middle East (ME, N = 346). I selected the three clusters, because they had the highest divergence in terms of GLOBE's cultural dimension future orientation (cf., Table 9). Most of the participants in the Germanic European sample had their workplace in Germany (90.1 %), Switzerland (8.1 %) or Austria (1.2 %). Most of the respondents in the Eastern European sample worked in Poland (58.9 %), Georgia (21.2 %) or Russia (17.4 %). Participants in the Middle Eastern sample were mostly from Turkey (67.1 %) and the United Arab Emirates (19.9 %). In all samples, nearly all respondents worked in the same culture they were born in (GE: 93.1 %, EE: 95.0 %, ME: 95.7 %). Demographic information for the three samples is shown in Table 9.

4.3.2 Measures

All data were collected with validated questionnaires in the respective language. Rowold and Heinitz's (2007) validated version was used for assessing transformational leadership, Schmidt et al.'s (2007) validated version was used for assessing openness to change, and Schmidt, Hollmann, and Sodenkamp's (1998) validated version for assessing affective commitment in the german-speaking samples. When there was no validated version available, the original questionnaire was translated into the official language by a professional translation agency. This procedure allowed each participant to complete the questionnaires in their native language without limiting the measures' validity. The Schwartz (2003) Portraits Value Questionnaire items were measured using 6-point Likert scales (1 = 'not like me at all', 6 =

'very much like me'). All other items were assessed on 5-point Likert scales (1 = 'strongly disagree', 5 = 'strongly agree').

Table 9. Respondents' Demographic Information.

	Germanic Europe (N = 906)	Eastern Europe (N = 379)	Middle East (N = 346)
Cultural Values †			
Future Orientation	High (4.40)	Low (3.38)	Low (3.58)
Uncertainty Avoidance	High (5.12)	Low (3.56)	Low (3.91)
In-Group Collectivism	Low (4.21)	High (5.53)	High (5.58)
Power Distance	Mid (3.47)	Mid (4.22)	Mid (3.93)
Employee			
Gender			
Female	57.20 %	69.60 %	57.10 %
Male	42.80 %	30.40 %	42.90 %
Age (in years)	31.94 (*SD* 11.80)	32.93 (*SD* 12.48)	34.20 (*SD* 13.98)
Education ‡			
Secondary School	14.80 %	3.70 %	9.30 %
Sixth Form College	32.10 %	39.40 %	18.40 %
University	53.10 %	56.90 %	72.20 %
Working Time			
Full Time	66.80 %	78.70 %	80.80 %
Part Time	32.40 %	21.30 %	19.20 %
Tenure (in years)	7.24 (*SD* 8.94)	8.72 (*SD* 9.85)	6.26 (*SD* 6.85)
Supervisor			
Gender			
Female	25.10 %	41.50 %	50.90 %
Male	74.90 %	59.00 %	49.10 %
Age (in years)	45.39 (*SD* 8.00)	-	43.24 (*SD* 8.36)
Management level			
Lower	18.50 %	17.60 %	17.70 %
Middle	41.90 %	37.10 %	35.90 %
Upper	39.60 %	45.30 %	46.40 %

Note. Missing of 100 % did not provide information concerning demographics.
† High = High-Score Cluster, Mid = Mid-Score Cluster, Low = Low-Score Cluster according to the classification of Project GLOBE. Means of high-score clusters are significantly higher ($p < .05$) and means of low score clusters are significantly lower ($p < .05$) than the rest, means of mid-score clusters are not significantly different from the rest ($p > .05$; House et al., 2004: 193).
‡ I used country-specific equivalents for educational institutions in every country.

Transformational Leadership ($\alpha_{GE} = .93$, $\alpha_{EE} = .94$, $\alpha_{ME} = .96$). Transformational leadership behavior was measured with the Transformational Leadership Inventory (TLI, Podsakoff et al., 1990; 1996). The TLI consists of 26 items (22 measuring transformational and

4 items measuring transactional leadership). A sample item from transformational leadership is, “My direct leader has stimulated me to think about old problems in new ways.”

Instrumental Leadership ($\alpha_{GE} = .95$, $\alpha_{EE} = .95$, $\alpha_{ME} = .97$)**.** Instrumental leadership was assessed with Antonakis and House’s (2004) 16-item scale. A sample item for instrumental leadership is “My direct leader ensures that I have sufficient resources to reach my goals.”

Cultural Value of Future Orientation. The sociocultural context was operationalized by using GLOBE’s cultural-value indices (cf. Table 9). The cultural-value scores of the GLOBE project have been used in many cross-cultural studies (cf. Den Hartog et al., 1999; Mittal & Dorfman, 2012) and are both theoretically substantiated (cf. House et al., 2004) and empirically validated (cf. Gupta & Hanges, 2004).

Individual Value of Openness to Change ($\alpha_{GE} = .79$, $\alpha_{EE} = .84$, $\alpha_{ME} = .80$)**.** Following previous research on individual values, Schwartz’s (2003) Portraits Value Questionnaire (PVQ) was utilized. This involves short verbal portraits describing a person’s objectives, expectations, or desires, which implicitly indicate the importance of a single value type. A sample item from this measure for the individual value “openness to change” (10 items) – consisting of hedonism, stimulation, and self-direction as basic values – is, “Thinking up new ideas and being creative is important to him. He likes to do things in his own original way.”

Job Satisfaction ($\alpha_{GE} = .85$, $\alpha_{EE} = .86$, $\alpha_{ME} = .92$)**.** Job satisfaction was measured by 8 items from Neuberger and Allerbeck’s (1978) validated job descriptive questionnaire (e.g., “I am satisfied with my colleagues”), which has been used in several other recent studies (Braun et al., 2013; Diestel et al., 2014).

Affective Commitment ($\alpha_{GE} = .82$, $\alpha_{EE} = .72$, $\alpha_{ME} = .86$)**.** To assess affective commitment, the 8-item measure from Allen and Meyer’s (1990) Organizational Commitment scale was used. A sample item from this measure is “I really feel as if this organization’s problems were my own.”

Control Variables. I controlled followers' age, gender, education, and tenure because of its potential influence on reactions to leadership behavior (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989) as well as the influence of gender, age, and education on the relevance of openness values (Schwartz et al., 2001). I also controlled for a supervisor's gender to take into account different gender roles and responses to male and female leaders in the Middle Eastern regions (Metcalfe, 2007; 2008).

4.3.3 Data Analyses

Confirmatory Factor Analyses. Maximum likelihood confirmatory factor analyses using Amos (Version 22.0; Arbuckle, 2014) were conducted to check the discriminant validity of the questionnaires in each cultural cluster separately, and to ensure the invariance of the measures between all samples. For each scale three parcels of items were constructed to form the measurement models (Bandalos & Finney, 2001). For the establishment of the measurement models, I tested a five-factor model (TFL, IL, openness to change, job satisfaction, affective commitment). Because of the high correlations between the leadership styles, I tested whether this five-factor model fitted the data better than a four-factor model, where all leadership items loaded on one leadership factor. Additionally, I compared it to a one-factor model in which all items loaded on a single factor. The hypothesized five-factor measurement model fit the data well for all samples. Contrasting the five-factor model with alternative measurement models revealed a significantly worse fit for both alternative models in all samples (cf. Table 10).

To evaluate measurement invariance, I tested for configural and metric invariance, which must be fulfilled for an interpretation of relationships across groups (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998; Van de Schoot, Lugtig, & Hox, 2012). To indicate fit differences between models resulting from the added restrictions, I used the ΔCFI. Unlike the traditional χ^2, this is not sensitive to sample size and a value of $\Delta CFI > 0.01$ indicates a significant decrease of fit (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). Results indicated good support for the model testing configural

(χ^2_{240} = 686.58, p < .001, RMSEA = .03, SRMR = .04, CFI = .98) as well as metric invariance (χ^2_{260} = 789.93, p < .001, RMSEA = .04, SRMR = .04, CFI = .97). The ΔCFI between the models was .005, indicating that there was no decrease of fit. Thus, there was sufficient evidence that the measures captured the same constructs in all cultural clusters.

Table 10. Confirmatory Factor Analyses.

Model	χ^2	*df*	$\Delta\chi^2$ (Δ *df*)	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Germanic Europe						
5-factor model	283.58**	80	460.37** (4)	.98	.05	.04
4-factor model	743.95**	84	2297.49** (6)	.93	.09	.04
1-factor model	3041.44**	90		.69	.19	.15
Eastern Europe						
5-factor model	196.03**	80	232.13** (4)	.97	.06	.05
4-factor model	428.16**	84	1007.16** (6)	.92	.11	.05
1-factor model	1435.32**	90		.68	.20	.15
Middle East						
5-factor model	206.79**	80	143.97** (4)	.97	.07	.05
4-factor model	350.76**	84	1176.39** (6)	.95	.10	.05
1-factor model	1527.15**	90		.71	.22	.15

Note. 5-factor model = transformational, instrumental leadership, openness to change, job satisfaction, affective commitment, 4-factor model = leadership [transformational, instrumental], openness to change, job satisfaction, affective commitment
* p < .05, ** p < .01

Statistical Analyses of Hypotheses. To test the moderating effects of both cultural and individual values, I ran hierarchical multiple regression analyses (Cohen et al., 2003). I did not apply a multi-level approach, because I had only three higher-level clusters, which is an insufficient sample size for accurate estimations (Maas & Hox, 2005) and the intraclass correlation coefficients indicated less between-variance for job satisfaction (*ICC* = .004) and for affective commitment (*ICC* = .028). Due to methodological convention, independent and proposed moderators were mean-centered before calculating the interaction terms from leadership style (TFL and IL) and future orientation or openness to change. All hypotheses were tested separately for the dependent variables (cf. Table 12). Step 1 considered control variables

(age, gender, education, tenure, supervisor's gender) and the proposed moderators (future orientation and openness to change). In Step 2 the leadership styles (TFL and IL) and in Step 3 both interaction terms (leadership style x future orientation and leadership style x individual openness) were added. As test statistics the regression coefficients (β) of Step 3 were compared. Simple slope tests (Dawson, 2014) were conducted to evaluate whether the relationship (slope) between leadership styles and both outcomes were significant at a particular value (Mean +/ -1 *SD*) of openness to change.

4.4 Results

4.4.1 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Table 11 presents means (*M*), standard deviations (*SD*), correlations, and internal consistencies (Cronbach's α) for the variables included in the analyses.

4.4.2 Preliminary Analyses

Given the high correlations between TFL and IL, I calculated variance inflation factors (VIF) for the predictor variables, which were used as an indicator of multicollinearity. All VIF were $\leq$ 4.98 in the regression analyses. Thus, they were below the recommended maximum VIF value of 5 (Rogerson, 2001) or 10 (Hair et al., 1995). Tolerance was above the recommended tolerance level with values > .20 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Therefore, multicollinearity seems not to be a critical point for the interpretation of the regression results.

Table 11. Means (*M*), Standard Deviations (*SD*), and Correlations.

		Germanic Europe ($N = 906$)			Eastern Europe ($N = 379$)			Correlations									
		M	*SD*	α	*M*	*SD*	α	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1.	Gender	1.43	0.50		1.30	0.46			.12**	- .02	.12*	.19**	.03	.05	.06	.03	.03
2.	Age	31.94	11.80		32.93	12.48		.09		- .17**	.72**	.10**	- .06	- .08*	- .14**	.04	.17**
3.	Education	3.35	0.82		3.53	0.59		- .07	.02		- .28**	.05	.07*	.03	.04	.09**	- .05
4.	Tenure	7.24	8.94		8.72	9.86		.01	.80**	- .15		.08	- .03	- .03	- .13*	.01	.20**
5.	Gender $_{Leader}$	1.75	0.43		1.59	0.49		.26**	.16**	- .05	- .08		- .02	- .03	- .02	- .00	.01
6.	TFL	3.36	0.71	.93	3.35	0.83	.94	- .12*	- .02	- .17**	.15	.09		.85**	.22**	.40**	.31**
7.	IL	3.49	0.77	.95	3.47	0.89	.95	- .10*	- .04	- .13**	.16	.07	.84**		.17**	.39**	.24**
8.	Openness	4.30	0.65	.79	4.35	0.80	.84	- .07	- .13*	- .04	.23	.05	.28**	.20**		.02	.08*
9.	Job Satisfaction	3.54	0.69	.85	3.45	0.73	.86	.02	.12*	- .09	.32**	.23**	.57**	.53**	.08		.47**
10.	Aff. Commitment	3.20	0.76	.82	3.20	0.72	.72	- .01	.18**	- .04	.32**	.10	.35**	.29**	.00	.56**	

Note. Correlations above the diagonal are for Germanic Europe, and below the diagonal for Eastern Europe.

		Middle East ($N = 346$)			Total Sample ($N = 1.631$)			Correlations									
		M	*SD*	α	*M*	*SD*	α	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1.	Gender	1.43	0.50		1.40	0.49			.06	- .07	.20**	.35**	.06	.03	- .20**	.00	.01
2.	Age	34.20	13.98		32.64	12.46		.10**		- .14*	.44**	.18**	- .04	- .02	- .10	.03	.05
3.	Education	3.59	0.78		3.44	0.77		- .05	- .12**		- .20**	.17**	- .14*	- .15**	- .01	- .16**	- .14*
4.	Tenure	6.26	6.84		6.98	8.27		.13**	.61**	- .24**		.13**	.07	.02	- .03	.10	.13
5.	Gender $_{Leader}$	1.49	0.50		1.66	0.48		.25**	.11**	- .05*	.09*		.18**	.19**	- .07	.13*	.20**
6.	TFL	3.54	0.80	.96	3.40	0.76	.94	.00	- .04	- .02	.03	.04		.88**	.13*	.64**	.62**
7.	IL	3.59	0.87	.97	3.51	0.82	.95	.01	- .05	- .04	.01	.04	.85**		.13*	.58**	.55**
8.	Openness	4.70	0.71	.80	4.39	0.72	.81	- .02	- .11**	.03	- .06	- .05*	.23**	.18**		.08	.09
9.	Job Satisfaction	3.57	0.84	.92	3.52	0.74	.87	.03	.06*	.00	.07*	.09**	.50**	.47**	.06*		.71**
10.	Aff. Commitment	3.48	0.85	.86	3.26	0.78	.81	.02	.15**	- .06*	.18**	.05	.40**	.33**	.09**	.55**	

Note. Correlations above the diagonal are for the Middle East, and below the diagonal for the total sample.
Gender coded as 1 = female and 2 = male; TFL = Transformational Leadership; IL = Instrumental Leadership; α = Cronbach's alpha. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

4.4.3 Test of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1 suggests that TFL and IL are positively related to followers' job satisfaction and affective commitment across all investigated cultures. TFL significantly predicted job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.29$, $t = 4.40$, $p < .001$) and affective commitment ($\beta = 0.39$, $t = 5.90$, $p < .001$). IL significantly predicted job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.23$, $t = 3.50$, $p < .01$) but not affective commitment ($\beta = 0.04$, $t = 0.64$, *ns*; cf. table 12). These results fully support Hypothesis 1 for TFL, but in IL's case only for job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2 proposes future orientation (FO) as a moderator of the relationship between TFL and job satisfaction as well as affective commitment. As shown in Table 12, there was no significant interaction of FO, neither for TFL (job satisfaction: $\beta = -0.03$, $t = -0.39$, *ns*; affective commitment: $\beta = 0.03$, $t = 0.38$, *ns*) nor for IL (job satisfaction: $\beta = -0.01$, $t = -0.21$, *ns*; affective commitment: $\beta = -0.11$, $t = -1.65$, *ns*). The relationships between both leadership styles and the outcome variables were not stronger in cultures with high FO than in cultures with low FO. Thus, Hypothesis 2 has to be rejected.

Hypothesis 3 suggests openness to change as a moderator of the positive relationship between TFL (3a) and IL (3b) respectively, and both outcome variables. A high degree of openness to change strengthens the relationship between TFL and both outcomes, and a low degree of openness to change strengthens the relationship between IL and both outcomes. As shown in Table 12 (Step 3) and in Figure 5, the interaction terms were positive and significant for TFL on both outcomes (job satisfaction: TFL x openness, $\beta = 0.30$, $t = 4.31$, $p < .001$; affective commitment: TFL x openness, $\beta = 0.21$, $t = 3.02$, $p < .01$). For IL the interaction terms were negative and significant on both outcomes (job satisfaction: IL x openness, $\beta = -0.20$, $t = -2.96$, $p < .01$; affective commitment: IL x openness, $\beta = -0.15$, $t = -2.13$, $p < .05$).

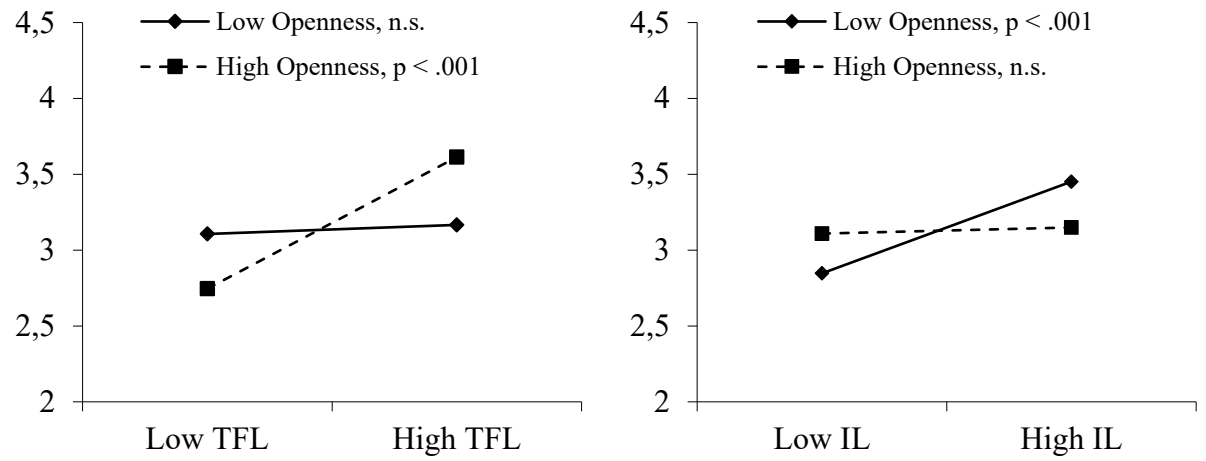
Table 12. Results of Regression Analyses.

	Job Satisfaction			Affective Commitment		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
First Step		**.03**			**.07**	
Age	.03			.05		
Gender	.05			.01		
Education	.02			- .07		
Tenure	.06			.13*		
Gender Supervisor	.10*			.11**		
Future Orientation	- .02			- .14***		
Openness to Change	.10*			.09*		
Second Step		**.29**	**.26*****		**.27**	**.20*****
Age	.05			.07		
Gender	.01			- .02		
Education	.02			- .07*		
Tenure	.03			.10**		
Gender Supervisor	.06			.08**		
Future Orientation	.00			- .12***		
Openness to Change	.01			.02		
Instrumental Leadership	.20**			.04		
Transformational Leadership	.33***			.42***		
Third Step		**.31**	**.03*****		**.29**	**.02*****
Age	.05			.07		
Gender	.01			- .02		
Education	.03			- .06		
Tenure	.03			.10**		
Gender Supervisor	.05			.07*		
Future Orientation	.01			- .12***		
Openness to Change	- .00			.01		
Instrumental Leadership (IL)	.23**			.04		
Transformational Leadership (TFL)	.29***			.39***		
IL x Future Orientation	- .01			- .11		
IL x Openness to Change	- .20**			- .15*		
TFL x Future Orientation	- .03			.03		
TFL x Openness to Change	.30***			.21**		

Note. N = 1,631. Standardized regression coefficients are reported.
Gender coded as 1 = female and 2 = male
Education coded as 1 = Secondary School, 2 = Sixth Form College, 3 = University
*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Simple slope analyses revealed a significant positive relationship between TFL and both outcomes for employees scoring high on openness to change (job satisfaction: simple slope = .66, $t = 6.04$, $p < .001$, *Mean* + 1 *SD*; affective commitment: simple slope = .74, $t = 6.46$, $p < .001$, *Mean* + 1 *SD;* cf. Figure 5).

Job Satisfaction



Affective Commitment

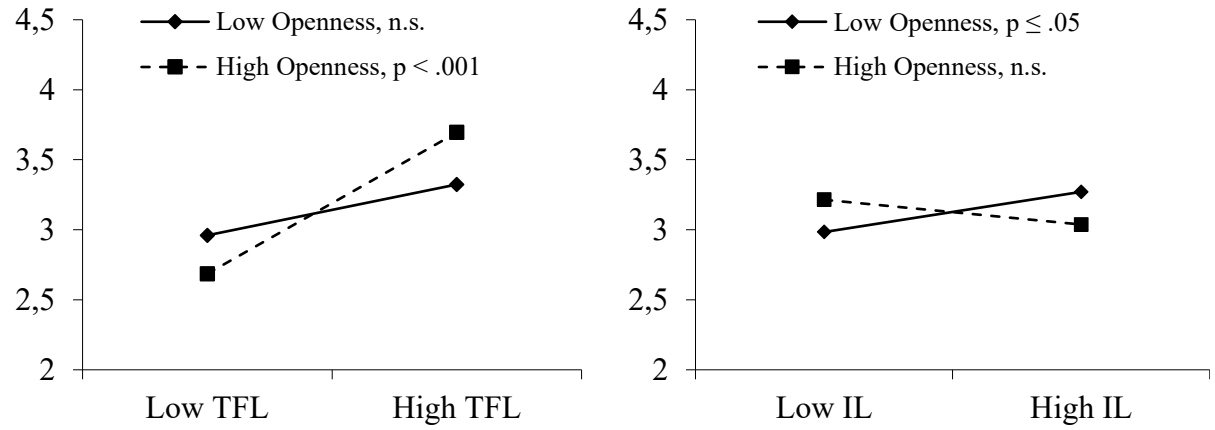


Figure 5. Interaction Effects of Transformational (TFL) and Instrumental Leadership (IL) and Openness to Change on Job Satisfaction and Affective Commitment.

For those scoring low on openness to change there was no significant relationship between TFL and either outcome (job satisfaction: simple slope = -.09, t = -.84, *ns*, *Mean* − 1 *SD*, affective commitment: simple slope = .13, t = 1.03, *ns*, *Mean* − 1 *SD*). In contrast, the relationship between IL and both outcomes was positive for employees scoring low on openness to change (job satisfaction: simple slope = .45, t = 3.97, p < .001, *Mean* – 1 *SD*; affective

commitment: simple slope =.24, t = 1.93, $p \leq .05$, *Mean* – 1 *SD*). For those scoring highly on openness to change, there was no significant relationship between IL and either outcome (job satisfaction: simple slope = -.04, t = -0.39, *ns*, *Mean* + 1 *SD*; affective commitment: simple slope = -0.16, t = -1.44, *ns*, *Mean* + 1 *SD*). Hence, Hypotheses 3a and 3b were accepted.

4.4.4 Supplementary Analyses

As a robustness check, I estimated an additional model in which I controlled for the influence of GLOBE's cultural dimensions of uncertainty avoidance, power distance, and in-group collectivism, as most frequently used cultural dimensions in research on organizational behavior (Triandis, 2004). Importantly, regarding the hypotheses, this analysis yielded the same significant main and interaction effects.

I also examined if the results changed by adding Hofstede's value dimensions of long-term orientation and controlling for Hofstede's other five dimensions. For this purpose, I specified Hofstede's value scores for every single country and re-run the regression analyses. These modifications also revealed only interaction effects of the individual openness values. Thus, even if a different cultural value framework was used, the effects on the individual level were stronger than the comparison between countries.

4.5 Discussion

The aim of this study was to investigate transformational and instrumental leadership's impact on job satisfaction and affective commitment in a multinational context. Moreover, to explore the influence of individual and collective openness values on these relationships across cultures. The study revealed three important results. Firstly, it confirmed that TFL and, partly, IL had culture-independent and positive effects on leadership outcomes. Secondly, it demonstrated that openness values at the individual level were more important for management results than differences between cultures. Thirdly, the study exposed that the effectiveness of

TFL and IL depends on the followers' individual openness values. Highly open followers were especially committed and satisfied to be led transformational, whereas followers placing less value on openness benefited most from instrumental leadership.

For the first hypothesis, the results indicated positive effects of both leadership styles on job satisfaction across all observed cultures. TFL also significantly predicted affective commitment. This supports the often-documented universality of TFL (Den Hartog et al., 1999) and gives first hints that IL may be an effective leader behavior across cultures to enhance followers' job satisfaction. In this study, I did not find the hypothesized direct effect of IL on affective commitment. Hence, while job satisfaction and affective commitment both represent an affective reaction to leadership, they differ in some ways. Job satisfaction consists of an emotional as well as a cognitive component (Illies & Judge, 2004), whereas affective commitment is solely the emotional component of organizational commitment, representing the followers' bond with the organization (Rhoades et al., 2001). As TFL is an emotional style based on values and socio-emotional interactions and IL is a pragmatic style with a primarily focus on organizational goals (Antonakis & House, 2014), it might be easier to build this bond with a transformational rather than an instrumental leader. As Rowold (2014) found a positive relationship of IL on affective commitment and the results of this study revealed a positive effect for less open followers, it is to be assumed that IL's effects on affective commitment might, thus, not be unconditional and depend on other criteria. But as there is no empirical evidence on moderators of instrumental leadership, future research is needed to evaluate these possibilities.

Future orientation at the national level did not moderate the relationship between both leadership styles and both outcomes. In the case of TFL, this is somewhat surprising, but could be due to the influences of other (cultural) characteristics. I controlled in supplementary analyses for further cultural values. But besides these static factors there might be more

dynamic impacts (e.g., political or financial turbulences) that influence leadership effectiveness in a country to a greater extent. As Taras, Steel, and Kirkman (2012) showed in a longitudinal meta-analysis, separate sets of Hofstede's cultural indices should be used for different time periods to address cultural change. Because of political and societal modifications over time, it may be important to review GLOBE's value scores critically and keep them "up to date", too.

At the same time, this leads to awareness that countries should be compared not just at the national level to detect differences or similarities in organizational behavior and that cultural value dimensions should not be relied upon as the only source for this comparison (see e.g., Taras, Steel, & Kirkman, 2016). The findings of this study confirm this point. In line with the third hypothesis, the results revealed that openness to change at the individual level moderates the relationship between TFL and IL and both outcomes. Thus, it is particularly important to test moderating influences in cross-cultural leadership at the individual level and not to focus solely on the differences between cultures.

4.5.1 Limitations and Future Research

In this study countries were grouped into project GLOBE's cultural clusters due to partly small sample size in single countries. This is a usual proceeding in intercultural research and reduces the problem of equating national boundaries with cultural boundaries (Elenkov, Judge, & Wright, 2005; Ronen & Shenkar, 2013). Nonetheless, for a follow-up study on individual values in a cross-cultural context, it would be preferable to compare members of one company with subsidiaries in different countries to keep cultural and organizational value imprints as consistent as possible. Further, although I conducted two measurement times, common source variance cannot be completely ruled out. To address this, future research needs to examine the same relationships, but should incorporate leadership ratings from multiple perspectives (e.g., colleague ratings) to assess the supervisor's leadership behavior more completely.

Another point to be considered is that TFL and IL were highly correlated in all samples. It is not unusual that leadership constructs are highly related, because they partly overlap (cf. Judge & Piccolo, 2004). It is also likely that the same manager uses in practice behaviors from various leadership styles depending on situational and contextual factors. For TFL and IL this is highly probable because they are complementing each other (e.g., articulating a vision as transformational and breaking down the company's vision into achievable tasks as instrumental part). Therefore, it is likely that the same manager will be perceived by followers as transformational as well as instrumental (or vice versa as neither transformational nor instrumental) leading to high correlations, although the constructs are theoretically distinct. As all multicollinearity indices were within acceptable ranges in the present study, I do not assess the high correlations as a critical point for the interpretation of the regression results. However, to address it, in follow-up studies research methods as multitrait-multimethod approaches should be applied.

Despite the limitations mentioned above, this study provides interesting findings for future research. A first suggestion is to focus more on IL as it is conceptualized as a necessary extension to the eFRLT (Antonakis & House, 2014), but has hardly been investigated empirically so far. The results revealed, that IL and TFL were highly correlated, but had different effects on the related outcome criteria job satisfaction and affective commitment. In future studies it would be interesting to shed more light on these differences in effects of IL. For example, by assessing, whether different effects can be replicated for strongly affective (e.g., trust, identification), cognitive (e.g., information sharing, learning), or behavioral criteria (e.g., engaging in prosocial behavior, quality and quantity of task performance). Secondly, it would be promising to investigate how followers' individual openness values moderate leadership effects on outcomes such as creativity, innovation or commitment to organizational change, because these criteria have a stronger direct link to openness values (e.g., Oreg et al.,

2008) and are also highly relevant for an organization's adaption to change (Martins & Terblanche, 2003). Finally, it would be interesting to shed more light on values in leadership research in general. For example, to see whether the effects of the other eFRLT leadership styles – transactional and laissez-faire – also depend on followers' openness or other types of values.

4.5.2 Practical Implications

As TFL and partly IL are effective across all cultures studied, managers in organizations should exhibit transformational as well as instrumental behaviors to lead successfully. In selecting its leaders, a company should choose applicants who demonstrate components of both styles (e.g., inspirational as well as strategic and task-facilitating skills). For leader development, companies should offer special training in TFL and IL. Training in TFL has already been demonstrated to affect both the degree of leaders' transformational behaviors and their followers' job performance positively (Kelloway et al., 2000). For IL no training has been evaluated so far. But as executive coaching and 360°-feedback has been shown to develop leadership skills effectively (Thach, 2002), this offers a suitable instrument to increase IL behaviors.

Importantly, to lead effectively, managers should be able to adopt instrumental and transformational behaviors to their followers' individual characteristics. The second major finding is that the individual value of openness to change has a higher impact on leadership than differences regarding the cultural background of employees. Accordingly, it is important that management practices not be carried out for specific cultures (i.e., a specific leadership style works best in one specific nationality). Focusing on employees' individual differences (e.g., the degree of openness values) seems to be more important for leading employees most effectively.

4.5.3 Conclusion

Besides the established leadership style TFL, the newly conceptualized and to date less researched leadership construct IL could be shown to be effective across three strongly different cultures. In addition, future orientation representing societal openness did not strengthen the effectiveness of TFL and IL, whereas openness to change at the individual level moderated both leadership styles. For highly open employees, a transformational leadership style promoted job satisfaction and organizational commitment in particular. In contrast, for less open employees, instrumental leadership seems to be more suitable to enhance both outcomes. These results confirm the importance of comparing leadership processes not just on a national level; researchers and practitioners should adopt a differentiated view of the individual level instead.

5 Study 3 – A Cross-Cultural Investigation of Individual- and Collective-Focused Transformational and Instrumental Leadership Behaviors

5.1 Introduction

Recent criticism of the operationalization of transformational leadership as well as improvements in leadership research indicate that collective-focused and individual-focused facets of transformational leadership affect leadership outcomes differently (Kunze, DeJong, & Bruch, 2016; Wu, Tsui, & Kinicki, 2010). These findings are an important step in leadership research but several theoretical questions and alternate explanations remain unsolved. For example, existing studies on collective-focused and individual-focused leadership refer exclusively to transformational leadership behaviors. Although it is certainly important to investigate transformational leadership in this way to address criticism of its overly broad conceptualization (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013), studies have not yet further clarified whether other leadership styles might benefit from this split and which micro-dynamics underlie these processes. Moreover, previous research has paid insufficient attention to ensuring the robustness of findings on collective- and individual-focused leadership in different cultural settings.

A leadership concept that suggests a dichotomy into more individual- and collective-focused dimensions is instrumental leadership. Antonakis and House (2002; 2004; 2014) added instrumental leadership as an important, although somewhat neglected, strategic extension to Bass's (1985) full-range of leadership theory. Within this extended full range of leadership theory, researchers regard transformational and instrumental leadership as the most active and effective styles augmenting transactional and laissez-faire leadership (Antonakis & House, 2014; Rowold, 2014). Instrumental leadership is theoretically categorized in two sub-dimensions. In the first dimension – strategic leadership – the leader engages in behaviors directed at the whole group or collective, whereas in the latter dimension – follower work-

facilitation – the leader adjusts his or her activities with regard to the individual follower. Thus, it might prove insightful to also investigate instrumental leadership from a dual perspective.

Leadership literature is further lacking an understanding of the micro-level dynamics of leadership. Thus far we know only little about the fine-grained social dynamics underlying leadership influences. In other words, we cannot say how leadership becomes effective (cf., Lehmann-Willenbrock, Meinecke, Rowold, & Kauffeld, 2016). We need more insights into concrete leader behaviors, such as communicative ones, which constitute up to 80 percent of a manager's daily work and are vital for putting leadership goals into action (Mintzberg, 1973; van Quaquebeke & Felps, 2018). To consider this point, I concentrate on the leader's communicator style – the way the leader communicates (Norton, 1983) – as an intermediator between the supervisor's leadership style and leadership outcomes on the follower's side. The leader's communicator style is, on the one hand, important for building interpersonal relationships between the supervisor and the followers (De Vries et al., 2010). On the other hand, it conveys goal orientation, stability, and enthusiasm for the leader's vision (Kitchen & Daly, 2002). Drawing on the dual perspective of leadership, I argue that leaders must engage in different communicator styles to cover both perspectives and efficaciously handle individual and collective leadership tasks.

In addition, with this study I answer Kunze et al.'s (2016) call to test the robustness of findings on individual-focused and collective-focused leadership behaviors in various cultural settings. Although Kunze et al. (2016) assumed their effects to be fairly robust at least across the Western world, they collected data only in Germany. Consequently, they call for future research to try to replicate results "in other cultural settings, for instance, by going beyond the Western cultures studied so far" (p. 909). Especially with regard to the dual perspective of leadership, culture – more specifically the degree of collectivism – might have a major impact on individual- and collective-focused leadership. Cultures differ in terms of collective-oriented

behaviors. Loyalty and group consensus are in the foreground in collectivistic cultures, whereas in individualistic cultures the focus lies on individual interests (Gelfand, Bhawuk, Nishii, & Bechtold, 2004). Thus, culture in terms of collectivism might moderate the aforementioned relationships.

The aim of the present study is to extend previous work on collective-focused and individual-focused leadership in three ways. I draw on the extended full-range of leadership theory (Antonakis & House, 2014) and combine it with results from the individual-focused and collective-focused leadership literature and findings on (leader's) communication behaviors. In the first instance, I expand the dual perspective to another type of leadership, namely instrumental leadership. Secondly, I shed light on the micro-level dynamics underlying collective- and individual-focused leadership influences by taking a differentiated view on transformational and instrumental leadership behaviors in combination with the leader's communicator style. Lastly, I address Kunze et al.'s (2016) call regarding the robustness of findings across cultures by testing the hypothesized model in 14 countries with different degrees of individualism and collectivism.

In this way, this study adds three key contributions to the leadership literature. First, it extends previous research by analyzing the usefulness of a dual perspective on leadership for transformational and for instrumental leadership behaviors. Second, it gives first insights into the mediating role of the supervisor's communicator style in leadership processes across cultures. This enables to draw conclusions about the dependence of a leader's effectiveness based on *what* he or she is saying and on *how* he or she is saying it. Third, this study helps to uncover the variation of the relationship between individual- and collective-focused leadership styles and communicator styles in individualistic and collectivistic cultures. For practitioners, this might help to gain knowledge about which combination of leadership and communicator styles should be practiced in collectivistic and individualistic cultures to lead successfully.

5.2 Theory and Hypotheses

5.2.1 Transformational and Instrumental Leadership

Transformational leadership is defined as "the process of influencing major changes in the attitudes and assumptions of organization members and building commitment for the organization's mission, objectives, and strategies" (Yukl, 1989: 269). It is composed of six distinctive behaviors: identifying and articulating a vision, providing an appropriate role model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, stimulating followers intellectually, providing individualized support, and expecting high performance (Podsakoff et al., 1990; 1996). *Instrumental leadership* is defined as "the application of leader expert knowledge on monitoring of the environment and of performance, and the implementation of strategic and tactical solutions" (Antonakis & House, 2014: 749). It consists of four sub-facets: environmental monitoring, strategy formulation and implementation, path-goal facilitation, and outcome monitoring. The first two facets – environmental monitoring and strategy formulation – are assigned to the higher-order component 'strategic leadership' and the two latter facets path-goal facilitation and outcome monitoring to the higher-order component 'follower work facilitation'.

Although both styles – especially transformational leadership – have been demonstrated to positively affect diverse organizational relevant outcomes (e.g., Antonakis & House, 2014; Harms, Credé, Tynan, Leon, & Jeung, 2017; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Rowold, 2014; Rowold, Diebig, & Heinitz, 2017), they have mostly been examined as higher-order constructs. Scholars criticized this too broad conceptualization in regards to transformational leadership (e.g., Deinert, Homan, Boer, Voelpel, & Gutermann, 2015; Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). Recent studies have consequently examined transformational leadership with a more differentiated view and shown that leader behaviors directed at the collective can have very different effects than behaviors directed at individuals (Wu, Tsui, & Kinicki, 2010; Kunze et al. 2016). The

existing studies on instrumental leadership also show no uniform effects for all facets. Rowold (2014), for example, found that environmental monitoring and strategy formulation only predicted objective performance, while path-goal facilitation was related to objective performance as well as job satisfaction and affective commitment. In his study, outcome monitoring was related neither to objective nor to subjective outcome criteria. Thus, for instrumental leadership a more fine-grained investigation might be conceivable as well.

5.2.2 Collective- and Individual-Focused Transformational and Instrumental leadership

Building on Kark and Shamir's (2002) idea that transformational leadership influences two levels of the followers' self-concept – the relational and the collective self – Wu et al. (2010) divided the original transformational leadership conception into two sub-components. These two components accord to the *focus* of leadership behaviors: directed towards the whole group as a collective or towards the individual follower (Wang et al., 2011). In the following, these two sides will be referred to as "collective-focused" and "individual-focused" leadership behaviors. This understanding is distinct from that of differentiated/differential leadership (e.g., Wang et al., 2016; Zhou et al., 2016), as it does not focus on the variety of follower ratings within a team for the same leader. It is also distinct from collective leadership, which is defined as a sharing of leadership responsibilities among team members (Hiller et al., 2006; Contractor et al., 2012).

Collective-focused leadership means that a leader engages in leadership behaviors directed toward the whole group or collective that are targeted at creating a shared understanding. For *transformational leadership*, this includes articulating a vision and fostering the acceptance of group goals. 'Identifying and articulating a vision' aims at developing and communicating an inspiring picture of the future for the collective entity (e.g., unit, division, company) by applying emotional speeches, symbols, slogans, or rituals. 'Fostering the

acceptance of group goals' refers to leader behaviors that promote cooperation among employees and get them to work together toward a common goal (Podsakoff et al., 1990).

For *instrumental leadership*, the strategic sub-facets environmental monitoring and strategy formulation are focused on the collective rather than on single followers, as they concern all team members in the same way. 'Environmental monitoring' means that the leader scans the organizational environment to identify chances for development. By doing so, he or she is aware of the organization's strengths and weaknesses and identifies risks and opportunities for all members. After successfully engaging in environmental monitoring, the leader formulates and implements a strategy for the work group. 'Strategy formulation and implementation' refers, thus, to leader actions focusing on the development of goals, policies, and objectives for supporting the strategic vision and mission of the whole organization (Antonakis & House, 2014; Rowold, 2014). All these components strive towards building, communicating, and executing collective goals and are directed to all followers in the same way. In this study, I therefore define collective-focused transformational leadership as the leader's articulating a vision and fostering the acceptance of group goals, and collective-focused instrumental leadership as environmental monitoring and strategy formulation.

Individual-focused leadership originates from relationship-based approaches to leadership (e.g., leader-member-exchange theory, Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). These approaches claim that leaders have to adjust their leadership behaviors with regard to contextual factors as well as their employees' individual characteristics. Previous research shows that the *transformational leadership* facets 'providing individualized support' and 'intellectual stimulation' strongly focus on individual strength and needs (e.g., Kunze et al., 2016). 'Providing individualized support' refers to behaviors that indicate the supervisor's respect and concern for the personal feelings and needs of the followers. In this way, the leader considers the follower's individual situation and supplies supplementary encouragement in case it is

needed. ‘Intellectual stimulation’ is targeted at challenging followers to rethink their assumptions and ways of performing work and to develop new ideas for solving work-related problems (Podsakoff et al., 1990).

Of *instrumental leadership*, the facilitating facets path-goal facilitation and outcome monitoring are particularly directed towards the individual. ‘Path-goal facilitation’ is based on House’s (1971) path-goal theory. It consists of supportive leader behaviors to assist followers with day-to-day difficulties by providing direction, support, and resources, removing obstacles, and clarifying how followers can accomplish their individual work-related goals (Rowold, 2014). ‘Outcome monitoring’ involves the leader’s provision of performance-enhancing feedback for the follower’s goal attainment. This feedback is constructive, timely during the actual work process, and exclusively relevant for the current task of the individual follower (Antonakis & House, 2014; Rowold, 2014). All these theoretical distinct leader behaviors have in common that leaders must account for individual characteristics, capabilities, and needs. Transformational leadership accounts for socio-emotional needs and instrumental leadership for structural needs to help followers to reach their work-goals. Subsequently, I define individual-focused transformational leadership as providing intellectual stimulation and individualized support and individual-focused instrumental leadership as path-goal facilitation and outcome monitoring. In line with Kunze et al. (2016), I do not assign ‘high-performance expectation’ and ‘providing an appropriate model’ to individual- or collective-focused leadership, as they are neither entirely collective- nor individual-focused.

5.2.3 The Role of the Leader’s Communicator Style

Leadership effectiveness has been broadly linked with communication effectiveness (van Quaquebeke & Felps, 2018). Conger and Kanungo (1998: 54) state, for example, that to be charismatic leaders “not only need to have visions and plans for achieving them but also must be able to articulate their visions and strategies for action in effective ways as to influence

their followers". To shed light on these micro level dynamics underlying leadership processes, I focus on the leader's communicator style as an intermediator between the supervisor's leadership style and leadership outcomes on the follower's side. Norton (1978: 99) defines the communicator style as "the way one verbally and paraverbally interacts to signal how literal meaning should be taken, interpreted, filtered, or understood." This way of interacting can be for instance in an attentive, friendly, dominant, or impression-leaving fashion. As such, the communicator style gives form to the literal meaning of what is being said.

De Vries et al. (2010: 368) also define a leader's communication style as "distinctive set of interpersonal communicative behaviors" but link these directly to the leadership role as they are "geared toward the optimization of hierarchical relationships in order to reach certain group or individual goals". They distinguish interpersonal components of leadership, which are connected with communication activities in interpersonal relations, and managerial components of leadership, which are subject to non-interpersonal activities (e.g., decision-making, organizing, planning, controlling). They conclude that interpersonal components of leadership consist to a large extent of relational communication attributes to convey interpersonal concern and familiarity, while managerial components of leadership are much more saturated with the informational content provided instead of communication attributes or the communicator style (De Vries et al., 2010). In accordance with these findings, I assume that differences may exist in the relations between collective- and individual-focused aspects of leadership and the leader's communicator style. However, unlike De Vries et al. (2010) I argue that the leader's communicator style is important for handling individual- and collective-focused aspects of leadership – with a priority on different communication attributes.

Collective-oriented leader behaviors are directed toward the whole group or collective and are targeted to create a shared understanding, such as by formulating and implementing a strategy for the whole workgroup or communicating a collective vision to all team members.

Research shows that the articulation of visions is lively and impressive (Antonakis, Cianciolo & Sternberg, 2004, Rowold & Rohmann, 2008). Communicators with an impression-leaving communicator style are often perceived as especially charismatic, capture the attention of their audience, and remain in memory of others (Cohrs et al. 2016). Thus, I assume the impression-leaving communicator style to be positively related to collective-focused transformational and instrumental leader behaviors, like conveying goal orientation, stability, or enthusiasm for a collective vision.

Individual-focused leader behaviors concern the relation to the individual follower by providing idiosyncratic benefits to followers, such as by supplying individualized support or facilitating the individual follower on his or her path to the fulfillment of work goals. A stable and trusting relationship between the followers and the leader is important for these types of leadership (Nielsen & Daniels, 2011). Friendly communicators tend to encourage others in conversations and thereby mediate a feeling of familiarity. They often empower others in what they say and are treated as very pleasant conversational partners. Moreover, a friendly communication style is related with leadership and sociability (Cohrs et al., 2016). Therefore, I assume a friendly communicator style to be positively related to a leader's individual-focused transformational and instrumental behaviors. Based on these findings, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1a. The collective-focused leadership dimensions of transformational and instrumental leadership relate positively to an impression-leaving communicator style.

Hypothesis 1b. The individual-focused leadership dimensions of transformational and instrumental leadership relate positively to a friendly communicator style.

To examine the effects the leadership dimensions and the communicator styles have on organizational relevant outcome criteria, I focus on job satisfaction – the overall evaluative judgement one has about one's job (Weiss, 2002). Job satisfaction is one of the most important

outcomes in work and organizational psychology (Judge, Weiss, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Hulin, 2017). It has a positive effect on work performance (Riketta, 2008), and is easily to assess and compare in different languages and cultures. Leaders have the ability to promote their followers' job satisfaction through their behaviors as has already been confirmed for transformational (cf., Judge, Piccolo, & Illies, 2004; Sturm et al., 2011) as well as instrumental leadership (Antonakis & House, 2014; Rowold, 2014). These previous studies showed all facets of both instrumental and transformational leadership as positively correlated with job satisfaction. Thus, I assume positive relationships between the individual- as well as collective-focused transformational and instrumental dimensions and job satisfaction in this study.

However, previous research has not yet comprehensively clarified which type of communication can increase job satisfaction. A validation study of Norton's Communicator Style Measure in Germany shows positive interrelations between the friendly communicator style ($r = .38$, $p < .01$) as well as the impression-leaving communicator style ($r = .32$, $p < .01$) and job satisfaction as an external criterion (Cohrs et al., 2016). Moreover, a friendly communicator style builds relationships and an impression-leaving communicator style produces recognition and admiration for the leader, which in turn should lead to a positive overall evaluative judgement of one's job. Therefore, I assume:

> *Hypothesis 2. The collective- and individual-focused leadership dimensions of transformational and instrumental leadership, an impression-leaving communicator style, and a friendly communicator style positively relate to job satisfaction.*

The previously developed hypotheses indicate that the collective-focused leadership dimensions of transformational and instrumental leadership positively relate to an impression-leaving communicator style (Hypothesis 1a), whereas the individual-focused leadership dimensions of transformational and instrumental leadership positively relate to a friendly communicator style (Hypothesis 1b). I further hypothesized, that both communicator styles

enhance the followers' job satisfaction (Hypothesis 2). Therefore, I posit two mediation routes from the collective-focused, respectively individual-focused, leadership dimensions via the communicator styles on job satisfaction:

Hypothesis 3a. The collective-focused leadership dimensions of transformational and instrumental leadership indirectly and positively relate to job satisfaction via the mediation of the impression-leaving communicator style.

Hypothesis 3b. The individual-focused leadership dimensions of transformational and instrumental leadership indirectly and positively relate to job satisfaction via the mediation of the friendly communicator style.

5.2.4 Collectivism as Moderator

I have so far hypothesized that collective-focused transformational and instrumental leadership leads to job satisfaction, because the leader communicates in an impression-leaving way. Moreover, individual-focused transformational and instrumental leadership positively affects the follower's job satisfaction, because the leader communicates in a friendly manner. However, I have so far not considered whether cultural differences affect these relationships, as noted in the introduction section. A key cultural moderator that might affect the before mentioned processes is the value dimension of Individualism/ Collectivism (in the following referred to as "Collectivism"). Although there are modifications in the concrete definition of Collectivism (cf., Hofstede, 1980; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Schwartz, 1994; Triandis, 1989), they all relate to "the extent to which people are autonomous individuals or embedded in their groups" (Gelfand et al., 2004: 440).

Cultures differ in terms of collective oriented behaviors, which also affect perceptions of leadership (Brewer & Chen, 2007). In collectivistic cultures (e.g., China, Russia, Cameroon), employees value the importance of collective interests, consensus and loyalty over individual

goals (Triandis, 1995). They express this by going beyond self-interests towards group goals (Hofstede, 1980) and seeing themselves as totally part of the group (Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003). Charismatic leadership is highly valued, leader prototypes reflect cultural values of interdependence, collaboration, and self-effacement, and leaders emphasize group maintenance activities (Gelfand et al., 2004). In individualistic cultures (e.g., the U.S., Germany, France) each team member's ideas are considered important (Lehmann-Willenbrock & Kauffeld, 2010), leader prototypes reflect cultural values of independence, a strong will, and forcefulness, and leadership behaviors tend to focus more on tasks than on group maintenance by emphasizing individual discretion and task accomplishment (Gelfand et al., 2004). Thus, I assume that the collective-oriented transformational and instrumental leadership behaviors work particularly well in collectivistic cultures, whereas the individual-focused behaviors of both styles are perceived as fitting behaviors in individualistic cultures. Therefore, I assume:

Hypothesis 4a. The collective-focused leadership dimensions of transformational and instrumental leadership relate more strongly to job satisfaction in collectivistic cultures.

Hypothesis 4b. The individual-focused leadership dimensions of transformational and instrumental leadership relate more strongly to job satisfaction in individualistic cultures.

In addition, I assume that the relationships between leadership and communicator styles also depend on the degree of collectivism. Research on language and communication shows that people in collectivistic cultures generally tend to be more indirect in their communication (Holtgraves, 1997; Jonasson & Lauring, 2011). Moreover, members of collectivistic cultures have greater self-disclosure, more perceived similarity, and more shared networks (Gudykunst et al., 1992). In consequence, group cohesion is important in collectivistic cultures. As said before, people with an impression-leaving communication style remain in memory of others and stand out (Norton, 1983; Cohrs et al. 2016). Therefore, an impression-leaving

communicator might be perceived as unpleasant because he stands out from the collective. For this reason, I assume that collective leadership in collective cultures works better per se (as hypothesized in H4a), but is less related with an impression-leaving way of communication.

In contrast, members of individualistic cultures generally tend to communicate in a direct and straightforward manner (Holtgraves, 1997; Gelfand et al., 2004). They have a greater ability to modify their self-presentation, are more sensitive to others' expressive behaviors and pay more attention to their interaction partner's status (Gudykunst et al., 1992). Accordingly, people in individualistic cultures might be better able to present themselves and are more sensitive to the self-expression of others. Moreover, they are used to seeing people promote themselves and communicate straightforwardly. Therefore, I assume that the relationship between collective leadership dimensions and the impression-leaving communicator style is particularly strong in individualistic cultures. Therefore, I posit:

> *Hypothesis 5a. The positive relationship between the collective-focused dimensions of transformational and instrumental leadership and the impression-leaving communicator style is more pronounced in individualistic cultures.*

As said before, people in collectivistic cultures generally tend to be more indirect in their communication. Moreover, they emphasize closeness and harmony. Maintaining relationships between the supervisor and the followers is an important aspect of leadership (Gelfand et al., 2004). Therefore, it is to be assumed that followers in collectivistic cultures put emphasis on the supervisor's kindness and value a positive relationship. In individualistic cultures, communication is direct and straightforward (Peltokorpi, 2007). Followers want their individual interests to be respected, but it is less important that the support is packaged in friendly words, since relational aspects of leadership focus in these cultures more on task fulfillment than on in-group maintenance (Gelfand et al., 2004). Therefore, I assume that while the individual facets of leadership work better in individualistic cultures (see H4b), their

mediation through friendly communication is less important. In contrast, this relationship-building aspect might be particularly important in collectivistic cultures. I thus assume:

Hypothesis 5b. The positive relationship between the individual-focused dimensions of transformational and instrumental leadership and the friendly communicator styles is more pronounced in collectivistic cultures.

Figure 6 illustrates the hypothesized model of relationships across the study variables.

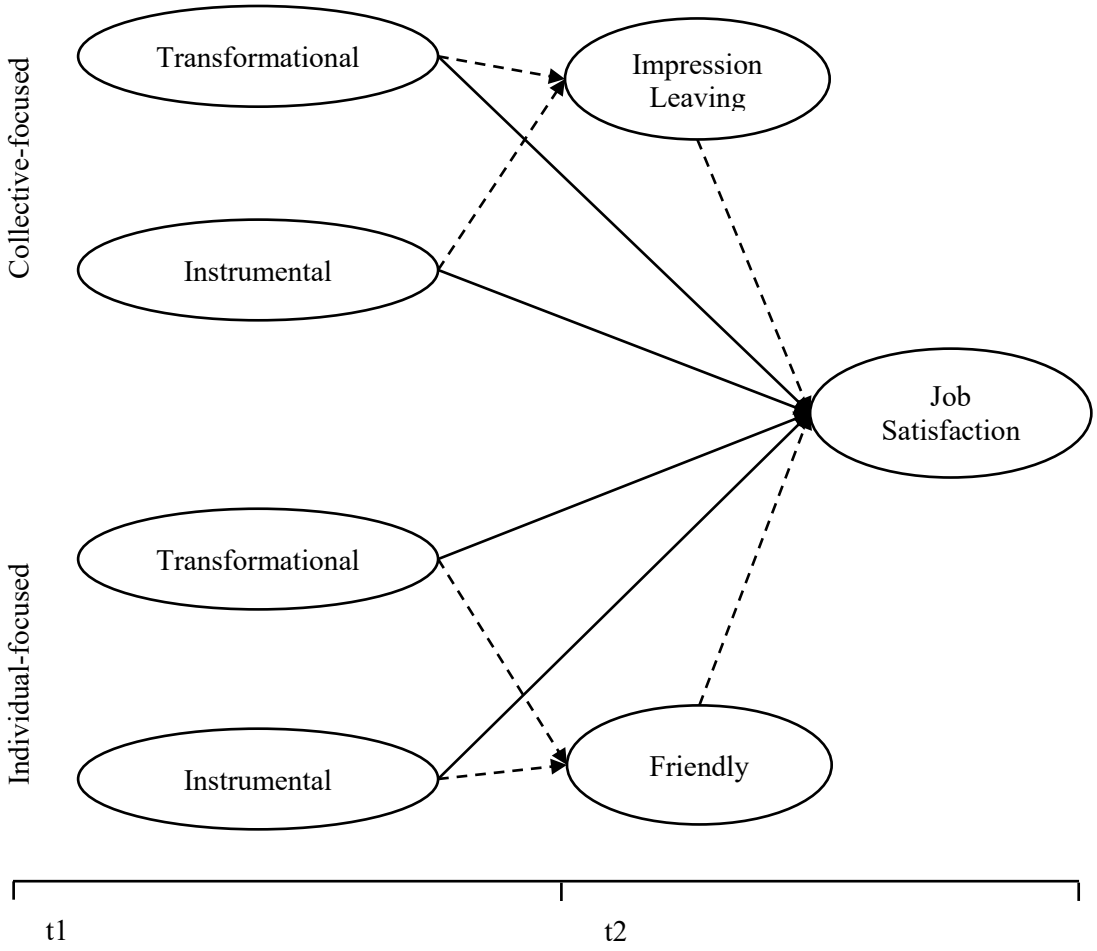


Figure 6. Hypothesized Model of Relationships.

5.3.1 Sample and Procedure

In total 5,284 employees working in Brazil ($N = 285$), Cameroon ($N = 160$), China ($N = 429$), France ($N = 215$), Georgia ($N = 82$), Germany ($N = 2,481$), India ($N = 44$), Iran ($N = 241$), Poland ($N = 546$), Russia ($N = 229$), Spain ($N = 69$), Switzerland ($N = 73$), Turkey ($N = 245$), United Arab Emirates ($N = 100$) took part in this study. Nearly all (> 90.0%) respondents worked in the country of their birth. Table 13 shows demographics for all samples.

Data was collected from November 2014 to January 2018 with online surveys at two times (t1: independent variables; t2 – four weeks later: mediator and dependent variable). This procedure is recommended by Chang, van Witteloostuijn, and Eden (2010) as a possible way of reducing common method variance in cross-cultural research. The t1- and t2-parts of the surveys were matched by individual codes when data collection was complete. To collect the data, research assistants with cultural origins in the respective country sent an email link to the questionnaire to colleagues, relatives, and friends with active employment in this country. Research assistants were 22 master students (business administration and economics) who recruited participants as part of their thesis in the field of international management as well as three student assistants of the department. At t1 participants evaluated their direct supervisor's leadership style as well as demographics, and organizational and work-related information (e.g., working time, sector). Moreover, participants could voluntarily provide an email address to be contacted for the second part of the survey. The average response rate to the t1 request was 35.5% and 53.0% for the t2 request.

Table 13. Respondents' Demographic Information.

	Collectivistic Cultures $N = 1{,}835$							
	Cameroon $N = 160$	China $N = 429$	Georgia $N = 82$	India $N = 44$	Poland $N = 546$	Russia $N = 229$	Turkey $N = 245$	UAE $N = 100$
Language [a)]	French	Mandarin	Georgian	English	Polish	Russian	Turkish	Arabian
INC[f)] (GLOBE)	4.14[d)]	4.77	4.03	4.38	4.53	4.50	4.03	4.50
Individualism (Hofstede)	15	20	-	48	60	39	37	25
Gender								
Female	34.2%	53.6 %	64.6 %	16.3 %	71.7 %	48.9 %	51.5 %	72.0 %
Male	65.8%	46.4 %	35.4 %	83.7 %	28.3 %	51.1 %	48.5 %	28.0 %
Age	31.2 (7.9)	32.9 (11.0)	35.3 (9.7)	31.6 (10.2)	30.8 (11.0)	37.5 (9.8)	36.1 (15.6)	29.0 (5.4)
Education [b)]								
Sec School	23.2%	7.2 %	1.2 %	25.0 %	4.7 %	10.4 %	11.7 %	3.3 %
College	33.3%	8.8 %	98.8 %	0.0 %	30.7 %	7.2 %	22.2 %	7.7 %
University	43.4%	84.0 %	-	75.0 %	64.6 %	82.4 %	66.1 %	89.0 %
Working Time								
Full-time	70.3%	89.0 %	86.6 %	-	70.0 %	93.3 %	87.3 %	81.3 %
Part-time	29.7%	11.0 %	13.4 %	-	30.0 %	6.7 %	12.7 %	18.7 %
Tenure	5.7 (6.1)	9.6 (10.9)	-	7.2 (5.1)	5.5 (6.4)	8.4 (7.5)	7.0 (7.5)	4.3 (4.0)
Sector [f)]								
Manufacturing	10.1 %	31.0 %	4.9 %	100 %	11.5 %	27.5 %	31.9 %	-
Trade	14.6 %	11.2 %	11.0 %	-	26.4 %	-	9.3 %	-
Banking [c)]	8.2 %	3.1 %	14.6 %	-	4.9 %	-	12.7 %	-
Consulting	1.9 %	1.9 %	4.9 %	-	1.2 %	-	2.5 %	-
Tourism	14.6 %	3.5 %	4.9 %	-	3.7 %	-	8.3 %	-
Healthcare	5.7 %	1.2 %	2.4 %	-	6.2 %	-	14.7 %	-
Public Admin.	14.6 %	15.1 %	14.6 %	-	5.6 %	-	8.8 %	-
Others	30.4 %	32.9 %	42.7 %	-	40.6 %	72.5 %	11.8 %	-
Gender $_{\text{Supervisor}}$								
Female	32.9 %	19.9 %	36.6 %	2.3 %	46.6 %	26.3 %	35.3 %	92.3 %
Male	67.1 %	80.1 %	63.4 %	97.7 %	53.4 %	73.7 %	64.7 %	7.7 %
Age (years) $_{\text{Supervisor}}$	41.5 (7.8)	42.7 (8.1)	-	49.8 (6.7)	-	39.6 (7.8)	44.7 (8.8)	39.5 (5.8)

	Individualistic Cultures *N* = 3,364					
	Brazil *N* = 285	France *N* = 215	Germany *N* = 2,481	Iran *N* = 241	Spain *N* = 69	Switzerland *N* = 73
Language [a)]	Portugese	French	German	Farsi	Spanish	German
INC [f)] (GLOBE)	3.83	3.93	3.79	3.88	3.85	4.06
Individualism (Hofstede)	38	71	67	41	51	68
Gender						
Female	50.2 %	47.0 %	54.1 %	57.5 %	58.5 %	41.7 %
Male	49.8 %	53.0 %	45.9 %	42.5 %	41.5 %	58.3 %
Age	32.5 (9.5)	33.2 (6.3)	35.0 (12.5)	35.1 (11.1)	31.3 (9.3)	40.3 (12.5)
Education [b)]						
Sec School	17.9 %	1.4 %	17.7 %	4.6 %	14.1 %	48.6 %
College	11.6 %	3.8 %	28.2 %	16.3 %	7.7 %	16.7 %
University	70.5 %	94.8 %	54.2 %	79.1 %	78.2 %	34.7 %
Working Time						
Full-time	65.3 %	84.4 %	66.6 %	78.3 %	76.1 %	83.1 %
Part-time	34.7 %	15.6 %	33.4 %	21.7 %	23.9 %	16.9 %
Tenure	7.2 (8.6)	5.3 (4.9)	10.0 (10.4)	7.4 (7.4)	13.9 (9.6)	
Sector [f)]						
Manufacturing	21.1 %	-	18.1 %	12.0 %	20.7 %	8.3%
Trade	11.3 %	-	15.8 %	10.0 %	5.0 %	75.0 %
Banking [c)]	6.7 %	-	18.3 %	5.0 %	2.1 %	9.7 %
Consulting	4.2 %	-	1.6 %	4.1 %	4.3 %	-
Tourism	6.3 %	-	3.0 %	3.7 %	15.0 %	-
Healthcare	11.3 %	-	5.4 %	13.7 %	5.0 %	-
Public Admin.	10.2 %	-	15.7 %	27.0 %	2.9 %	9.7 %
Others	28.9 %	-	22.1 %	24.5 %	45.0 %	6.9 %
Gender $_{\text{Supervisor}}$						
Female	28.4 %	14.0 %	29.7 %	29.9 %	27.3 %	16.7 %
Male	71.6 %	86.0 %	70.3 %	70.1 %	72.7 %	83.3 %
Age (years) $_{\text{Superv.}}$	45.6 (11.1)	46.2 (8.5)	44.4 (8.1)	44.3 (9.8)	51.3 (9.6)	49.4 (6.7)

Note. Missing of 100 % did not provide information. a) Language of the questionnaire, b) I used country-specific equivalents for educational institutions in every country, c) Banking and Insurance, d) Level = Management level, e) Age and tenure in years, SD in brackets, f) INC = Institutional Collectivism Scores of project GLOBE

5.3.2 Measures

Data was collected with validated surveys in the local language. A professional agency translated the questionnaires into the respective language (Arabic, Georgian, German, Farsi, French, Mandarin, Polish, Portuguese, Russian, Spanish, Turkish) if no validated version preexisted. In Cameroon and India, the data was gathered with questionnaires in the second official language French (Cameroon) or English (India) due to various native language dialects. The semantic and conceptual conformity of all versions used was confirmed by research assistants who were native speakers in the respective language and fluent in English (Brislin, 1980). For all scales, a response format ranging from 1 – "I strongly disagree" – to 5 – "I strongly agree" was used.

Transformational Leadership. Transformational leadership was assessed by using 22 items of the Transformational Leadership Inventory (TLI, Podsakoff et al., 1990; 1996). For the German sample, Rowold and Heinitz's (2007) validated version was used. The TLI measures transformational leadership through six facets: identifying and articulating a vision (AV; 5 items; sample item: "My supervisor paints an interesting picture of the future for our group."); fostering the acceptance of group goals (FAG; 4 items; e.g., "My supervisor gets the group to work together towards the same goal."); high performance expectations (HPE; 3 items; e.g., "My supervisor will not settle for second best."); providing an appropriate model (PAM; 3 items; e.g., "My supervisor leads by example."); providing individualized support (IS; 4 items; e.g., "My supervisor behaves in a manner thoughtful of my personal needs."); and intellectual stimulation (ISN; 3 items; e.g., "My supervisor has stimulated me to rethink the way I do things."). Based on the facets' either collective or individual focus, I assigned AV and FAG to the category "collective-focused TFL" and IS, and ISN to the category "individual-focused TFL". As shown in the diagonal of Table 14, the collective- as well as individual-focused facets show acceptable to good degrees of internal consistency (α = .80 - .93) in all samples.

Instrumental Leadership. Participants rated their direct leader's instrumental leadership behavior on Antonakis and House's (2004) 16-item scale. Instrumental leadership consists of four facets: strategy formulation (SF; 4 items, e.g., "My supervisor develops specific policies to support his/her vision"), environmental monitoring (EM; 4 items; e.g., "My supervisor capitalizes on opportunities presented by the external environment"), path-goal facilitation (PGF; 4 items; e.g., "My supervisor ensures that I have sufficient resources to reach my goals"), and outcome monitoring (OM; 4 items; e.g., "My supervisor helps me correct my mistakes"). Based on Antonakis and House's (2014) categorization of IL in the two sub-dimensions 'strategic leadership' and 'follower work facilitation' as well as the group or individual focus of the facets, I assigned SF and EM to the category "collective-focused IL" and PGF, and OM to the category "individual-focused IL". The collective- as well as individual-focused facets display good internal consistency with Cronbach's α, ranging between .85 and .94.

Communicator Style. Norton's (1983) communicator style measure (CSM) was used to assess the followers' perception of their supervisor's friendly (3 items, e.g., "My supervisor tends to be very encouraging to people whenever he/ she communicates.") and impression-leaving (3 items; e.g., "My supervisor leaves a definite impression on people.") communicator style. I used a validated version (CSM-D) of Cohrs et al. (2016) for the German sample. The internal consistencies for both styles were in a satisfactory range (impression-leaving, α = .80 - .86, friendly, α = .66 - .69).

Job Satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured by using translated versions of the eight items from Neuberger and Allerbeck's (1978) validated job descriptive questionnaire. A sample item is "I am satisfied with my leader." Cronbach's α ranged between .85 and .87.

5.3.3 Data Analyses

I analyzed all hypotheses with structural equation modeling (SEM) techniques using Mplus 7.3 (Muthen & Muthen, 1998-2014). To avoid confounding the results, I analyzed measurement models and structural models separately (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Since the sample consists of 14 countries as Level 2 units and the ICC of the dependent variable was < 10% indicating less variance between the countries I were unable to calculate multilevel SEM with unbiased estimators (Maas & Hox, 2005). Therefore, I tested the hypotheses with multi-group SEM as an alternative and powerful approach for testing similarities and differences between countries (Feskens & Hox, 2011; Ryu & Cheong, 2017).

Before running the analyses, I split the sample by the degree of GLOBE's Institutional Collectivism (INC) practice scores in 'individualistic' or 'collectivistic' culture. I focus on GLOBE's INC scores, because they relate to groups in economic systems and leaders and not primarily to family, as GLOBE's In-Group Collectivism scores do (Brewer & Venaik, 2011). Finally, I assigned Germany, Brazil, Spain, Iran, Switzerland, and France to the group 'individualistic culture', and China, Russia, Poland, Georgia, Turkey, the United Arab Emirates, Cameroon, and India to the group ‚collectivistic culture' (cf. Table 13).

After grouping the countries, I controlled for measurement equivalence between the two subgroups individualistic vs. collectivistic culture with a step-up approach following Brown (2015). In a first step, I ran two confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) to test the measurement model in both subgroups separately to check for configural measurement invariance. In a second step, I accounted for metric measurement invariance by testing the baseline model with multi-group CFAs using the Mplus command 'model = configural metric scalar'. To analyze the proposed moderated mediation effects I applied multi-group SEM analyses following the recommendations of Stride (2008, 2009, 2010, 2014) as well as Kleinke, Schlüter, and Christ

(2017). I chose maximum likelihood as estimation method and performed 5.000 bootstrapping replications to test the indirect effects (Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

5.4 Results

5.4.1 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Table 14 presents means (*M*), standard deviations (*SD*), correlations, and internal consistencies (Cronbach´s α) for the total sample. Table 15 presents these statistics for the two subsamples. The TFL facet of high performance expectation (HPE) is only weakly correlated with TFL's collective-focused ($r = .38$, $p < .001$) as well as individual-focused sub-dimension ($r = .16$, $p < .001$). In contrast, providing an appropriate model (PAM) highly correlates with TFL's individual-focused ($r = .74$, $p < .001$) as well as collective-focused sub-dimension ($r = .80$, $p < .001$). These results are in line with the findings of other scholars (e.g., Kunze, de Jong, & Bruch, 2016; Wu et al., 2010), that HPE and PAM cannot clearly be assigned to one of the two categories. As can be seen in Table 14 and 15, TFL's collective-focused facets correlate to a greater extent with both IL sub-dimensions than TFL's individual-focused facets. However, as expected, in all samples TFL's collective-focused facets correlate more strongly with IL's collective-focused facets than IL's individual-focused facets. Likewise, TFL's individual-focused facets correlate more strongly with IL's individual-focused than IL's collective-focused facets (see Table 14).

Table 14. Means (*M*), Standard Deviations (*SD*), Internal Consistencies (α) and Correlations for the Total Sample.

	Total Sample (N = 5,137)			Correlations															
	M	*SD*	#	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. av	3.36	0.97	5	(.88)																
2. fag	3.57	1.01	4	.79**	(.88)															
3. is	3.46	0.98	4	.52**	.58**	(.81)														
4. isn	3.31	1.02	3	.73**	.67**	.47**	(.82)													
5. pam	3.36	1.04	3	.76**	.74**	.58**	.69**	(.81)												
6. hpe	3.61	0.86	3	.41**	.30**	.00	.31**	.26**	(.65)											
7.em	3.77	0.87	4	.65**	.63**	.47**	.55**	.63**	.26**	(.84)										
8. str	3.51	0.97	4	.72**	.66**	.42**	.60**	.67**	.34**	.72**	(.89)									
9. pgf	3.31	0.99	4	.68**	.67**	.53**	.61**	.69**	.22**	.65**	.68**	(.89)								
10. fe	3.50	1.02	4	.66**	.67**	.55**	.65**	.68**	.22**	.66**	.68**	.78**	(.91)							
11. TLc	3.46	0.93	9	.96**	.94**	.58**	.74**	.80**	.38**	.68**	.74**	.71**	.70**	(.93)						
12. TLi	3.40	0.86	7	.72**	.72**	.89**	.82**	.74**	.16**	.59**	.58**	.66**	.69**	.76**	(.84)					
13. ILc	3.64	0.85	8	.74**	.70**	.48**	.62**	.70**	.33**	.92**	.94**	.72**	.72**	.76**	.63**	(.91)				
14. ILi	3.40	0.95	8	.71**	.71**	.57**	.67**	.73**	.23**	.69**	.72**	.94**	.95**	.75**	.71**	.76**	(.94)			
15. imp	3.50	0.91	3	.45**	.39**	.24**	.40**	.42**	.28**	.41**	.41**	.39**	.41**	.45**	.36**	.45**	.43**	(.83)		
16. fri	3.21	0.87	3	.48**	.48**	.41**	.42**	.48**	.13**	.43**	.43**	.47**	.47**	.50**	.48**	.46**	.50**	.53**	(.68)	
17. js	3.49	0.76	8	.42**	.41**	.37**	.37**	.42**	.14**	.41**	.39**	.41**	.41**	.44**	.43**	.43**	.44**	.40**	.44**	(.86)

Note. N = 5.137, internal consistency coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) are reported in parentheses on the diagonal.

av = identifying and articulating a vision, fag = fostering the acceptance of group goals, is = individualized support, isn = intellectual stimulation, pam = providing an appropriate model, hpe = high performance expectations, em = environmental monitoring, str = strategy, pgf = path-goal facilitation, fe = feedback, TLc = collective-focused transformational leadership, TLi = individual-focused transformational leadership, ILc = collective-focused instrumental leadersip, Ili = individual-focused instrumental leadership, # = number of items

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

Table 15. Means (*M*), Standard Deviations (*SD*), Internal Consistencies (α) and Correlations for Collectivistic and Individualistic Cultures.

	Collectivistic (*N* = 2,043)			Individualistic (*N* = 3,116)			Correlations													
	M	SD	α	M	SD	α	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. av	3.48	0.99	0.88	3.29	0.94	0.88		.77**	.52**	.70**	.61**	.71**	.65**	.62**	.95**	.70**	.72**	.67**	.42**	.42**	.35**
2. fag	3.63	1.00	0.87	3.53	1.02	0.89	.81**		.61**	.63**	.61**	.64**	.65**	.65**	.93**	.72**	.68**	.69**	.36**	.46**	.36**
3. is	3.39	0.92	0.70	3.51	1.02	0.87	.55**	.55**		.45**	.47**	.41**	.55**	.55**	.59**	.89**	.48**	.58**	.20**	.41**	.36**
4. isn	3.45	1.01	0.78	3.22	1.02	0.84	.77**	.73**	.52**		.51**	.56**	.58**	.62**	.71**	.81**	.58**	.64**	.38**	.36**	.31**
5. em	3.78	0.90	0.84	3.77	0.84	0.84	.71**	.67**	.48**	.61**		.70**	.64**	.65**	.65**	.57**	.91**	.68**	.39**	.40**	.38**
6. str	3.63	0.98	0.88	3.43	0.97	0.89	.73**	.70**	.46**	.66**	.76**		.67**	.66**	.72**	.55**	.93**	.70**	.39**	.39**	.32**
7. pgf	3.35	1.05	0.90	3.28	0.95	0.89	.72**	.70**	.53**	.66**	.67**	.70**		.79**	.69**	.66**	.71**	.94**	.34**	.42**	.36**
8. fe	3.54	1.04	0.90	3.47	1.00	0.92	.71**	.70**	.55**	.69**	.67**	.71**	.78**		.67**	.68**	.71**	.95**	.38**	.43**	.38**
9.TLc	3.55	0.95	0.93	3.40	0.92	0.93	.96**	.94**	.58**	.79**	.73**	.75**	.74**	.74**		.755**	.75**	.72**	.42**	.47**	.38**
10. TLi	3.41	0.83	0.80	3.38	0.87	0.86	.74**	.73**	.90**	.84**	.61**	.63**	.67**	.70**	.77**		.61**	.71**	.33**	.45**	.39**
11. ILc	3.70	0.88	0.92	3.60	0.83	0.91	.77**	.73**	.50**	.68**	.93**	.94**	.73**	.74**	.79**	.66**		.75**	.43**	.43**	.38**
12.ILi	3.44	0.98	0.94	3.37	0.92	0.94	.76**	.74**	.57**	.72**	.71**	.75**	.94**	.94**	.78**	.73**	.78**		.38**	.45**	.39**
13. imp	3.53	0.95	0.80	3.48	0.88	0.86	.49**	.43**	.30**	.41**	.4**	.44**	.46**	.45**	.49**	.40**	.47**	.48**		.46**	.35**
14. frie	3.33	0.93	0.69	3.14	0.83	0.66	.53**	.49**	.44**	.48**	.48**	.46**	.53**	.51**	.54**	.53**	.50**	.55**	.61**		.37**
15. js	3.51	0.80	0.87	3.47	0.74	0.85	.51**	.46**	.40**	.46**	.46**	.48**	.48**	.46**	.52**	.49**	.50**	.50**	.46**	.52**	

Note. *N* = 5.137, internal consistency coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) are reported in parentheses on the diagonal. Correlations above the diagonal are for collectivstic, and below the diagonal for individualistic cultures.

Gender coded as 1 = female and 2 = male, av = identifying and articulating a vision, fag = fostering the acceptance of group goals, is = individualized support, isn = intellectual stimulation, pam = providing an appropriate model, hpe = high performance expectations, em = environmental monitoring, str = strategy, pgf = path-goal facilitation, fe = feedback, TLc = collective-focused transformational leadership, TLi = individual-focused transformational leadership, ILc = collective-focused instrumental leadersip, Ili = individual-focused instrumental leadership, # = number of items, α = Cronbach's alpha

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

5.4.2 Measurement Model

Confirmatory Factor Analyses. The measurement model is composed of seven latent constructs with 46 indicators – collective-focused transformational leadership (9 items), collective-focused instrumental leadership (8 items), individual-focused transformational leadership (7 items), individual-focused instrumental leadership (8 items), the friendly communicator style (3 items), the impression-leaving communicator style (3 items), and job satisfaction (8 items). I assessed the overall model fit with chi-square statistics (χ^2), the comparative fit index (CFI; Bentler, 1990), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA, Browne & Cudeck, 1992) and the standardized root mean residual (SRMR) as recommended by Beauducel and Wittmann (2005). CFI values > .90, RMSEA values < .10, and SRMR values < .08 reflect an acceptable fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Hu & Bentler, 1999). The hypothesized measurement model fitted the data acceptable (total sample: χ^2_{968} = 148545.32, $p < .001$, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .05, CFI = .89; individualistic: χ^2_{968} = 12789.23, $p < .001$, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .06, CFI = .87; collectivistic: χ^2_{968} = 6237.66, $p < .001$, RMSEA = .05, SRMR = .04, CFI = .91). All factor loadings were significant and in an acceptable range (.45 - .85, $p < .001$).

Measurement Model Comparison. Due to the relatively high intercorrelations of the measures, I tested seven alternative model specifications to establish discriminatory validity between the leadership- as well as communicator-style measures (s. Table 16). The results demonstrated the distinctiveness of a) transformational and instrumental leadership (Model A1), b) the collective-focused and individual-focused leadership dimensions (Model A2), c) the two communicator styles (Model A3, A4, A5), d) the leadership and communicator style measures (Model A5, A6) as well as the distinctiveness of the leadership styles, communicator styles and job satisfaction (Model A5, A6, A7). All alternative models had an inferior fit compared to the

hypothesized model, supporting discriminant validity between the measures and confirming the sufficiency of the measurement structure to continue with the main analyses.

Table 16. Measurement Model Comparisons.

Model	χ^2	*df*	$\Delta\chi^2$ (Δ *df*)	CFI	ΔCFI	RMSEA	ΔRMSEA	SRMR	ΔSRMR
Collectivistic Cultures									
H	6237.66**	968		.91		.05		.04	
A1	8180.45**	979	1942.79** (11)	.88	.034	.06	.009	.04	.003
A2	8418.76**	979	2181.10** (11)	.87	.038	.06	.010	.05	.005
A3	8412.60**	983	2174.94** (15)	.87	.038	.06	.009	.05	.006
A4	8663.66**	983	2426.00** (15)	.87	.042	.06	.010	.05	.007
A5	9951.06**	986	3713.40** (18)	.85	.064	.07	.015	.05	.009
A6	11714.91**	988	5477.25** (20)	.82	.094	.07	.021	.06	.016
A7	15115.72**	989	8878.06** (21)	.76	.153	.08	.032	.07	.025
Individualistic Cultures									
H	12789.23**	968		.87		.06		.06	
A1	17484.72**	979	4695.48** (11)	.82	.051	.07	.011	.06	.000
A2	17883.87**	979	5094.63** (11)	.82	.055	.07	.011	.06	.002
A3	18472.46**	983	5683.22** (15)	.81	.061	.08	.013	.07	.010
A4	18866.57**	983	6077.33** (15)	.81	.066	.08	.013	.07	.012
A5	22310.16**	986	9520.93** (18)	.77	.103	.08	.020	.08	.014
A6	25544.13**	988	12754.89** (20)	.73	.138	.09	.026	.08	.013
A7	31116.33**	989	18327.10** (21)	.67	.199	.10	.036	.08	.019
Total Sample									
H	16674.53**	968		.89		.06		.05	
A1	22881.69**	979	6207.16** (11)	.85	.042	.07	.010	.05	.004
A2	23519.12**	979	6844.59** (11)	.85	.047	.07	.011	.05	.006
A3	24052.21**	983	7377.69** (15)	.84	.050	.07	.012	.06	.010
A4	24701.22**	983	8026.69** (15)	.84	.055	.07	.013	.06	.012
A5	29281.39**	986	12606.86** (18)	.81	.086	.07	.019	.06	.014
A6	33966.42**	988	17291.89 **(20)	.78	.118	.08	.025	.07	.018
A7	42887.22**	989	26212.69** (21)	.72	.178	.09	.035	.07	.025

Note. All alternative models were compared to the hypothesized 7-factor-model. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

H = hypothesized 7-factor model = TFL_col, TFL_ind, IL_col, IL_ind, KS_col, KS_ind, job satisfaction
A1: alternative 5-factor model= TFL [TFL_col, TFL_ind], IL [IL_col, IL_ind], KS_col, KS_ind, job sat.
A2: alternative 5-factor model= col [TFL_col, IL_col], ind [TFL_ind, IL_ind], KS_col, KS_ind, job sat.
A3: alt. 4-factor model= TFL [TFL_col, TFL_ind], IL [IL_col, IL_ind], KS [KS_col, KS_ind], job sat.
A4: alt. 4-factor model= col [TFL_col, IL_col], ind [TFL_ind, IL_ind], KS [KS_col, KS_ind], job sat.
A5: alt. 3-factor model= leadership [TFL_col, TFL_ind, IL_col, IL_ind], KS [KS_col, KS_ind], job sat.
A6: alt. 2-factor model = [TFL_col, TFL_ind, IL_col, IL_ind, KS_col, KS_ind], job satisfaction
A7: alt. 1-factor model= [TFL_col, TFL_ind, IL_col, IL_ind, KS_col, KS_ind, job satisfaction]

TFL_col = collective-focused transformational leadership; IL_col = collective-focused instrumental leadership; TFL_ind = individual-focused transformational leadership; IL_ind = individual-focused instrumental leadership; CS_col = collective-focused communicator style; CS_ind = individual-focused communicator style

Measurement Equivalence. To ensure measurement equivalence across both subsamples I ran multi-group CFAs with the hypothesized 7-factor measurement model. Interpretation of relationships across groups requires configural and metric measurement equivalence (Van de Schoot, Lugtig, & Hox, 2012). I used the ΔCFI to indicate fit differences between the models because of its insensitivity to sample size. A ΔCFI > 0.01 indicates a significant decrease of fit (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). Results revealed an acceptable fit for the model testing configural (χ^2_{1936} = 19026.89, p < .001, RMSEA = .06 [90% CI = .057/ .059], SRMR = .05, CFI = .89) and metric invariance (χ^2_{1975} = 19525.61, p < .001, RMSEA = .06 [90% CI = .057/ .059], SRMR = .06, CFI = .88). The ΔCFI value of .003 between the configural and metric model revealed no decrease of fit. Thus, there was sufficient evidence that the measures captured the same constructs in both subgroups.

5.4.3 Structural Model

To test the hypotheses, I examined the structural relationships of the proposed model in SEM analyses. In a first step, I ran the model with the total sample to analyze the proposed indirect effects from the leadership constructs on job satisfaction via both communicator styles (Hypothesis 1, 2, 3a, 3b, cf. Figure 7). Afterwards, I analyzed the interaction effect of collectivism (Hypothesis 4a, 4b, 5a, 5b) by running a multi-group SEM in the individualistic and collectivistic sample (c.f. Figure 8 and 9). The proposed model showed acceptable model fit in the total sample (χ^2_{972} = 16734.91, p < .001, RMSEA = .06 [90% CI = .055/ .056], SRMR = .05, CFI = .88) as well as in the multi-group SEM (χ^2_{2022} = 20516.87, p < .001, RMSEA = .06 [90% CI = .058/ .060], SRMR = .06, CFI = .88).

All hypothesized structural relationships proposed in Hypothesis1, 2, 3a, and 3b were consistent with my theoretical anticipations (see Figure 7). The collective-focused leadership dimensions of transformational and instrumental leadership were positively related to an

impression-leaving communicator style (TFL: β = .31, *SE* = .03, *p* < .001, IL: β = .24, *SE* = .03, *p* < .001), and the individual-focused leadership dimensions were positively related to a friendly communicator style (TFL: β = .50, *SE* = .03, *p* < .001, IL: β = .20, *SE* = .03, *p* < .001), supporting Hypothesis 1a and 1b. The results also supported Hypothesis 2 as the collective- and individual-focused leadership dimensions of transformational and instrumental leadership, the impression-leaving and the friendly communicator style are positively related to job satisfaction (impression-leaving: β = .11, *SE* = .03, *p* < .001, friendly: β = .31, *SE* = .04, *p* < .001).

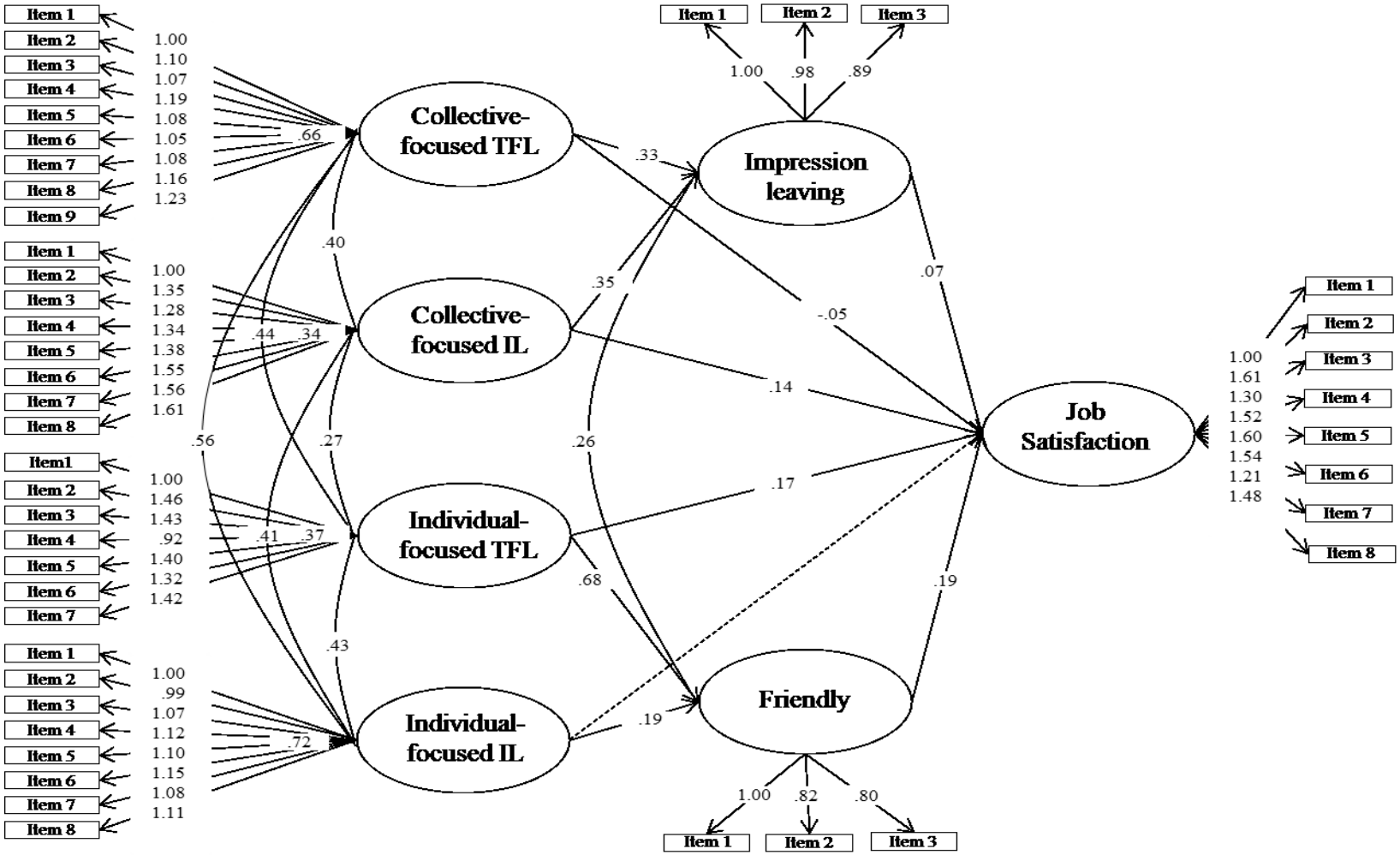
In line with my theoretical assumptions for Hypothesis 3a and 3b, the collective-focused leadership dimensions of TFL and IL indirectly and positively related to job satisfaction via the mediation of the impression-leaving communicator style (TFL: β = . 02, *SE* = .01, *p* < .05, 95% CI [0.009, 0.035]; IL: β = .02, *SE* = .01, *p* < .05, 95% CI [0.011, 0.037]). The individual-focused leadership dimensions of TFL and IL indirectly and positively related to job satisfaction via the mediation of the friendly communicator style (TFL: β = .13, *SE* = .02, *p* < .001, 95% CI [0.091, 0.173]; IL: β = .04, *SE* = .01, *p* < .001, 95% CI [0.021, 0.054]). To exclude opposite mediation effects of the communicator styles, I additionally tested if the collective-focused leadership dimensions indirectly related to job satisfaction via the mediation of the friendly communicator style and if the individual-focused leadership dimensions indirectly related to job satisfaction via the mediation of the impression-leaving communicator style. Here I did not find indirect effects. Hypotheses 3a and 3b could thus be supported.

Hypothesis 4a assumed, that the collective-focused leadership dimensions of transformational and instrumental leadership relate more strongly to job satisfaction in collectivistic cultures. In contrast, Hypothesis 4b assumed, that the individual-focused leadership dimensions of transformational and instrumental leadership relate more strongly to job satisfaction in individualistic cultures. The results of the multi-group SEM revealed no significant difference of the direct effects of the collective-focused nor the individual-focused

dimensions of transformational and instrumental leadership on job satisfaction in collectivistic and individualistic cultures. Thus, hypotheses 4a and 4b could not be supported.

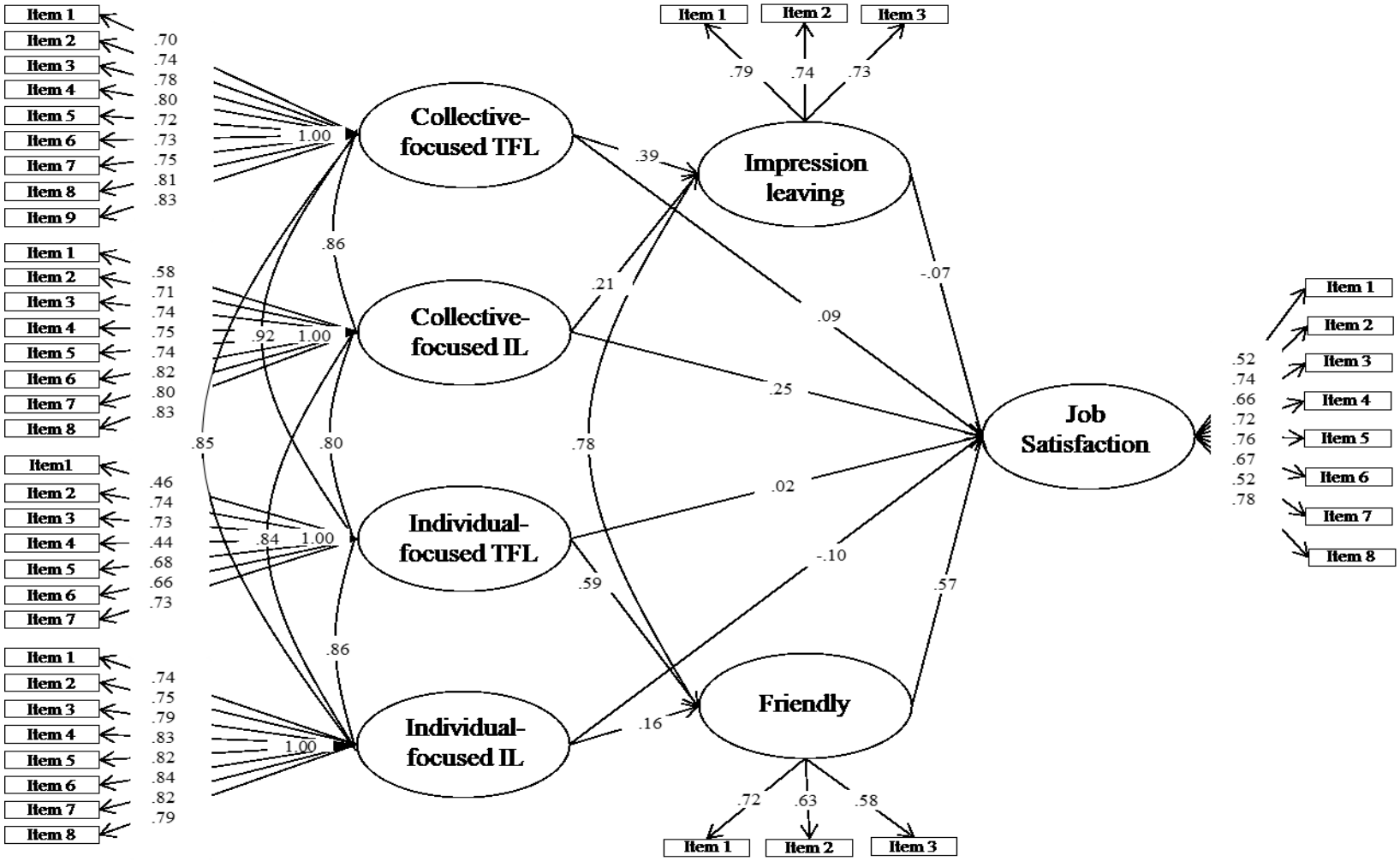
Hypothesis 5a proposed that the positive relationship between the collective-focused dimensions of TFL and IL and the impression-leaving communicator style would be more pronounced in individualistic cultures. The results of the multi-group SEM revealed a significant indirect effect of the collective-focused TFL facets as well as the collective-focused IL facets via the impression-leaving communicator style on job satisfaction in individualistic cultures (TFL: $\beta = .02$, $SE = .01$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [0.013, 0.039], IL: $\beta = .03$, $SE = .00$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [0.018, 0.053]). No significant indirect effect exists in collectivistic cultures. Accordingly, the effect was significantly higher in individualistic cultures for TFL and IL (TFL: $\Delta\beta = -.04$, $SE = .02$, $p < .10$, 90% CI [-0.090, - 0.005]; IL: $\Delta\beta = -.05$, $SE = .02$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [-0.097, - 0.013]). Thus, Hypothesis 5a could be supported.

Hypothesis 5b assumed that the positive relationship between the individual-focused dimensions of TFL and IL and the friendly communicator styles would be more pronounced in collectivistic cultures. In both individualistic as well as collectivist cultures exists a significant indirect effect of the individual-focused dimensions of TFL (individualistic cultures: $\beta = .07$, $SE = .02$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [0.045, 0.111], collectivistic cultures: $\beta = .27$, $SE = .08$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [0.156, 0.438]) as well as IL (individualistic cultures: $\beta = .03$, $SE = .01$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [0.014, 0.046]; collectivistic cultures: $\beta = .05$, $SE = .01$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [0.010, 0.116]) via a friendly communicator style on job satisfaction. This effect was significantly stronger in collectivist cultures for TFL ($\Delta\beta = .20$, $SE = .06$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [0.079, 0.371]) but not for IL ($\Delta\beta = .03$, $SE = .01$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [-0.021, 0.090]). Hypothesis 5a could thus only partly be supported.



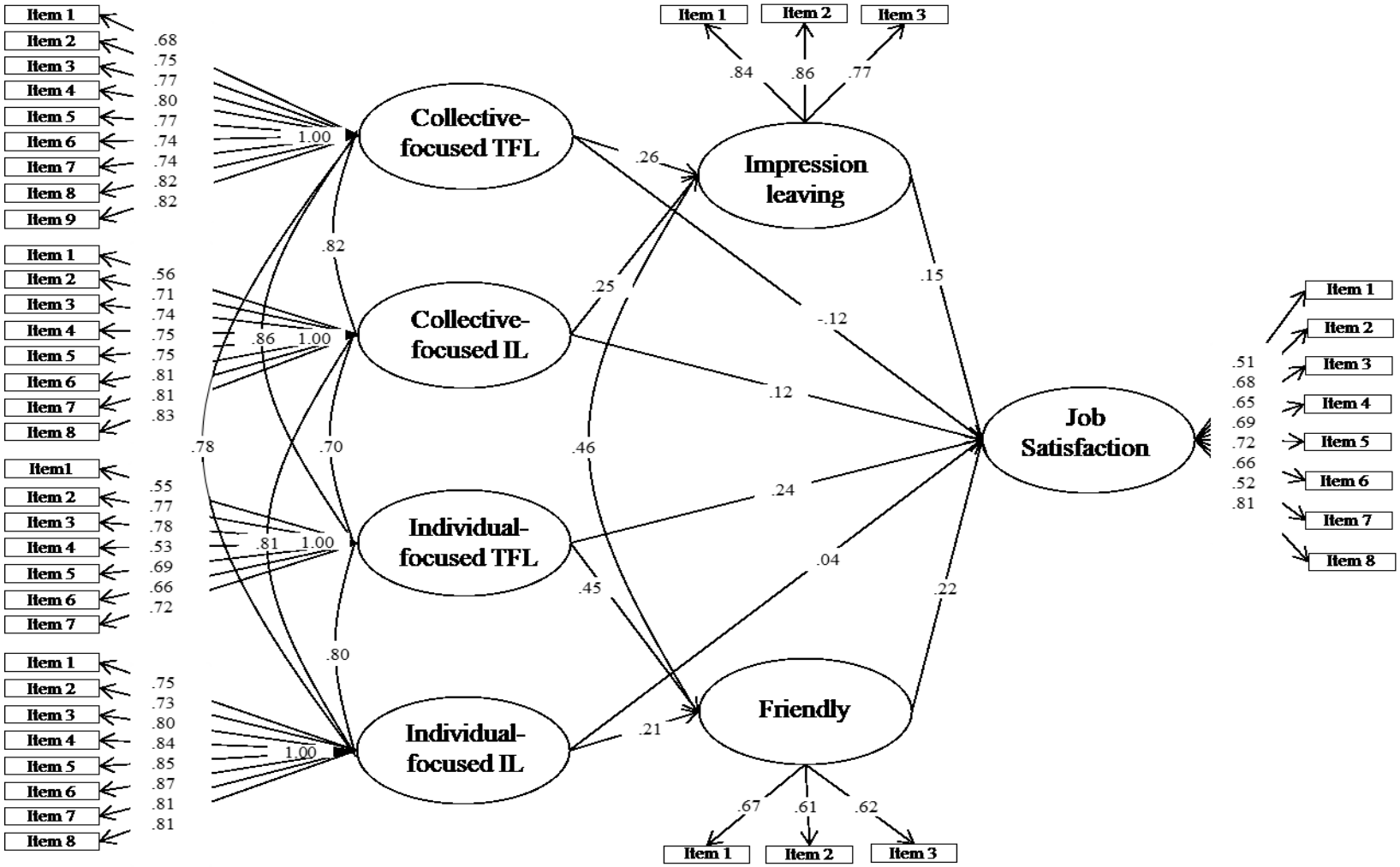
Note. N = 5,137. Significant standardized factor loadings and path coefficients are presented. All factor loadings are significant at the .05 level.

Figure 7. Results of the SEM Model with Latent Constructs – Total Sample.



Note. N = 2,043. Significant standardized factor loadings and path coefficients are presented. All factor loadings are significant at the .05 level.

Figure 8. Results of the SEM Model with Latent Constructs – Collectivistic Cultures.



Note. N = 3,116. Standardized factor loadings and path coefficients are presented. All factor loadings are significant at the .05 level.

Figure 9. Results of the SEM Model with Latent Constructs – Individualistic Cultures.

5.5 Discussion

The present study investigated how collective- as well as individual-focused aspects of transformational and instrumental leadership relate to job satisfaction while considering the leader's communicator style as an intermediating mechanism in individualistic and collectivist cultures. Building on the extended Full Range of leadership theory, I draw this research on findings from the individual-focused and collective-focused leadership literature combined with findings on leaders' communication behaviors. I hypothesized and empirically confirmed that the relationship between collective-focused transformational and instrumental leadership and job satisfaction was mediated via an impression leaving communicator style, while the relationship between individual-focused transformational and instrumental leadership and job satisfaction was mediated via a friendly communicator style. Moreover, I found that the degree of collectivism in a country moderated these relationships. Interestingly, although collective-focused leadership aspects were not better transmitted to followers in collectivist cultures than to followers in individualistic cultures, the link between the collective-focused leadership dimensions and the impression-leaving communicator style was stronger in individualistic cultures. In contrast, individual-focused aspects of leadership were not better transmitted to followers in individualistic cultures, but – regarding individual-focused transformational leadership – were more strongly linked to the friendly communicator style in collectivist cultures.

This study extends current leadership literature in three ways. First, this study empirically demonstrates that a dual perspective on individual- and collective-focused behaviors is not only practicable for transformational leadership but can be transferred to instrumental leadership behaviors. Although this relatively newly developed leadership concept is theoretically categorized in the two sub-constructs 'strategic leadership' and 'follower-work facilitation' (Antonakis & House, 2014; Rowold, 2014), it had until now been empirically tested

only as a higher-order construct or with its single facets. This study is the first to demonstrate, that follower-work facilitation as individual-focused and strategic leadership as collective-focused leadership both positively affect job satisfaction, but are mediated in different ways.

Following up on this result, this study provides first insights into the mediating role of the supervisor's communicator style in leadership processes in a cross-cultural setting. The results show that transformational and instrumental leaderships' effectiveness depends not only on what the leader is saying, but also on how he or she is saying it. Previous research revealed differences of communication behavior related to the type of leadership, namely that consideration as relations-oriented leadership style is largely communicative while initiating structure as task-oriented leadership is much less so (e.g., Daft, 2003; McCartney & Campbell, 2006; Penley & Hawkins, 1985). However, this study shows that both forms, transformational leadership as more considerate and instrumental leadership as more structuring leadership behavior, were related to the supervisors' communicator style. Third, the results confirm previous research's finding (e.g., Kunze et al., 2016; Wang & Howell, 2010; Wu et al., 2010) that a dual perspective on transformational leadership behaviors is beneficial in Western (and non-Western) countries. Nevertheless, the findings showed that the effects varied across individualistic and collectivistic cultures. Therefore, more research is needed to analyze where these differences come from.

5.5.1 Limitations and Future Research

Since this study was conducted to gain an initial understanding on the aforementioned relationships in a cross-cultural context, it has some limitations that should be addressed in future research. A first point to be mentioned is the classification of countries in individualistic and collectivistic. Unfortunately, the understanding which culture is considered collective and which is considered individual varies widely across classification systems (for a detailed review

on this problem see Brewer & Venaik, 2011; Venaik & Brewer, 2016). For example, Hofstede (2001; Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010) classifies Brazil and Iran as collectivistic cultures, whereas GLOBE (House et al., 2004) assumes them to be individualistic. Poland is classified as an individualistic culture by Hofstede et al. (2001, 2010), but as collectivistic by GLOBE. In this study, I based the assignment of individualistic and collectivistic cultures on GLOBE's Institutional Collectivism Scores, because the questions of this dimension relate to leaders, groups, and economic systems instead of primarily to family (Brewer & Venaik, 2011). However, in future studies multi-level analyses with enough countries as Level 2 units should be conducted to rule out that effects depend on the assignment of countries based on value scores.

Another limitation is that the leadership styles were highly correlated. Correlations between leadership constructs are not unusual, because a certain leadership style often includes a wide range of behaviors that overlap with dimensions from other leadership styles (e.g., transactional and transformational leadership, Judge & Piccolo, 2004). It is also to be assumed that the same manager will use individual-focused, collective-focused, transformational, and instrumental leadership behaviors to cover all challenges of leadership, varying the proportions depending on the situation. To address this problem, I tested several alternative measurement models that revealed a distinctiveness of all leadership and communication constructs. Therefore, I do not assess multicollinearity as a critical point for the interpretation of the results. However, to address this point, research methods such as multitrait-multimethod approaches or relative-weight analyses should be applied in follow-up studies.

Besides these methodological improvements, the findings provide an interesting basis for future research. The results revealed no differences of the direct effects of collective-focused/ individual-focused leadership on job satisfaction between individualistic and collectivistic cultures, but different indirect effects via the leader's communicator style between

countries. This emphasizes the important role played by the leader's communication style. Thus, it remains to be tested in follow-up studies how other communicator styles mediate the relationship between leadership styles and outcome criteria. In line with the aforementioned previous assumption that relations- and task-oriented leadership behaviors are associated differently with communication it might be insightful to combine different communication styles with transformational and instrumental leadership and compare these effects. Furthermore, a recent meta-analysis (Diener et al., 2015) shows that transformational leadership facets are associated differently with personality traits (e.g., inspirational motivation is connected more strongly to openness to experience). This interesting line of research could be extended with a focus on communication, such as by examining which communicator styles are strongly dependent on a leader's personality and which ones are learnable by any individual.

5.5.2 Practical Implications

The results of this study suggest that for developing successful leaders, leadership trainings should include elements of collective-focused and individual-focused transformational and instrumental leadership (e.g., individualized facilitating behaviors, collective group-maintaining, or structuring behaviors). Furthermore, the results indicate that it might also be useful to integrate communication behaviors in these trainings. In a recent meta-analysis, Lacerenza et al. (2017) demonstrated leadership trainings to be considerably more effective than before thought for enhancements in reactions, learning, transfer, and results of leadership. Other findings showed that effective communication skills enable leaders to articulate and distribute an inspiring vision to followers, which is a crucial element of charisma (De Vries et al., 2010). So far, no training or development program has been validated for a combination of transformational, instrumental, and communication behaviors. However, as leadership is to a large extent grounded in communication, and 360° feedback has been

demonstrated to successfully enhance leadership skills (Lee & Carpenter, 2017), this might offer an appropriate tool to increase leadership skills as well as a leader's communication behaviors.

Previous research shows that several different factors influence the effectiveness of trainings in a cross-cultural context, such as the trainees' personality (Fischer, 2011; Lievens et al., 2003; Turner, 2006), self-efficacy (Fan & Lai, 2014; Osman-Gani & Rockstuhl, 2009; Turner, 2006), and international experience (Behmd & Porzelt, 2012; Gupta et al., 2013; Waxin & Pannachio, 2005). The results further demonstrate that the relationship between leadership style and communicator style varies between collectivistic and individualistic cultures. As an implication for training design it might, thus, be useful to adapt the training to the cultural conditions of the respective country and to practice different communicator styles in collectivistic and individualistic cultures.

5.5.3 Conclusion

In summary, the results showed that leadership behaviors are mediated through communication behaviors: both individual- as well as collective-focused facets of transformational and instrumental leadership were conveyed differently through communicator styles. In addition, I demonstrated that collectivism moderated these relationships. Although there were no differences of the direct effects of individual- and collective-focused leadership in individualistic and collectivistic cultures, I found moderating influences of collectivism on the relationship between leadership style and communicator style. Therefore, it is important for future investigations to examine the cultural factors causing these differences.

6 Overall Discussion

The overarching aim of the present dissertation, which is based on three empirical studies, was to examine the general effectiveness of the four extended full-range of leadership styles across cultures and to investigate the differences in the underlying moderating and mediating mechanisms that shape the micro-level dynamics of these leadership processes in different cultural settings. In short, the key finding of the dissertation is that – in line with theoretical expectations – transformational and instrumental leadership were the best predictors for job satisfaction and affective commitment across cultures. Moreover, although culture did not impact the direct relationships between transformational and instrumental leadership and job attitudes, a more fine-grained analysis showed that culture had an influence on the micro-processes of leadership.

Study 1 revealed – while considering multicollinearity and endogeneity – that overall transformational and instrumental leadership were the best predictors for job satisfaction and affective commitment across cultures, augmenting transactional and laissez-faire leadership. Instrumental leadership predicted job satisfaction more effectively than transformational leadership, whereas transformational leadership had a greater influence on affective commitment. Study 2 confirmed that transformational and instrumental leadership had culture-independent and positive direct effects on job satisfaction, but only for transformational leadership on affective commitment. The results also revealed that openness values at the individual level were more important for both outcomes than differences between cultures. Highly open followers were especially committed and satisfied to be led transformational, whereas followers placing less value on openness benefited most from instrumental leadership. Study 3 demonstrated that leadership behaviors were conveyed through the leader's communication behaviors: both individual- as well as collective-focused facets of transformational and instrumental leadership were mediated through different communicator styles. Although there were no differences of the direct effects of individual- and collective-

focused leadership in individualistic and collectivistic cultures, collectivism moderated the relationship between leadership styles via the communicator style on job satisfaction.

6.1 Summary of Findings and Contributions

This dissertation makes three important contributions to existing theory in the field of leadership. First, by systematically analyzing the extended full-range of leadership styles simultaneously in a worldwide context, this dissertation helps to illuminate the generalizability of the effectiveness of the so far *fullest* range of leadership behaviors across cultures. Consequently, it contributes to the leadership literature by replicating previous findings on the leadership styles of the established full-range of leadership theory (Avolio and Bass, 1991) in various cultural contexts. Beyond that, it contributes to the leadership literature particularly by revealing first evidence on instrumental leadership's effectiveness and job attitudes in 14 cultures. Second, as boundary conditions for the effectiveness of the extended full-range of leadership behaviors are unclear (Antonakis & House, 2014; Yukl, 2013), this dissertation has included values as moderators in the research model to examine its interactions with transformational and instrumental leadership. This enables to draw conclusions about *when* (i.e., under which conditions and for which followers) transformational and instrumental leaderships influences are particularly strong. Third, by drawing on the dual-focused leadership perspective (Wu et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2011) in combination with the communicator style literature (Norton, 1983), this dissertation contributes to a more comprehensive understanding of *how* leadership and communicator styles work together to foster the follower's job satisfaction in different cultural contexts. This contribution responds to calls to test the robustness of the dual-perspective of transformational leadership across cultures (Kunze et al., 2016) and it illuminates the role of communicator styles in the leadership process. Taken together, by expanding the extended full-range of leadership model in the sense of an input-process-output-model, this dissertation provides an integrative research model that enables to

analyze the micro-behaviors of leadership. In this way, it contributes to a more comprehensive understanding of how leaders affect their follower's job attitudes in different cultural contexts and under which conditions these influences are particularly strong.

This dissertation has addressed several methodological issues that are often neglected in cross-cultural research (Schaffer & Riordan, 2003; van de Vijver & Tanzer, 2004; Matsumoto & Van de Vijver, 2011). First, the independent and dependent variables were temporarily separated in all of the studies, which is recommended to reduce common method variance in cross-cultural research (cf. Chang, van Witteloostuijn, & Eden, 2010). Second, validated measures of established scales, which are balanced for negative and positive items, were used in all of the studies. For each culture, a translated equivalent of the basic questionnaire was applied. A professional translation agency ensured the linguistic quality of the translations and research assistants originating from the respective culture confirmed the semantic and conceptual conformity of all the versions used (Brislin, 1980). Third, due to the relatively high intercorrelations of the measures, in all studies discriminatory validity was confirmed by testing alternative measurement models with confirmatory factor analyses before the main analyses. Furthermore, measurement equivalence between the cultures was ensured by testing for configural and metric invariance, which must be fulfilled for an interpretation of the relationships across groups (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998; Van de Schoot et al., 2012).

In the following, the findings of the three studies will be outlined in detail and linked to the theoretical and empirical findings of previous research. Study 1 aimed to examine the first research question (*RQ 1: Which leadership styles of the extended full-range of leadership model are most effective in different cultures while accounting for multicollinearity?*). The results demonstrated that, overall, transformational leadership was most effective to enhance affective commitment, while instrumental leadership was most effective to enhance job satisfaction across cultures. For transformational leadership, this is in line with previous research, showing augmentation effects for transformational leadership on job satisfaction and affective

commitment beyond transactional and laissez-faire leadership (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Wang et al., 2011). For instrumental leadership, this also confirms the existing findings from Western cultures that it enhances job attitudes, and that its effects on follower's job satisfaction can be as strong as or even stronger than transformational leadership's effects (Antonakis & House, 2014; Rowold, 2014). Beyond that, the findings of this dissertation indicate that instrumental leadership's effectiveness in terms of job satisfaction can be generalized across a wide range of cultures. This implies that these leader behaviors should receive more attention in future cross-cultural leadership research.

However, in Study 1, the direct effect of instrumental leadership on affective commitment strongly dropped when also accounting for transformational leadership, while in Study 2 this direct effect did not exist (only for less open followers). Therefore, transformational leadership seems to be more important to enhance affective commitment and instrumental leadership seems to be more important to enhance job satisfaction, which might be explained by the characteristics of both leadership styles. Transformational leadership is an emotional style that is based on values and socio-emotional interactions, whereas instrumental leadership is a pragmatic style with a strong focus on achieving work goals (Antonakis & House, 2014). Consequently, an instrumental leader signals more specifically and visibly that work processes run well and that he/she is in control of the overall situation than a transformational leader (e.g., by removing obstacles, formulating a clear strategy). These behaviors might be especially important to create a good work environment and thereby enhance the overall judgment about the job. Thus, it makes sense, that instrumental leadership is more important to enhance job satisfaction – the overall judgment about one's job (Weiss, 2002) – and transformational leadership for affective commitment – representing the follower's emotional bond with the organization (Rhoades et al., 2001). Nevertheless, Rowold (2014) discovered positive direct effects of instrumental leadership on affective commitment in a German sample. In this dissertation, I found inconsistencies in the relation patterns between cultures and also positive

effects on affective commitment for less open followers. Therefore, it is important to identify further moderators that cause these differences in instrumental leadership's effectiveness. Moreover, it might be insightful to try to replicate my findings for job satisfaction and affective commitment for strongly affective (e.g., trust, identification), cognitive (e.g., information sharing), or behavioral (e.g., prosocial behavior, task performance) outcome criteria in future research. This will be able to test if the different effects of transformational and instrumental leadership on strongly affective and strongly rational criteria remain, or if further explanations have to be sought.

The results of Study 1 demonstrate further that leader behaviors – regardless if these behaviors are on a socio-emotional or task-oriented, strategic, pragmatic level – seem to be most effective when the leader is highly active. These findings are consistent with Avolio and Bass's (1991) assumptions on the activity-effectiveness structure of full-range leader behaviors, showing that transformational leadership augments transactional leadership and both styles augment laissez-faire leadership regarding its effectivity on various outcomes (e.g., Bass, 1996; 1997). Furthermore, this is in line with findings from previous leadership research demonstrating activity as one of the most important factors for leadership effectiveness (e.g., De Rue, Nahrgang, Wellman & Humphrey, 2011; Rowold, Borgmann & Diebig, 2015). My findings replicated these results in regard to the full-range leader behaviors across different cultures. Moreover, my results extend previous work by demonstrating the transferability of the activity-effectiveness structure on the extended full-range of leadership model, including instrumental leadership as a highly active leadership style, across a wide range of countries.

Study 2 helped me to answer the second research question dealing with the moderating impact of values on transformational and instrumental leadership behaviors. Examining the interaction of cultural and individual values with transformational and instrumental leadership has enabled me to draw conclusions about *when* (i.e., under which conditions and for which followers) transformational and instrumental leaderships influences are particularly strong.

(*RQ2: What impact do cultural and individual values have on the relation between transformational and instrumental leadership with job attitudes?*). I focused on openness values at the individual and societal level as moderators to outline through which degree of openness values the followers optimally react to the leader's transformational and instrumental behaviors. The results show that future orientation representing societal openness did not strengthen the effectiveness of transformational and instrumental leadership, whereas openness to change at the individual level moderated both leadership styles. For highly open employees, a transformational leadership style promoted job satisfaction and organizational commitment in particular. In contrast, for less open employees, instrumental leadership seems to be more suitable to enhance both outcomes.

These findings correspond to previous research that individual characteristics of followers such as their personality (Schyns & Felfe, 2006; Schyns, Kroon, & Moors, 2008; De Vries, 2012), their implicit leadership theories (Schyns, 2008), and their need for leadership (De Vries et al., 2002) strongly influence the perception and also reaction to leadership. Moreover, Kirkman, Chen, Farh, Chen, and Lowe (2009) found that the individual follower's power distance orientation moderated the relationship between transformational leadership, procedural justice, and organizational citizenship behavior in China and the United States, whereas country differences did not affect these relationships. Nonetheless, aside from a few studies (e.g., Shin and Zhou, 2003; Ehrhart & Klein, 2001), the influence of individual values in the leadership process has so far been underdeveloped, especially on non-value-based leadership styles (e.g., transactional or instrumental leadership). Thus, more research is needed to point out the moderating impact of values on different forms of leadership.

Study 3 helped me to deepen the understanding of the mediating mechanisms underlying transformational and instrumental leadership behaviors by investigating the leader's communicator style (*RQ3: How does the leader's communicator style mediate transformational and instrumental leadership processes?*). The results of Study 3 revealed two different

mediation routes from individual- and collective-focused transformational and instrumental leadership via the leader's communicator style on job satisfaction: The relationship between collective-focused transformational and instrumental leadership and job satisfaction was mediated via an impression-leaving communicator style, while the relationship between individual-focused transformational and instrumental leadership and job satisfaction was mediated via a friendly communicator style. This finding corresponds to previous research, which has constantly demonstrated the central role of communication in the leadership process (e.g., Fairhurst & Connaughton, 2014; van Quakebeke & Felps, 2017; Sager, 2008). Moreover, it supports De Vries et al.'s (2010) suggestion that, due to the follower's implicit theories about what constitutes a good leader, the communicator's style must match the shown leadership behavior. Nevertheless, so far, there is no consistent view as to whether the style of communication is more an expression of a person's personality and, thus, functions as an antecedent of leadership (e.g., De Vries et al., 2010; Waldherr & Muck, 2011) or if it is more of a mediating mechanism, which functions as an intermediator between the leader and the followers (Aritz & Walker, 2014; Fairhurst & Connaughton, 2014).

De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, and Oostenveld (2010) discovered that human-oriented and charismatic leadership mediated the link between the leader's communicator styles and various work-related outcomes. These findings suggest that charismatic leadership might be grounded in communication. Nonetheless, De Vries and colleagues (2010) collected data solely at one point in time. Therefore, they cannot clearly determine the causal direction between the leadership styles and the communicator styles. To overcome this problem, I used a time-lagged design and investigated leadership style as an independent variable before assessing the communicator style as a possible mediator to provide stronger evidence for the causal direction of both variables (Podsakoff et al., 2003). In my research model, I hypothesized that choosing an appropriate communicator style might be regarded as a form of communication competence, leading – according to Hertsch et al.'s (2012) process model of communication – as a mediator

to follower's job satisfaction. My results support this assumption. They suggest that the communicator's style seems to act as a mediator between the supervisor's leadership style and the followers' job satisfaction. Nevertheless, more research (e.g., with longitudinal or experimental designs) is needed to substantiate these results and draw a clear causal direction between leadership and communicator styles. Furthermore, Study 3 indicates that a more detailed inquiry of transformational and instrumental leadership is needed for explaining these mediating mechanisms in different cultural settings.

In addition to these findings, Study 3 helped me to create a more comprehensive understanding about how leadership and communicator styles work together to foster the follower's job satisfaction in different cultural contexts by drawing on the dual-focused leadership perspective (Wu et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2011) in combination with the communicator style literature (Norton, 1983). This provides answers regarding Research Question 4 (*RQ4: How does collectivism /individualism influence the indirect effect of individual-focused and collective-focused transformational and instrumental leadership on job attitudes via the leader's communicator style?*). Following recent criticism of transformational leadership operationalization (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013) and improvements in leadership research, there is strong evidence that collective-focused and individual-focused facets of transformational leadership affect leadership outcomes differently (Kunze, DeJong, & Bruch, 2016; Wu, Tsui, & Kinicki, 2010). Study 3 enabled me to get more detailed insights on the impact of individual- and collective-focused leadership on job satisfaction with regard to different communicator styles in high and low collectivist cultures. This is particularly important because until now no study has examined whether other leadership styles than transformational leadership might benefit from a split in individual- and collective-focused behaviors, and which micro-dynamics underlie these processes, although this might help to uncover how leadership becomes effective. In addition, insufficient attention has been paid to comparing the robustness of findings on the dual-perspective of leadership in different cultural

settings. My findings have revealed different mediation routes of individual- and collective-focused leadership via the leader's communicator style on the followers' job satisfaction. I have also shown that the degree of collectivism in a country moderates these mediation routes. Interestingly, although collective-focused leadership aspects were not better transmitted to followers in collectivist cultures than to followers in individualistic cultures per se, the link between the collective-focused leadership dimensions and the impression-leaving communicator style was stronger in individualistic cultures. In contrast, the individual-focused aspects of leadership were not better transmitted to followers in individualistic cultures, but for individual-focused transformational leadership they were more strongly linked to the friendly communicator style in collectivist cultures.

These finding suggest that a leader has to pay special attention to cultural differences regarding the appropriateness of the communicator style. The appropriateness of different communicator styles as a function of collectivism is in line with Hall's theory of communication in high- versus low-context cultures (Hall, 1959, 1966, 1976, 1983; Hall & Hall, 1990). According to Hall (1976), information in high-context cultures (e.g., China or Japan) is implicitly and indirectly communicated, and the context helps to understand the message correctly. In low-context cultures (e.g., the United States or Germany), information is communicated clearly and explicitly, and verbal and direct communication plays a decisive role (e.g., clear statements and task descriptions are considered important in the work context). Low-context communication has been linked with individualistic cultures, and high-context communication has been linked with collectivistic cultures (Gudykunst et al., 1996; Park & Kim, 2008; Reardon & Miller, 2012). Therefore, in a high-context, collectivistic culture, the reserved and indirect friendly communicator style might be a more appropriate way to communicate because it matches the follower's implicit leader expectations in these countries. In a low-context, individualistic culture, the direct and offensive impression-leaving

communicator style might be more appropriate because it matches the follower's implicit expectations of being a good leader in these countries.

Previous research has shown differences in the use of communication styles across cultures both in direct conversation (e.g., Gudykunst et al., 1996; Kapoor, Hughes, Baldwin, & Blue, 2003; Nishimura, Nevgi, & Tella, 2008), and also in email correspondence (Holtbrügge, Weldon, & Rogers, 2012). Nevertheless, these studies did not consider communication styles form a leadership perspective. The link between leadership styles and communicator styles with a focus on cultural differences has until now only been researched in two studies. Aritz and Walker (2014) assessed the GLOBE leadership styles and self-developed communication styles (e.g., decisive and task oriented, independent and self-reliant) in multicultural groups of American and East Asians enrolled in an MBA program at a US university and found cultural differences in using leadership styles, communicator styles, and decision-making processes within these groups. Cherfan (2016) surveyed international students at a US university and also found differences regarding preferences for communicator styles and leadership styles between cultural groups. However, both of these studies suffer from methodological weaknesses (e.g., non-validated self-developed scales, student samples, mixture of leadership- and communicator style). Therefore, more research of the link between the extended full-range of leadership behaviors and communicator styles in different cultures is necessary to get a more fine-grained understanding of these micro-behaviors of leadership.

6.2 Limitations and Future Research

In this section, I will summarize the main limitations that apply to all of the three studies of this dissertation. Additionally, I will suggest possible ways to address these limitations in future research. At first, I will refer to the methodological limitations, which are single source bias, the high interrelations of the variables, and convenience sampling as data collection procedure. I will then focus on the content-related limitations, which refer to the assessment of

transformational leadership, the single-perspective on leadership and communication behaviors, and omitted variables to explain cross-cultural variability. Finally, I will focus on several recommendations for future research.

The first methodological limitation is that I collected all of the data from the same source. I tried to reduce this limitation by collecting data for independent, mediator, and dependent variables with a time-delay of at least two weeks. This proceeding is recommended to reduce common method variance in cross-cultural survey designs (Chang, van Witteloostuijn, & Eden, 2010) and it provides stronger evidence for the causal direction of the relationships between the investigated variables (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Nevertheless, the followers rated their supervisors' leadership and communicator style, and also their own values and levels of job satisfaction and affective commitment, which could have affected the results. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Podsakoff (2012) found that correlations between variables collected form the same source were higher than correlations between variables assessed form different sources. To address this potential limitation of single source bias, future research should examine the same relationships while considering multiple sources to examine the different variables. For example, by collecting all variable ratings at separate times or by incorporating leadership ratings from multiple perspectives (e.g., ratings of a third party, such as colleagues, Podsakoff et al., 2012).

The second methodological limitation is that the investigated constructs – especially transformational and instrumental leadership – were highly correlated in all samples. It is not uncommon for leadership constructs to strongly correlate among each other due to partial overlap (cf. Judge & Piccolo, 2004). It is also highly probable that the same leader in practice uses individual-focused, collective-focused, transformational, and instrumental leadership behaviors, in addition to different communicator styles to cover all of the challenges of leadership, while varying the proportions depending on situational and contextual factors. This is particularly likely for transformational and instrumental leadership because they complement

each other. For example, the leader may articulate a vison – as a transformational leadership behavior – and then breakdown this vision into achievable tasks for the followers – as an instrumental leadership behavior. Thus, it is likely that the same leader will be perceived by the followers as transformational and instrumental (or vice versa, as neither transformational nor instrumental) leading to high correlations, although both leadership constructs are theoretically distinct.

I addressed this problem in all three studies in different ways. First, I tested several alternative measurement models in all three studies. These analyses revealed the distinctiveness of all leadership and communicator styles. Moreover, in Study 1 I ran relative weight analyses to test the incremental contribution of each leadership style separately, and in Study 2 I controlled for multicollinearity in preliminary analyses. These analyses demonstrate an incremental contribution for all leadership constructs when tested simultaneously (Study 1) and acceptable ranges for all multicollinearity indices (Study 2). Therefore, I did not assess multicollinearity as a critical point for the interpretation of the results. However, to address this point in follow-up studies, measures should be assessed and validated with multitrait-multimethod research designs (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). Previous multitrait-multimethod assessments of leadership constructs have demonstrated that the correlations between related leadership constructs strongly decreased when taking method effects in account (e.g., Krüger et al., 2011; Rowold & Borgmann, 2013; Bormann & Rowold, 2018).

The third methodological limitation is that I collected data via snowball sampling, which resulted in convenience samples. For this dissertation, it was necessary to collect data by native research assistants to establish contact with working people in the respective culture and to ensure that the participants correctly understood the instructions in the different languages. This sampling strategy has been used in the most previous cross-cultural studies (Matsumoto & Van de Vijver, 2011) and has generally been proven to provide representative samples (Marcus et al., 2017). Nevertheless, a convenience sample is a non-probability sampling method where the

sample is taken based on availability. Given that the participants came from a wide range of industries and different organizations, the sample is not representative of a definable population. Therefore, the sample has limited external validity and limited representativeness of the population being studied (Sharma, 2017). Future research should replicate my findings with a more detailed assessment of the demographics and characteristics of the organization and control for these characteristics (e.g., occupations, function within the organization, or multinational enterprise). Nevertheless, a sample from a wide range of organizations might help ruling out that shared organizational or work characteristics (e.g., organizational values) influence the employees' values and its interrelation with leadership behaviors.

In the following, I will focus on the content-related limitations and implications for future research. First, although van Knippenberg and Sitkin (2013) argued that transformational leadership is handled as a higher order construct without specifying how its different dimensions combine to form this higher order construct, I only applied a differentiated view on transformational leadership behaviors in Study 3. Drawing on the dual-perspective of leadership (Wu et al., 2010), these differentiated analyzes showed that collective- and individual-focused aspects of transformational and instrumental leadership were mediated in different ways in individualistic and collectivistic cultures. Thus, it is recommended that future studies should conduct a more detailed analysis of leadership behaviors across cultures, which may offer a more detailed exemplification of associations between the extended full-range of leadership behaviors. For example, it might be helpful not only to differentiate between individual-focused and collective-focused leadership dimensions but also to extend this mediation model for every transformational and instrumental leadership facet to match the leadership behaviors more closely to a fitting communicator style.

Study 1 revealed a great variation in the relative weights of the four extended full-range of leadership styles between the investigated cultures. Although I addressed cultural and individual openness values as one possible moderator of these relationships in Study 2, how

other values or third variables as potential moderators influence the effectiveness of the leadership styles remains to be tested. My findings suggest that the extended full-range of leadership model seems to be generalizable across different cultures; however, it is critical to ensure that the entailed constructs are not deficient. Here, deficient means that they are missing important dimensions that are relevant in other cultures. For example, the concepts of guanxi and renqing are very important in Chinese culture. Guanxi describes the network of personal relationships for which reciprocal favors (renqing) are crucial. Hardly any decision remains unaffected by these two principles and they play an important role for trust and agreements in the work context (Barkema, Chen, George, Luo, & Tsui, 2015; Han & Altman, 2008). These principles are also relevant in supervisor-subordinate relationships (Han & Altman, 2008) but they are not explicitly addressed by the extended full-range of leadership behaviors. In future studies, care should be taken that such emic (= culture specific) constructs are taken into account to exclude omitted variables, which may explain more variance in a leadership situation and on leadership outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment) in this culture than the considered leadership styles.

A further content-related limitation is that the leadership dynamics in this dissertation were only assessed from the follower's point of view. The individualized leadership theory (Dansereau et al., 1995) and the interpersonal communication process model (Hertzsch et al., 2012) emphasize the dyadic interactions between the leader and the individual followers. Thus, it could be insightful to take a closer look at these interactions between the leader and individual followers to investigate my hypotheses more precisely. Given that I only assessed the leader's behaviors from the followers' perspective, my studies neglect the leader's view of leadership and communication processes for an assessment of dyadic interactions. Although research shows that it is more accurate to use subordinate ratings than self-ratings to assess leadership behaviors (Taylor, Russ-Eft, & Taylor, 2009), scholars emphasize the importance of incorporating multiple perspective on leadership dynamics (e.g., Dinh et al., 2014).

For cross-cultural research, a focus on the interaction processes might also be important. Gelfand et al. (2017) state that I should invest in theorizing and researching cross-cultural interactions more than cross-cultural differences because cross-cultural interactions become more frequent, horizontal, unstructured, temporary, sporadic, and will take place across global locations (Zellmer-Bruhn & Gibson, 2013). A promising avenue for future research to more precisely examine cross-cultural interactions regarding communication processes in leadership research while accounting for the difficulties of collecting multicultural data might be to investigate leader-follower-dyads in a qualitative, mixed-methods, or experimental design. For example, it might be insightful to observe how leader-follower dyads with differing cultural backgrounds perform a role play of an exemplary leadership situation in an experimental setting. Another possible method would be to videotape real work group discussions in multicultural teams. Thereby special attention has to be paid to the interaction process and the leader's communicator style. Previous research has shown that these kind of studies is useful to uncover the micro-processes of leadership, such as communicative interactions (e.g., Lehmann-Willenbrock & Kauffeld, 2010; Lehmann-Willenbrock, Allen, & Kauffeld, 2013; Gerpott et al., 2018).

Finally, this dissertation investigated the *effectiveness* of the extended full-range of leadership behaviors. An interesting avenue for future research might be to take a closer look at the *activity* of the extended full-range of leadership behaviors. Diary studies show that leader behaviors vary over time and that a leader who acts transformational on one day does not necessarily do so on another. For example, Johnson, Venus, Lanaj, Mao, and Chang (2012) collected daily reports of leader behaviors over a period of 15 consecutive work days and discovered large proportions of within-person variance for transformational (37%), consideration (47%), and abusive leadership behavior (61%). Nevertheless, studies of this kind only record the general demonstration of leadership behaviors. The actual degree of activity that is spent by the leader to practice these behaviors has previously been implicitly accepted

but has not been investigated for the extended full-range of leadership behaviors. A qualitative study or day-level-diary investigation of the leader's activity (e.g., whether and how frequently the leaders actually use the different leader behaviors in praxis, or how much time they spend using it in hours or minutes per day) that is correlated with relevant effectiveness criteria (e.g., follower satisfaction, follower performance, or organizational success criteria) might help to reveal the *efficiency* of the extended full-range of leadership facets. In addition, this investigation might help to ensure not only a full or *fuller* range but also a practicable range of effective leadership behaviors. Figure 10 summarizes possible avenues for future research in an extended version of the research model of this dissertation.

6.3 Practical Implications

Based on the findings of my three studies, practical implications for leader selection as well as leader development can be derived for the human resource management in organizations. At first, organizations should select leaders, who show instrumental as well as transformational leadership attributes (e.g., strategic as well as inspirational skills), elements of collective-focused and individual-focused leadership behaviors (e.g., individualized facilitating behaviors, collective group-maintaining behaviors), as well as appropriate communication skills. Moreover, the three studies provide implications for leader development, which will be linked to the main findings in the following.

The results of this dissertation suggest that leadership development initiatives should highlight the importance of actively and assertively occupying the leadership role. This is in line with the results of a meta-analysis of De Rue, Nahrgang, Wellman, and Humphrey (2011), who concluded that even engaging in suboptimal leadership behaviors is better than inaction. Passive laissez-faire leadership was negatively related to job satisfaction and affective commitment in all of the cultures investigated in this dissertation. Additionally, the most active styles – transformational and instrumental leadership – were the most effective behaviors to

enhance job satisfaction and affective commitment. Thus, leadership development programs should encourage individuals to proactively assume their leadership responsibilities rather than passively waiting to act until problems develop.

As discovered in all studies, managers should demonstrate both transformational and instrumental leadership behaviors to lead successfully. Transformational leadership seems to be especially useful to enhance affective commitment and instrumental leadership to enhance the follower's job satisfaction. Consequently, a combination of both styles seems to be most appropriate for a high level of both outcomes across cultures. Additionally, the results show that *how* something is said is important because the employees were satisfied when individual- and collective-focused leadership behaviors were combined with an appropriate communicator style. Therefore, leaders should be trained in transformational and instrumental leadership behaviors, as well as in the competence to choose an appropriate communicator style for their leadership purposes.

Thus, to develop effective leaders, companies should provide transformational and instrumental leadership training. Moreover, it might be useful to set a special focus on differentiating collective- and individual-focused aspects of these behaviors and to integrate communication behaviors in these trainings. In addition, training in high quality leadership techniques (e.g., transformational leadership) can enhance the reactions, learning, transfer, and also the results of leadership behaviors (Abrell et al., 2011; Lacerenza et al., 2017; Parry & Sinha, 2005). Research on communication behavior has shown that effective communication skills enable leaders to articulate and distribute an inspiring vision to their followers, which is a crucial element of charisma (De Vries et al., 2010). Cohrs (2017) demonstrated that transformational leadership and communicator styles can be improved in a two-day leadership training program. However, no training or development program has been validated for a combination of transformational, instrumental, and communication behaviors. Given that leadership is to a large extent grounded in communication and 360° feedback has been

demonstrated to successfully enhance leadership skills (Kelloway, Barling, & Helleur, 2000; Lee & Carpenter, 2017; Smither, London, & Reilly, 2005; Thach, 2002), this might offer an appropriate tool to increase leadership skills and a leader's communication behaviors, leading in the long run to financial returns on investment (Avolio, Avey, & Quisenberry, 2010).

The findings of this dissertation further suggest that leaders should be able to adapt their transformational and instrumental leadership behaviors to lead most effectively. Study 2 revealed that followers react differently to transformational and instrumental leadership, depending on their level of openness values: highly open employees were particularly satisfied and committed when they were led transformationally, whereas less open followers benefited most when they were led in an instrumental way. Study 3 showed that the appropriateness of combining leadership and communicator styles depends on culture. The link between collective-focused leadership dimensions and an impression-leaving communicator style was stronger in individualistic cultures, whereas individual-focused transformational leadership was more strongly linked to a friendly communicator style in collectivistic cultures. To lead effectively, leaders should not globally apply instrumental and transformational leadership but should instead be able to adopt it to their followers' individual characteristics and to the cultural conditions of the respective country. Consequently, it might be useful to sensitize leaders to individual and cultural differences, for example in cultural competency trainings (e.g., Bennett, Aston, & Colquhoun, 2000; Caligiuri et al., 2001).

6.4 Conclusion

In summary, this dissertation represents an important step towards a better understanding of the extended full-range of leadership behaviors across cultures. Overall, transformational and instrumental leadership predicted job satisfaction and affective commitment most effectively across cultures, indicating that the activity-effectiveness-structure of the extended full-range of leadership model could broadly be confirmed. In addition, it

provides differentiated insights into the conditions (openness values as moderators) and underlying processes (communicator styles as mediators) that shape the micro-level dynamics of leadership processes. Interestingly, although culture did not impact the direct relationship between transformational and instrumental leadership and job attitudes within this research project, the more fine-grained analyzes showed that culture had an influence on micro-processes of leadership. This result and the variation in the importance of the extended full-range of leadership styles between cultures highlight the relevance of investigating culture in leadership research. Therefore, it is recommended that future research should shed more light on micro-processes of leadership that might be responsible for variations in effects between cultures.

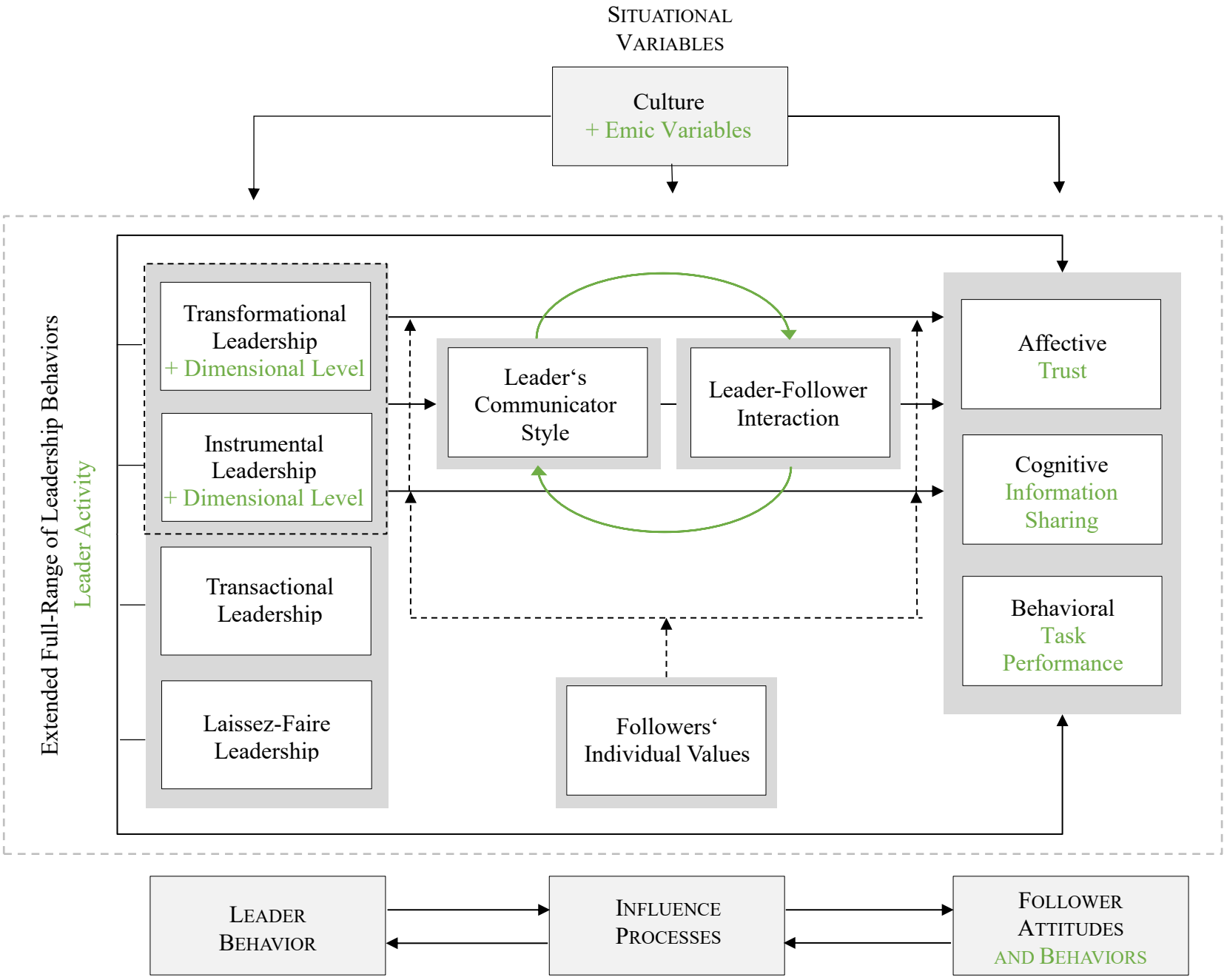


Figure 10. Extended Research Model for Future Research.

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8 Appendix

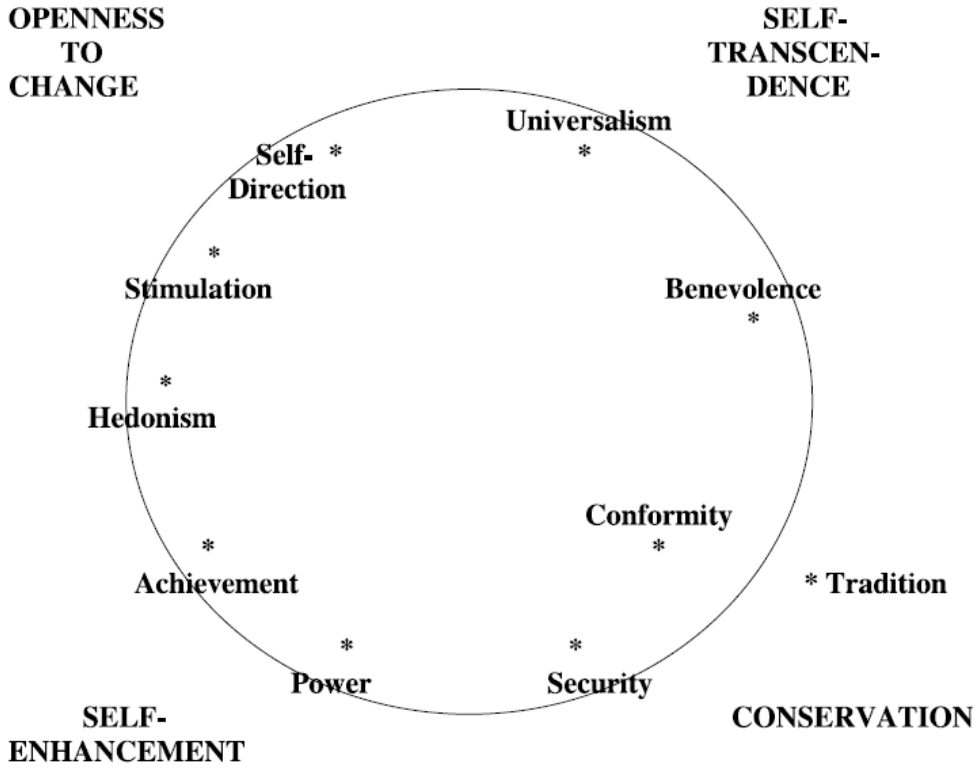

Figure 11. Theoretical Model of Relations among Values (Schwartz & Boehnke, 2004: 233).

Table 17. Overview of Norton's (1983) Communicator Styles.

Communicator Style	**Description**
Animated	The animated communicator style is characterized through physical and nonverbal cues such as frequent and sustained eye contact, many facial expressions, body movements, gestures, and posture. These are used to exaggerate or understate the content and solicit approval of the audience. Moreover, these behaviors make it easy to identify emotions on the face of the animated communicator. The animated communicator style is form giving and punctuates literal meaning, signals moods, indicates theatrical emphases, increases or decreases intensity, and filters qualitative content (Norton, 1983).
Attentive	The attentive communicator style is characterized by empathically and careful listening behaviors to makes sure that the interaction partner is aware that he/ she is being listened to. Attentiveness is related to nonverbal covariates such as gaze duration. The attentive communicator style is important as counterpart to the dominant, dramatic, contentious and animated communicator style (Norton, 1983).
Contentious	There is no psychological literature directly addressing the contentious communicator style. It is highly argumentative and closely linked to the dominant communicator style. However, in contrast to the dominant communicator style it entails largely negative components. Norton (1983) predominately involved the contentious communicator style in his conceptualization to get a deepened understanding of the dominant communicator style.
Dominant	The dominant communicator style is characterized through physical manifestations of dominance. These are expressed by nonverbal and psychological correlates of dominance such as eye contact, congruent body movements, voice loudness, vocal modulation, and information rate. In the communicative interaction the dominant communicator style is manifested through louder responses with shorter latencies, a small amount of

	compliance, and requests for the other to change his or her behavior. Male nonverbally signal dominance differently than females. Males use personal space and rate of approach, whereas females use reciprocal eye contact. Additionally, a dominant communicator appears to be confident, enthusiastic, forceful, active, competitive, self-confident, self-assured, conceited, and businesslike (Norton, 1983).
Dramatic	The dramatic communicator style is the most visible style. It consists of exaggerations such as fantasies, stories, or metaphors to highlight or understate content whereby the simple literal meaning of the message is transformed. The dramatic communicator style serves as profound, complex, often unconscious and intentional interactional communicative function and gives away true feelings. The dramatic communicator style functions in the communication process in two ways: on the one hand it is a medium for the communicator's self-representation/ self-expression/ self-presentation and on the other hand it is form-giving to what is being said. A dramatic communicator style influences popularity, status, self-esteem, and attraction (Norton, 1983).
Friendly	The friendly communicator style ranges from being unhostile to deep intimacy. Watzlawick, Beavin, and Jackson (1967) claim it as "the greatest single factor ensuring mental development and stability". A friendly communicator style confirms and positively recognizes others and is, thus, strongly connected with attraction, sociability, leadership, and social status (Norton, 1983).
Impression Leaving	The impression leaving communicator style involves communicative stimuli that are remembered by others. Much of the research deals with initial encounters, for example affiliative expressiveness, amount of verbal communication, or similarity of persons. As a complex process, the impression leaving communicator style depends on the sender, who controls cues, as well as the receiver, who processes these cues. An impression

	leaving communicator has a visible and memorable style of communication (Norton, 1983).
Open	The open communicator style is characterized by attributes like being frank, conversational, extroverted, affable, expansive, gregarious, and unsecretive, which are provided through verbal and nonverbal behaviors. Open communicators are perceived as trustworthy and attractive. The open communicator style relates to liking, reciprocity, para-verbal cues, and trust (Norton, 1983).
Relaxed	Norton (1983) claims that a person with a high degree of anxiety cannot manifest a relaxed communicator style. On the contrary, the relaxed communicator style indicates various messages like a high degree of calmness, peace, serenity, confidence, and comfortableness.
Precise	The precise communicator style was later added to Norton's concept, so there is little information on the appearance of this style. In general, people with a precise communication style usually express themselves exactly and in discussions place great value on well-founded arguments (Cohrs, Diebig, Rowold, & Bormann, 2016).