

Ways to Leadership: Considering Different Perspectives on What it Needs to Lead

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Ways to Leadership: Considering Different Perspectives on What it Needs to Lead

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“If you are free, you need to free somebody else.

If you have some power, then your job is to empower somebody else.”

Toni Morrison

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Deutsche Zusammenfassung

Ziel der vorliegenden Dissertation ist eine Untersuchung der Mechanismen, die dazu beitragen als Führungskraft zu „führen“. Insbesondere werden mögliche Antezedenzen genauer betrachtet, welche es der Führungskraft ermöglichen, Transformational zu führen – also ein Führungsverhalten zu zeigen, welches für seine positiven und förderlichen Auswirkungen für die Mitarbeitenden bekannt ist (Peng et al., 2021). Dabei schlägt die vorliegende Arbeit eine Brücke zwischen bestehenden Ressourcen Theorien wie der Conservation of Resources Theory von Hobfoll (1989) und dem Job Demands-Ressources Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017) und wendet diese auf den Kontext der Führung an. Darüber hinaus werden soziale Faktoren für die Erklärung von Transformationaler Führung miteinbezogen, sodass letztendlich sozialpsychologische Prozessannahmen in die bestehenden theoretischen Annahmen der Theorien zu Ressourcen integriert werden.

In der vorliegenden Arbeit werden die drei übergeordneten Fragestellungen wie folgt adressiert: 1) Wie hängen das Wohlbefinden der Führungskraft und das gezeigte Führungsverhalten zusammen? 2) Wie wirken sich die Ressourcen der Führungskraft auf das gezeigte Führungsverhalten aus? 3) Welche Rolle spielen sozialpsychologische Faktoren für die Ausübung von Führungsverhalten?

Im ersten Manuskript wurde die Beziehung zwischen dem Wohlbefinden der Führungskraft, deren gezeigter Transformationaler Führung, sowie der Team Performance über drei Messzeitpunkte ($N = 276$) hinweg untersucht. Ziel der Studie war es, die Wirkrichtung zwischen dem Wohlbefinden der Führungskraft und ihrer Transformationalen Führung zu untersuchen. Außerdem wurde Team Performance als mögliche positive Auswirkung des Führungsverhaltens integriert und es wurde der Fragestellung eines möglichen Ressourcenprozesses als Aufbau vs. Verlust nachgegangen. Die Ergebnisse der Studie zeigten auf, dass das Wohlbefinden der Führungskraft (sowohl General Health als auch

Work Engagement als zwei Indikatoren) das Transformationale Führungsverhalten positiv über die Zeit hinweg vorhersagten. Außerdem konnte über das Wohlbefinden (General Health) der Führungskraft die Team Performance vorhergesagt werden, während diese im Gegenzug zu einer Verschlechterung des Wohlbefindens der Führungskraft führte und somit einen Ressourcenverlust darstellte.

Manuskript 2 befasste sich mit Role Clarity und Self-efficacy als Ressourcen, sowie Work Engagement als mögliche Antezedenzien für Transformationale Führung. Die Studie ($N = 216$) konnte erneut die positive Beziehung von Work Engagement als Indikator für das Wohlbefinden der Führungskraft auf die ausgeübte Transformationale Führung unterstreichen. Weiter konnte demonstriert werden, dass auch die beiden hier untersuchten Ressourcen einen positiven Einfluss auf das gezeigte Verhalten der Führungskraft hatten. Die Führungskräfte zeigten höhere Werte von Work Engagement und daraus folgend Transformationaler Führung, wenn Ressourcen (Role Clarity und Self-efficacy) in höherem Maße vorhanden waren. Beim Einbezug von sozialpsychologischen Determinanten wurde deutlich, dass affektives Commitment die positive Beziehung zwischen Work Engagement und Transformationaler Führung moderierte. Dementsprechend zeigte sich der positive Zusammenhang zwischen Work Engagement und Transformationaler Führung stärker, wenn die Führungskraft eine hohe Bindung zum Unternehmen angab. Die Ergebnisse aus dem zweiten Manuskript machen deutlich, dass bei der Ausübung von Transformationaler Führung soziale Wirkmechanismen eine Rolle spielen.

Im dritten Manuskript wurde die Rolle von Erwartungen an acht verschiedene Führungsverhalten (darunter ebenfalls Transformationale Führung) näher beleuchtet. Erwartungen als handlungsleitende Faktoren (Heckhausen, 1977) wurden hinsichtlich vier unterschiedlicher Führungsergebnisse, nämlich Arbeitszufriedenheit, Wohlbefinden, Leistung und affektives Commitment der Geführten verglichen. Weiter wurden die verschiedenen Verhaltensweisen einer Führungskraft auch hinsichtlich deren wahrgenommener Attraktivität

verglichen. Darüber hinaus wurde die Beziehung zwischen den Ergebniserwartungen und dem von der Führungskraft selbst gezeigtem Führungsverhalten untersucht. Die Ergebnisse der quasi-experimentellen Studie ($N = 440$ gesamt, $N = 95$ Führungskräfte) zeigten signifikante Unterschiede in der Einschätzung der verschiedenen Führungsverhaltensweisen sowohl bezogen auf die Ergebniserwartungen als auch bei der Einschätzung der Attraktivität durch die Befragten. Demnach konnte gezeigt werden, dass unterschiedliches Führungsverhalten mit unterschiedlichen Erwartungen verknüpft ist und als unterschiedlich attraktiv wahrgenommen wird. Darüber hinaus konnte ein Zusammenhang zwischen den Erwartungen an Führungsverhalten und selbst gezeigtem Verhalten der Führungskraft festgestellt werden.

Resümiert erbringen die drei Manuskripte Anhaltspunkte dafür, dass Führungskräfte für die Ausübung von Transformationaler Führung ausreichend Ressourcen benötigen und, dass bei der Betrachtung von Führung auch soziale Wirkfaktoren miteinbezogen werden sollten. Die Ergebnisse dieser Dissertation bestärken, dass in etablierten arbeitspsychologischen Theorien unbedingt sozialpsychologische Faktoren miteinbezogen und berücksichtigt werden sollten. Letztendlich werden durch die vorliegende Arbeit vorhandene arbeitspsychologische Theorien durch sozialpsychologische Annahmen theoretisch erweitert. Ein besseres Verständnis der Mechanismen und Antezedenzen, die zu Transformationalem Verhalten der Führungskraft führen, würde helfen dieses erfolgsversprechende Führungsverhalten mehr zu fördern und Führungskräfte und Organisationen dahingehend zu unterstützen. Entsprechend sind die Ergebnisse von theoretischem und insbesondere von praktischem Nutzen.

English Summary

This dissertation looks at underlying mechanisms in the performance of leadership. Specifically, we examine possible antecedents that enable the leader to lead in a transformational way. We link existing resource theories such as Hobfoll's Conservation of Resources theory (1989) and the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017), and apply them in the leadership context. In addition, social factors are also included so that the existing theoretical assumptions are also linked to social-psychological processes, building a bridge between work-psychological and social-psychological knowledge.

In the present work, three research questions are addressed: 1) How are leaders' well-being and their leadership behavior related? 2) How do leaders' resources shape their leadership behavior? 3) How is the leader's behavior influenced by social-psychological factors in terms of a social work environment?

In the first manuscript, we examined the relationship between leaders' well-being, their demonstrated transformational leadership, and team performance across three measurement time points ($N = 276$). We addressed the question of the direction of the relationship between leaders' well-being and their transformational leadership. We also integrated team performance as a potential positive effect of transformational leadership behavior and explored the question of a possible resource process as gain vs. loss. The study results indicated that leaders' well-being (indicated through general health and work engagement) positively predicted their transformational leadership behavior over time. In addition, leaders' well-being (general health) predicted team performance, which led to decreased leaders' well-being, representing a loss of resources.

Manuscript 2 focused on role clarity and self-efficacy as resources and work engagement as possible antecedents for transformational leadership. The study ($N = 216$)

again emphasized the positive relationship between work engagement and transformational leadership. Further, it was demonstrated that the two resources examined here also positively influenced the demonstrated leadership behavior. In addition, the model included social-psychological processes. Affective commitment moderated the positive relationship between work engagement and transformational leadership. The relationship was even stronger when leaders indicated a high level of commitment to the organization. Study 2 made clear that leadership is always something social, and that social mechanisms of action play a role.

In the third manuscript, the role of expectations in eight different leadership behaviors – including transformational leadership behavior – (displayed as scenarios) was examined in more detail. Expectations as leading factors (Heckhausen, 1977) were compared with regard to four different leadership outcomes; namely, job satisfaction, well-being, performance, and affective commitment of the employee. Further, leadership behaviors were compared in terms of their attractiveness. In addition, the relationship between outcome expectations and self-perceived leadership behaviors was examined. The results of the quasi-experimental study ($N = 440$ in total, $N = 95$ leader) showed significant differences in the assessment of the different leadership behaviors as well as a correlation between self-perceived leadership behavior and rated expectations in the different scenarios regarding the displayed leadership scenarios.

In summary, the three manuscripts provide evidence that leaders need sufficient existing resources to practice transformational leadership. Moreover, the dissertation confirms that social-psychological factors play an important role in explaining leadership behavior and should be considered in established work psychology theories. Thus, this dissertation theoretically extends existing stress and resource-based assumptions on how organizational outcome evolves with social-psychological assumptions. Furthermore, it demonstrates that leadership cannot be considered alone – by only looking at the leader him-/herself – but that leaders are part of a social group and environment. Therefore, social-psychological aspects

and expectations should also be included to explain leaders' behavior. Finally, a better understanding of the underlying mechanisms and antecedents for transformational leadership would help to promote this promising leadership behavior more and support leaders and organizations in this direction. Consequently, the results are of both theoretical and practical value.

Introduction

Leadership and, as a result, leaders, have tremendous influence. Even by definition, a leader stands for a person with influence (Northouse, 2010; Yukl, 2006). This influence is exerted on different aspects and in different ways.

Research has proven the impact of leadership on employees' well-being, job satisfaction, performance, and, ultimately, the success or failure of an entire organization (Inceoglu et al., 2018; Kuoppala et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2020; Peng et al., 2020). In this context, the leader seems to be assigned a significant position in the organizational setting, which is also accompanied by many expectations.

In today's rapidly changing workplace, with lack of qualified workers and increasing demands, change and transformation are becoming ever more important. Transformational leadership as one of the most researched leadership behaviors in the past decades (Mhatre & Riggio, 2014), seems to have the potential to remedy this (Farahnak et al., 2020; Peng et al., 2020).

Transformational leadership has been shown in previous research to have a positive impact on team performance, innovation, and change management (Jia et al., 2018; Ng, 2017; Pearce & Sims, 2002). Further, a leader with high levels of transformational leadership appears to contribute to followers reporting greater well-being, higher job satisfaction, and stronger commitment to the organization (Braun et al., 2013; Kelloway et al., 2012; Podsakoff et al., 1996). Leaders high in transformational leadership lead by uniting their followers through the development of a common goal and vision, and throughout this process, the focus is on higher-level intrinsic needs (Bass, 1985). They behave as role models for the team and address and nurture the needs of individuals.

Despite the extensive research that has been conducted on the impact of transformational leadership on the follower, it remains relatively unclear to this day what the

leader needs to behave accordingly. This shortcoming is most relevant to the present work and its importance shall be explained in the following sections.

Behavior can be explained by different theories. Both motivational processes – including the presence of resources – and social processes play an important role. Resources determine, according to the motivational pathway of the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017), the extent to which we feel able to withstand certain challenges and be sufficiently able to do so. Although the link between leaders' well-being (functioning as a resource) and leadership is widely established (Arnold & Connelly, 2013; Harms et al., 2017), its exact direction and underlying dynamics have not been fully elucidated (Kaluza et al., 2019). Nevertheless, resources seem to be an important component in the process of ultimately acting out or exhibiting specific behaviors.

In terms of leadership behavior, the behavior of a leader means to show a behavior that is directed toward followers. The resulting interaction between follower and leader always implies that there is a social aspect to it (Yukl, 2006). The social-psychological component in the explanation of behavior should not be missed and has often been neglected in the leadership literature. Ultimately, our behavior is also shaped by our social environment, including expectations, social identities, and feelings of belonging. With the help of sociopsychological theories and expectancy models, these processes can be explained.

The present dissertation aims to contribute to the leadership literature by investigating a) what a leader needs to behave in a transformational way, in terms of examining potential resources, b) how sociopsychological processes shape the relationship between leaders' well-being and transformational leadership, and c) to what extent leadership expectations play a role in certain leadership behaviors. On a practical point, the following manuscripts highlight in which way leaders can be supported and encouraged to exhibit beneficial leadership behaviors such as transformational leadership. Further, they give clues as to how leadership development trainings and organizations could impact the behavior performed by the leader.

In the following sections, an overview of the most relevant theories, concepts, and empirical results are given, which form the conceptual model of this dissertation. Second, the central research questions are derived. Next, the three manuscripts are introduced. Finally, the core findings are discussed, as well as limitations, avenues for future research, and practical implications.

Theoretical and Empirical Background

The main concepts and theories of the dissertation are presented, and the current research questions are addressed below. The presented dissertation bridges the gap between resource and motivation theories and integrates a social-psychological component of social identity.

The Function of Resources in the Job Demands-Resources Model and the Conservation of Resources Theory

The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model is a theoretical framework to understand underlying processes in the context of work affecting organizational outcomes (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014, 2017). The model is based on the prediction that psychosocial work characteristics can be assigned into either job resources or job demands, and that job resources are the main predictors of work engagement, while job demands predict negative job strain (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, 2017; Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). The JD-R model and its assumptions are supported by cross-sectional and longitudinal evidence, across several populations, countries, and occupations (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017; Lesener et al., 2019).

The proposed JD-R model explains organizational outcomes by two relatively independent psychological processes. First, the *health impairment process* builds up on high job demands and results in exhaustion for the employee. Job demands can, therefore, be

classified as job aspects, which require sustained physical and/or mental effort and, therefore, involve physical and/or psychological costs such as high workload or emotional demands.

Second, the *motivational process* of the JD-R model is based on job resources.

Resources are an important psychological construct, especially in the context of work and stress relations, and can be defined as objects, states, conditions, energies, and other things that people value (Hobfoll, 1989). Thus, job resources refer to physical, psychological, social, or organizational job aspects, which support achieving goals, reducing job demands, and, further, contributing to one own's growth and development (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011).

In the present dissertation (job) resources (i.e., role clarity) are examined more closely in this theoretical framework (see Manuscript 2). Besides, personal resources (such as self-efficacy) are investigated and integrated (see also Manuscript 2). The study by Xanthopoulou and Bakker (2007) also made efforts to integrate personal resources into the JD-R model and to understand their potential. In doing so, the authors go one step further and integrated the Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory by Hobfoll (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll et al., 2018) to explain the function of resources, while identifying some common ground between those two theoretical concepts.

The COR is built on the assumptions that behavior is based on the evolutionary need to acquire and conserve resources for survival, and that humans use their resources not only to respond successfully to challenges but also to build a reservoir of sustaining resources for later times. The theory drives on several principles, like the principle of resource loss and resource investment. Thus, a resource loss is defined as more harmful for the individual than it is helpful to gain the resources lost (principle 1), and further those individuals invest resources to protect against loss, recover from losses, and gain resources (principle 2; Hobfoll et al., 2002). Beyond that, the theory derives three main corollaries (Hobfoll et al., 2018), which are 1) individuals with a greater pool of resources are in a better position to invest

them; 2) resource loss spirals can occur, when individuals lose resources; and 3) resource gain spirals tend to be slower and weaker.

Integrating the second principle of COR theory in the motivational process of the JD-R model, we would expect that the availability of resources would lead to an accumulation of resources, and thus more positive organizational outcomes would emerge. Propositions of the JD-R model are already partly consistent with Hobfoll's COR theory (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017), and underline common ground, and their integrability, as well as the important position of resources. While studies on the JD-R model focus solely on work characteristics, the extension on Hobfoll's COR theory made it possible to also integrate other resources (such as personal resources) and a broader scope, and to investigate them in the underlying processes.

Taken together, the *motivational process* is initiated by the availability of (not only job) resources, which play an intrinsic and extrinsic motivational role and foster well-being (e.g., work engagement), resulting in positive organizational outcomes. In the JD-R model, therefore, an integration of a broader concept of resources can take place by following Hobfoll's theory and be extended beyond the work characteristics that have been exclusively considered so far. Despite the extension and closer examination of the underlying mechanisms in relation to the role of resources, the described process towards organizational outcome takes place in a social context. The social-psychological component is missing in this theoretical framework so far.

Taking Social Components into Account

Both empirical and theoretical evidence indicate that organizational outcome and work-related behavior are also influenced by social-psychological factors. Therefore, behavior is also determined by the social environment (Bandura, 2004; 1986).

The Social Identity Theory

Tajfel (1978) introduced the idea of social identity to explain individuals' attitudes and behaviors. According to the social identity theory (Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel & Turner, 1979)

individuals seek positive evaluations and extend this motivation to an individual's group memberships or social identities (Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Further, the social identity theory postulates that individuals have different identities open to them, including personal and social ones, which determine a person's self-concept. Each identity reflects an individual's self-worth and self-esteem, which, in turn, is the base for cognitive, emotional, and motivational processes (Tajfel, 1978, 1982).

To sum up, individuals form a social identity by their organizational belonging. Feeling like being a "member" of the organization one is working for, hence, influences the individual's emotion, cognition, and behavior. These social processes should not be neglected under any circumstances. Nevertheless, social identity theory as a social theory is poorly considered in how it affects propositions of the JD-R, and, thus, the influence of resources.

The Role of Expectations

Action describes the performance of a motion with the expectation of certain consequences (Ajzen, 1991). The resulting intention to behave ultimately guides the following action. Behavioral and motivational theories explain how people take actions to achieve an expected outcome. In this regard, individuals are said to be particularly motivated to act or not act in a certain way if the outcome is desirable. We know that cognitive, motivational, emotional, and even actional processes are controlled by subjective expectations (Bandura, 1977).

Therefore, expectations appear to play a special role in the explanation of behavior. Some theories include the effects of expectations in their assumptions. One of the first theories to be applied in the workplace environment was the expectancy-value theory of Vroom (1964). Unlike before, this theory did not focus on the needs of the individual (cf. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, Maslow, 1943), but rather on desired outcomes, which was revolutionary at the time. In expectancy theory, expectancy is the factor that refers to the individual's belief that his or her effort will produce the output or goal expected of him or her.

Outcome expectancies are essential components of expectancy-value models (Atkinson, 1957; Heckhausen & Rheinberg, 1980; Vroom, 1964). Thus, each outcome expectation, if it is positive, has a reinforcing component that can be rewarding. That is, an expectation that the desired outcome can be achieved by the action. This leads to the conclusion that personal expectations can influence our behavior.

The Behavior of the Leader

Leadership behavior describes how leaders behave toward their followers. The term refers to different behaviors leaders engage in, which affect their followers' actions, feelings, and attitudes – and, consequently, the functioning of teams and the whole organization (Ceri-Booms et al., 2017). Leadership has attracted enormous research in the last four decades and is one of the most important topics in human science (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005). Since research to study leadership began in the mid 1980s, different theories have been derived that draw a heterogenous picture on the concept of leadership. What they have in common is that they try to describe and explain how leadership behavior affects employees.

Leading Transformational

The concept of transformational leadership was derived more than 40 years ago and is now one of the most prevalent approaches to understanding individual, group, and organizational effectiveness (Avolio et al., 2009; Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Peng et al., 2021; G. Wang et al., 2011). Up until now, transformational leadership has been one of the most discussed leadership behaviors in organizational literature and has attracted huge attention by researchers and practitioners (Bass, 1985; Finckler, 2017; Howell & Avolio, 1993).

Transformational leadership has repeatedly shown its great influence on follower behavior, team effectiveness, and organizational outcomes (Ceri-Booms et al., 2017). To start with, transformational leadership has been found to be one of the most health-promoting kinds of leadership for its followers (Arnold, 2017; Hentrich et al., 2017). It affects follower performance (Boerner et al., 2007; G. Wang et al., 2011), as well as their organizational

citizenship behavior (Podsakoff et al., 1990). Transformational leaders are found to promote their followers' satisfaction and organizational commitment (Podsakoff et al., 1996).

Moreover, transformational leadership is associated with a positive team and safety climate (Mullen & Kelloway, 2009) and shows beneficial influence for team interaction and team outcome (Chai et al., 2017; Rebelo et al., 2018).

Transformational leaders influence their followers' beliefs, needs, and values by motivating and inspiring them (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987). According to Bass, Howell and Avolio (1985; 1993), transformational leadership behavior consists of four subdimensions: idealized influence (admirable leadership and the followers' identification with the leader), inspirational motivation (motivating followers to rally around a vision for future goals, and offering meaningful tasks), intellectual stimulation (stimulating and promoting creativity) and, lastly, individual consideration (responding to the individual needs of followers). Transformational leadership is a leadership behavior in which leaders unite their followers through the development of a common goal and vision, and throughout this process, the focus is on higher-level, intrinsic needs (Bass, 1985). Thus, transformational leaders act as role models, provide meaning to followers' work, create and communicate clear visions, and further, encourage followers to challenge and reframe problems creatively and innovatively. Moreover, they recognize individual team members' needs, abilities, and goals and respond accordingly to each to empower their individual strengths (Avolio et al., 1991).

While there is profound evidence for the great influence and effects of transformational leadership through previous research, there is no question that this leadership behavior should be encouraged. However, it is currently still uncertain how such transformational leadership behavior is achieved exactly, or what is needed to become a transformational leader (Jin et al., 2016). Since research began on transformational leadership, this question has been considered within different perspectives. Besides the consideration of early life experiences (Avolio, 1994), motivation as an effect on transformational leadership

(Barbuto, 2005) was investigated. Further, as possible antecedents, personality factors have been discussed, so far with ambiguous results. A meta-analytic review of leadership literature (Bono & Judge, 2004) found that a large proportion of between-person variability in transformational leadership remains unexplained by leader traits. Bommer and colleagues (2004) therefore specified the social context as a factor, which facilitates or inhibits transformational behavior and found that cynicism and peer leadership behavior should, for example, be taken into account when explaining transformational leadership.

More recent studies considered affective and attitudinal antecedents for the explanation of transformational leadership and investigated leaders' psychological states and job attitudes (Jin et al., 2016; Joseph et al., 2015). Moreover, scholars explored the effect of the work environment when enacting transformational leadership behavior (Zhang et al., 2014).

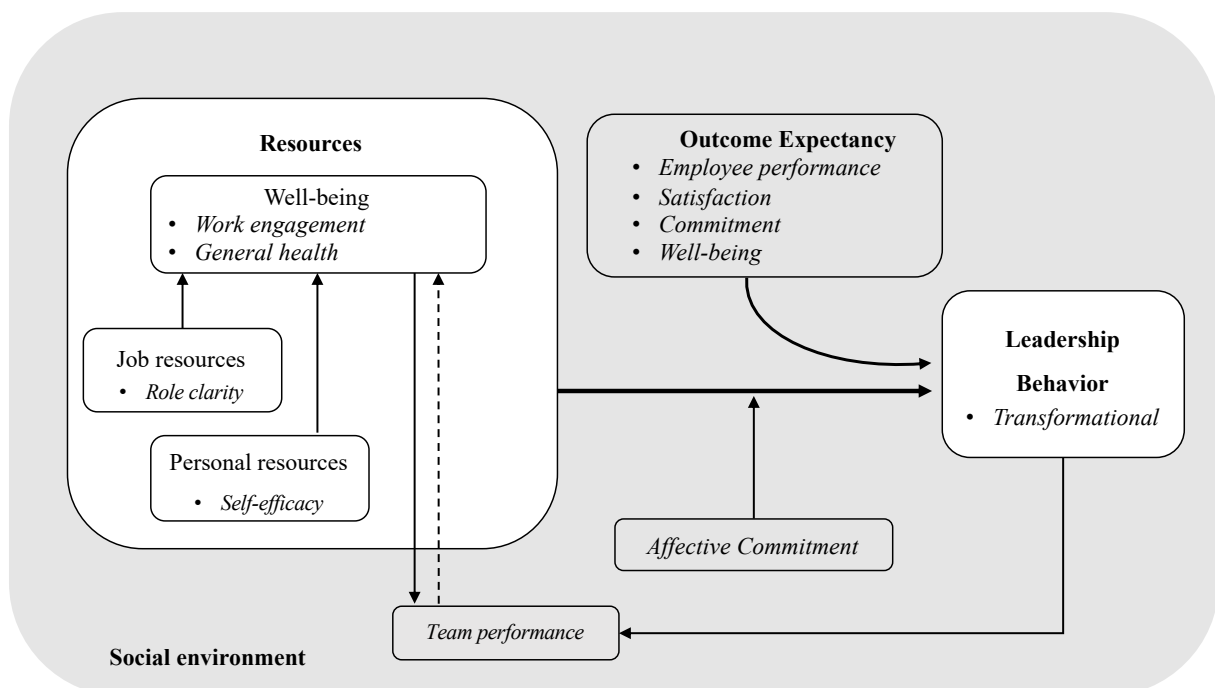
As for now, different perspectives were considered to explain this valuable leadership behavior with mixed success. Ultimately, the question remains open as to what it takes to perform transformational leadership behavior.

Conceptual Framework of the Dissertation

In the previous sections, the main theories and elements that form the basis of this present dissertation have been addressed and outlined. By integrating these, the underlying model of this thesis is drawn, which is illustrated in a simplified form in Figure 1. The model is based on the motivational pathway of the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017), and integrates the COR theory by Hobfoll (1989) in relation to existing resources to demonstrate possible processes. Moreover, this framework is extended by the consideration of a social-psychological background, and therefore includes a social perspective on the phenomenon of transformational leadership behavior.

Figure 1

Conceptual model of the present dissertation



Note. The dotted lines indicate relations that are found to be negative.

This model overcomes the previous shortcomings in the leadership literature to explain an underlying mechanism to what it needs to lead. The motivational pathway from (job and personal) resources to job performance via work engagement is well established in the literature (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017), but a translation into the context of leadership and, in particular, as an explanation of the performance of the leader is lacking.

The role of resource availability for behavior performance has already been scientifically proven (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Tisu et al., 2021); however, in the field of leadership, empirical evidence is still rare. Specifically, the underlying processes of resource buildup and utilization appear to have been little empirically investigated to date.

However, in addition to a consideration of stress and motivational theories in the context of how leadership behavior can be predicted, the social-psychological perspective also is crucially missing. Leadership and leadership behavior always seem to go hand in hand with social interactions and to manifest themselves against a social environment (Chemers, 2001). Therefore, it seems inevitable to also consider social processes in the performance of leadership behavior. The research questions of the dissertation are based on this presented model outlined (see Figure 1) and get to the bottom of the previous shortfalls in leadership literature. They are described in detail in the following paragraphs.

Research Question 1: How are Leaders' Well-being and Their Leadership Behavior Related?

There is no doubt, that leaders' well-being and their leadership behavior are related. Meta-analyses gave evidence for this existing association (Harms et al., 2017). However, the exact direction and causality of this relationship has not yet been clearly identified (Barling & Cloutier, 2017; Kaluza et al., 2019). Previous research has shown that transformational leadership affects the well-being of a leader in terms of promotion and/or impairment (Lin et

al., 2019; Zwingmann et al., 2016), and further, is affected by the level of leaders' well-being itself (Kaluza et al., 2019).

With this research we aim to contribute to a better understanding of how leaders' leadership behavior and their well-being are linked to each other. Therefore, Research Question 1 addresses the empirical examination of the underlying process between leaders' well-being and their performed transformational leadership behavior and their potential causality. By applying COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll et al., 2002) Manuscript 1 tries to shed light on the process between well-being (indicated through general health and work engagement) and transformational leadership. Further, Manuscript 2 examines the link between work engagement and demonstrated leadership behavior by using the JD-R model as a theoretical framework. The assumed effect of leaders' work engagement on their transformational leadership is statistically underpinned.

Research Question 2: How do Leaders' Resources Shape Their Leadership Behavior?

The second research question concerns how resources relate to leaders' transformational leadership. Evidence shows that resources are very important and especially valued in overcoming challenges (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Studies have already shown that different resources in the work context are considered as support and are necessary conditions for employees' health, as well as their satisfaction or intentions to quit (Bakker et al., 2005; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, 2014). The role of resources in the context of work performance has also been repeatedly documented and also meta-analytically demonstrated (Kim, 2017).

Resources are a critical component of the JD-R model and are also reflected in COR theory (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014; Hobfoll et al., 2018). Thus, the function of resources and their important relevance is not only assumed in various theories, but also empirically supported with these theories. While the importance of resources for employees has attracted a lot of research, a transfer to the leader and an examination of whether the assumed

mechanisms can be adopted for the leader is still missing. Research has, so far, scantily considered the influence of resources on the performance of leaders, i.e., their leadership behavior.

Beyond this, the processes of resources in terms of a possible gain or loss are examined. In the following manuscripts, different resources and types of resources are considered. As suggested by Hobfoll et al. (2018), well-being is one of these desirable personal resources and, therefore, plays an important role. Thus, well-being is considered as an essential resource (Manuscripts 1 and 2), and specific job resources are examined in more detail, such as role clarity (Manuscript 2). Furthermore, personal resources might play a role. In this regard, self-efficacy is examined as a personal resource in Manuscript 2.

Research Question 3: How is the Leader's Behavior Influenced by Social-Psychological Factors in Terms of a Social Work Environment?

Against the background that leadership always means that at least two individuals come together, it seems inevitable to include and consider social aspects in the explanation of leadership behavior. Leadership always involves social interaction, which is accompanied by social processes (Maramygin et al., 2019). This does not only imply the question of how leadership influences team processes. On the other hand, it raises the question of how the leader herself/himself is influenced by the social environment, for example the team, or the individual follower.

Reciprocal effects could also play a role here. Studies have already shown that there are cross-over effects not only from the leader to the follower (Gutermann et al., 2017; Li et al., 2016), but also vice versa. Hence, research has demonstrated that followers' stressors – as indicated through workload and physical strain – affects their leaders' stressors in return and reciprocally influence each other (Pindek et al., 2020). Furthermore, empirical found crossover effects from followers' work engagement to leaders' work engagement (Wirtz et

al., 2017) highlight the importance of evaluate leadership and leaders in the social system. Extending this line of thinking offers some interesting avenues to consider as well, not only impairing crossover effects, but also the social system as a beneficial environment for potential crossovers (Hobfoll et al., 2018).

The leader is indisputably part of the social system, whether within an organization or a group. In conclusion, the consideration of social-psychological factors seems very significant in explaining the behavior of the leader. Research Question 3, therefore, addresses how leaders' behavior is influenced by social-psychological factors, which will be partly examined in all three manuscripts. In Manuscript 1, we examined how team performance affects the leaders' resources and his or her leadership behavior as part of the resource spiral. With an even greater focus on the underlying social processes, I composed two sub-questions in the following.

Research Question 3a: What Role Does Leaders' Affective Commitment Play for their Leadership Behavior?

Social identity theory states that we draw our self-concept from different group memberships (Tajfel, 1978). We belong to important groups in the work context and "own" several memberships. This can be the team, the department, or the entire organization. If we are part of a group we might feel a belonging, and, under certain circumstances, we develop commitment to the group (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000). Affective commitment is defined as the individuals' identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Mowday et al., 1982), which is considered an emotional bond between an employee and the organization. Individuals with high levels of affective commitment are highly emotionally attached to the organization, in which the individual identifies with the organization and enjoys membership in it. Thus, it refers to the desire to stay with the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Affective commitment as a factor, which evolves through social processes, has been associated with beneficial work outcomes such as job performance (Hunter & Thatcher, 2007; Riketta, 2002), and previously has been exploited as a moderating factor within processes in the work context (Cao et al., 2020; Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012), e.g., to buffer stress in the relation to turnover intention (Tetteh et al., 2020).

Thus, Research Question 3a draws on the role of affective commitment for leaders' behavior and aims on including social-psychological theories such as the social identity theory (Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel & Turner, 1979) into the explanation of transformational leadership behavior.

Research Question 3b: What Role Do Expectancies about Leadership Outcome Play for Leaders' Behavior?

Beyond the aspects just mentioned, our expectations also decisively predict our behavior. This assumption is based on theories from the field of expectancy theories and explained behavior (Ajzen, 1991; Heckhausen & Rheinberg, 1980; Vroom, 1964). Expectations have been considered in previous research in the field of implicit leadership research, with the results finding that followers have internalized certain stereotypes related to leadership (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005). However, expectations related to leadership outcome, i.e., the effects of leadership behaviors, to ultimately predict potential factors influencing behaviors is entirely new. These expectations might be formed through experience and the social environment.

In line with that thinking, in this dissertation, the behavior performed by the leader as leadership behavior in terms of underlying expectations is examined. After all, expectations are another socially shaped component that can influence behavior. This leads to Research Question 3b, which explores the question to what extent expectations shape leadership behavior. Manuscript 3 focuses on this question and sheds light into this field.

Overview of the Manuscripts

This section provides a concise description of the three manuscripts and their core findings. Table 1 lists which of the research questions are addressed in each of the manuscripts.

Table 1

Overview of Research Questions

Research Questions		Manuscript 1	Manuscript 2	Manuscript3
1	How are leaders' well-being and their leadership behavior related?	X	X	
2	How do leaders' resources shape their leadership behavior?	X	X	
3	How is the leader's behavior influenced by social-psychological factors in terms of a social work environment?	X	Xa	Xb

Manuscript 1: It All Comes Back to Health: A Three-Wave Cross-Lagged Study of Leaders' Well-Being, Team Performance, and Their Transformational Leadership

Appeared as: Geibel, H. V., Rigotti, T., & Otto, K. (2022). It All Comes Back to Health: A Three-Wave Cross-Lagged Study of Leaders' Well-Being, Team Performance, and Transformational Leadership. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*.

<https://doi.org/10.1111/jasp.12877>

Rationale and Theoretical Background

Building on Hobfoll's COR theory (1989), we assumed that leaders' well-being functions as a resource and, therefore, facilitates transformational leadership behavior, which results in higher team performance. Moreover, we explored the question of whether this ultimately means a resource gain or loss for the leader. Moreover, by integrating the leaders' team performance, we aimed to represent a potential resource process over time, which was theoretical based on the COR theory.

Methods

Data was collected from $N = 276$ leaders (55.8% women; mean age = 45 years) across three waves. The link between leaders' well-being, which was reflected by perceived general health and work engagement (indicated through dedication and vigor), their self-appraised transformational leadership behavior, and team performance was tested by applying a cross-lagged path analysis using SPSS Amos. For preliminary data analysis, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted as well as a test for measurement invariance and a dropout analysis to screen for potential selection bias. Additionally, specific indirect effects were examined.

Results

The results indicated a significant positive effect of leaders' well-being (true for work engagement and general health) on their transformational leadership behavior over time, and

leaders' general health on team performance. Moreover, the reversed causation cross-lagged effect from transformational leadership to leaders' general health was found to be negative between the first measure wave, and positive between the second measure wave in terms of leaders' work engagement.

However, our results further indicate that higher team performance might diminish the leaders' own well-being over time, indicating a resource loss. Additional specific indirect effects revealed a significant positive effect of leaders' general health on team performance mediated by transformational leadership, and a significant negative indirect effect of transformational leadership via team performance on work engagement and on general health. Further, significant indirect effects of transformational leadership on team performance via general health and work engagement were found.

Discussion

Our findings support the assumption that leaders' well-being must be seen as a requirement for their ability to execute transformational leadership behavior, which in turn fosters team performance and subsequently depletes leaders' resources. Practical implications around the field of leaders' well-being and the benefits for organizations as well as further implications for research around the COR theory are pointed out and discussed.

Manuscript 2: Commitment is the Key: A Moderated Mediation Model Linking Leaders' Resources, Work Engagement, and Transformational Leadership Behavior

Appeared as: Geibel, H. V., & Otto, K. (2022). Commitment is the Key: A Moderated Mediation Model Linking Leaders' Resources, Work Engagement, and Transformational Leadership Behavior. *Psychological reports*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00332941221074256>

Rationale and Theoretical Background

Based on the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017), we hypothesized that leaders' personal (self-efficacy) and job (role clarity) resources eventually enhance their transformational leadership, through fostering work engagement. Integrating the social identity theory (Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel & Turner, 1979) within this conceptual framework, we argue that leaders (only) devote their resources to performance when they feel a strong sense of belonging to their organization, thus feeling affectively committed to it (Jaramillo et al., 2005). We, therefore, considered social processes within the motivational pathway of the JD-R model and include the social identity theory. Finally, we proposed that the link between work engagement and transformational behavior is moderated by leaders' affective commitment.

Methods

Data was collected from $N = 216$ German leaders (60.6% male; mean age = 46.48 years) in 2020 via an online survey. Hypotheses were tested by applying a moderated mediation model linking resources, engagement, commitment, and leadership behavior. Due to the cross-sectional structure of the data, the problem of potential endogeneity was addressed by applying the instrumental variables regression (IVR) model as a method to determine the causal effect of work engagement on transformational leadership (Sajons, 2020). For preliminary data analysis, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted providing

support for best model fit to treat the five factors as distinct components in the proposed model.

Results

As predicted, both self-efficacy and role clarity enhanced leaders' transformational behavior, while the relation was mediated through leaders' work engagement. Moreover, the moderation analysis showed that the relationship between leaders' work engagement and performance of transformational leadership behavior was stronger when they felt a strong belonging and emotional attachment to their organization, showing high levels of affective commitment. In addition, the IVR model gave approval for the causal effect of leaders' work engagement on their subsequent transformational behavior.

Discussion

Our research gains insights into the underlying mechanisms leading from leaders' resources to their transformational behavior and contributes to a better understanding of relevant antecedents to ultimately engage in transformational leadership. Further, the study demonstrates that affective commitment is crucial to whether and to what extent the available resources are ultimately employed to behave in a transformational way. The findings are managerially relevant because they help specify the effects of resources, work engagement and affective commitment on leadership behavior. Finally, the results give us an idea of how to promote leaders' transformational behavior.

Manuscript 3: A Matter of Expectations: A Scenario-based Approach on Leaders' Leadership Behavior.

Citation: Geibel, H. V., & Otto, K. (2022). (submitted). A matter of expectations: A scenario-based approach on leaders' leadership behavior. *Journal of Organizational & Leadership Studies*.

Rationale and Theoretical Background

Leadership behavior has been a widely studied subject over the last decades, with varying evidence of effectiveness regarding specific leadership behaviors (e.g., Lee et al., 2020; Schyns & Schilling, 2013). Research has provided ample evidence of the effectiveness of some leadership behaviors and positive effects on work-related employee outcomes (Harms et al., 2017). However, it is unclear whether the “researched” subjects themselves also have efficacy expectations for specific leadership behaviors.

Expectations have great influence on our behavior (Heckhausen, 1977). Accordingly, leaders' expectations about leadership behavior considered to be more or less effective is of particular importance. The aim of the study was to examine expectations on how certain leadership behaviors shape work-relevant factors. Furthermore, we wanted to discover whether expectations are related to the behavior displayed. Accordingly, we investigated the expectations in a convenient sample of German employees and compared them with the expectations of employees in a leadership position and their own leadership behavior.

Methods

Using a scenario-based approach, an online study was conducted, displaying eight different leadership behaviors reflecting and extending the full range model of leadership (passive, directive, aversive, contingent reward, and transformational with its subdimensions of high-performance expectancy, individual consideration, and intellectual stimulation).

Participants were asked to rate each scenario regarding the expected influence of the described leadership behavior on several outcomes such as employees' performance, well-being, affective commitment, and job satisfaction. Further, they were asked to rate whether they would like to work with a leader displaying this particular leadership behavior.

Participants who stated that they held a leadership position themselves were also asked to rate their own leadership behavior on the corresponding scales (of the scenarios).

Results

A sample of 440 participants was collected, including 95 leaders. Results revealed significant differences between the ratings of the eight scenarios concerning the different work-related outcomes. Beyond that, the results showed that among the leaders, the ratings of the scenarios and their expectations towards the outcomes were associated with their own displayed leadership behavior. Additional analyses revealed that ratings of the displayed scenarios did not differ between the leaders and the followers in terms of their evaluation concerning followers' outcome and attributed attraction. An exception was the evaluation of providing individualized support. Results indicated that leaders expected this leadership behavior to have less impact on followers' performance and viewed it as less attractive.

Discussion

Derived from the results, from a practical point of view, leadership development training could be better adapted by considering the existing expectations of the leaders taking part in such trainings. Specifically, the leaders' expectations of the efficiency of the behavior to be learned should be thoroughly questioned.

The study contributes to uncover expectations that are placed on certain leadership behavior and whether and how these are related to the behavior ultimately exhibited. We investigate the potential discrepancy between scientific research knowledge when it comes to effective leadership and the expectations held by employees and leaders and, therefore, address a possible science-practice gap.

General Discussion

Leadership behavior plays a significant role in our everyday life, but above all in our working world. In the last decades, previous research has laid a great foundation on how transformational leadership can influence the followers, the team, and the whole organization. Especially in times of rapid change, transformational leadership seems exceptionally indispensable and beneficial (Peng et al., 2021). The dissertation aims to understand what leaders need in terms of transformational leadership. In this respect, the present research attempts to close previous shortcomings and, in detail, to put the leader himself/herself in the light of observation to contribute to research in the field of leadership. Furthermore, the dissertation goes beyond the boundaries of previous stress and motivation theories and attempts an integration of already existing social-psychological theories to provide a multi-layered perspective on the ultimate exercise of certain behaviors of the leader. Finally, the work builds a bridge between science and practice and strives to fill existing gaps.

Discussion of Research Question 1

Research Question 1 addresses how leaders' well-being and their leadership behavior – in particular, transformational leadership behavior – are related. By applying this research question the importance of well-being – not only for followers but for leaders as well – confirmed what was strongly claimed by Barling and Cloutier (2017).

Manuscript 1 dealt with the question of how the two well-being indicators (general health and work engagement) are related to the behavior displayed by the leader. As already demonstrated in the overview by Kaluza and colleagues (2019), we were able to replicate the existing connection between leaders' well-being and their behavior. Our concern, however, was to show the direction and effects between the two constructs in more detail. The results from the first study, which measured transformational leadership and well-being across three measurement points, were as predicted. First, the results demonstrated that well-being predicts

leadership behavior, both the general health of the leader and work engagement, and therefore support the theoretical assumption that well-being as a leader's resource is needed to perform in a transformational way. In line with the COR theory by Hobfoll (1989), the process of resource investment could be empirically represented. Further, the results stand in line with previous findings concerning the link between well-being and performance (Hakanen et al., 2008; Zhang, 2013) but extend them to the field of leadership. With high levels of well-being – work engagement, and general health, respectively – leaders could invest the resource into enacting higher levels of transformational leadership behavior.

Second, the results of the first manuscript showed that transformational leadership was also able to predict leaders' well-being. Our findings supported the theoretically derived assumption of a potential resource loss for general health, and the process of resource gain for work engagement. Theoretically integrated into Hobfoll's COR theory (1989), we were able to empirically demonstrate the resource gain/loss spiral in relation to the leader. Nevertheless, the findings were only true for general health within the first wave, which accounted 14 months, and for work engagement within the second wave, which captured a period of eight months. For work engagement, our findings indicate a resource gain spiral, underlining the valuable function of work engagement, which has been demonstrated in existing evidence (Borst et al., 2020). The results were not replicated in the respective different time span. This raises the question of whether the time span is important for a reliable representation of the process. Consequently, the results would indicate that, first, a resource increases, i.e., a resource gain occurs, but in on the long run the resource reservoir lacks, i.e., resource loss takes place. The role of time for the proposed assumptions of the COR theory is also postulated as an important element to investigate in (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Extending this line of thinking, our results underline that the factor of time plays a significant role in examining the proposed processes of the COR theory.

Another explanation would be that the two well-being indicators are based on different processes. In the end, the results suggest that the relationship between transformational leadership and leader well-being appears to be more complex than suggested by straightforward resource depletion or gain, and that further investigation is needed.

Manuscript 2 further examined the link between work engagement and transformational leadership behavior and assumed in line with the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) that work engagement functions as a predictor for organizational outcome – in this case, transformational behavior. The assumed causality between work engagement and demonstrated leadership behavior could, therefore, be statistically strengthened by applying the calculation of an IVR model (Sajons, 2020), although the data was of cross-sectional nature.

In sum, our results support the assumption that well-being such as general health and work engagement support transformational leadership behavior, stating a positive relation. In contrast, the direction of leaders' transformational behavior on their well-being needs further investigation.

Discussion of Research Question 2

Research Question 2 was concerned with how leaders' resources shape their leadership behavior. Manuscripts 1 and 2 examined this question. First, leaders' well-being as a valuable resource (Hobfoll et al., 2018) was examined in how it influenced leaders' leadership behavior. Well-being was measured through two different indicators. First, we introduced leaders' general health as perceived well-being for subjective health (Sullivan et al., 2002) and subjective perspective of one's state of health (Stewart et al., 1988; Ware, 1987). Results of Manuscript 1 revealed that general health as a valuable resource was indeed an important predictor of the leaders' transformational behavior.

Second, we considered work engagement as an indicator of well-being, which focused more specifically on the work context and can be defined as a positive state of mind (Bakker

et al., 2008). Like general health, our results support our assumption, that work engagement predicts transformational leadership and therefore can be considered as a useful resource.

Thus, our results give empirical support that well-being can be considered as a valuable resource, which fosters beneficial leadership behavior, such as transformational leadership.

In Manuscript 2 two additional resources were examined. On the one hand, role clarity as a typical job resource was considered (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Role clarity (the opposite of role ambiguity) is a job resource that refers to the (feeling of the) presence of adequate role-relevant information (Lyons, 1971) and to followers' perception of the extent to which they receive and understand the information required to do the job. As predicted, and in line with previous research on role clarity and job performance (i.e., Bray & Brawley, 2002), our findings revealed positive associations between higher levels of leaders' role clarity and leaders' reported transformational behavior.

Moreover, self-efficacy as a personal resource was introduced. In line with the assumptions of the JD-R model, personal resources represent positive evaluations of one's own ability to control and influence work environments (Bakker et al., 2014; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). Self-efficacy as a typical personal resource can be defined as a person's belief in his/her capability to perform a job or task successfully (Bandura, 2001). As predicted, our findings supported the positive assumed association between leaders' self-efficacy and transformational behavior. In line with research on leaders' performance and self-efficacy (Fitzgerald & Schutte, 2010; Quigley, 2003) we could empirically support the importance of resources for transformational leadership.

Leaders with higher levels of both, role clarity and self-efficacy, reported higher levels of transformational leadership. Furthermore, our findings indicated that this positive relationship was mediated through work engagement, underlining the theoretical assumption of the JD-R model, which proposed work engagement as a mediating factor between several resources and organizational outcomes (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008).

To sum up, our findings support the assumption that the higher availability of resources predicts higher levels of transformational leadership behavior. Consequently, resources seem to play an important role for leaders to step into transformational leadership behavior.

Discussion of Research Question 3

Research Question 3 posed the question of how leaders' behavior is influenced by social-psychological factors, in terms of a social environment. Apart from resources and well-being as a necessary basis to behave adequately and to behave in high-demand leadership behavior, social environmental factors might also affect the performance of transformational leadership behavior. In Manuscript 1, we could demonstrate that transformational leadership influences its environment by replicating the positive impact of transformational leadership behavior on the performance of the team, which has been proven several times before (G. Wang et al., 2011). In addition, however, we were also able to show that team performance has an effect back on the leaders' leadership behavior as well. The results on team performance showed that it negatively affects the leaders' well-being and, thus, the resources of the leader.

The performance of the team is, therefore, also related to the well-being of the leader, which has a negative impact on the resource of the leader. Here the circle seems to close again. Resources that are necessary for the leader to lead in a transformational way are in turn influenced by the positive effects of the leadership behavior, namely high team performance.

Crossover effects also come into play in this context. Such crossover effects could already be demonstrated in other studies (Westman & Chen, 2017; Wirtz et al., 2017) and make clear once more that the leader should not be considered in isolation. Potential crossover effects between persons in the same social environment, e.g., in dyadic interactions, can further act as a mechanism of resource exchange as proposed by Hobfoll et al. (2018).

The leader and his/her leadership behavior as a part of a social system should be further considered and inspected against this background. Therefore, the present research question was again structured into two sub-questions, which will be addressed in the following sections.

Discussion of Research Question 3a

Concerning Research Question 3a, Manuscript 2 investigated what role leaders' affective commitment plays for their transformational leadership behavior. Affective commitment is defined as an individual's feeling of belonging to a group, and arises from social group processes and our group affiliations within them, as explained by social identity theory (Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Accordingly, affective commitment represents the extent to which we feel we belong to a group and is associated with a certain mindset as a work attitude (Meyer et al., 2004). This also manifests itself with commitment-relevant behavior, as, for example, attitudes and behaviors desired by the group (or, in our case, the organization) are adapted to it. The results of Manuscript 2 support the assumption that the social environment, and specifically the group, in which the leader leads has a decisive influence on the leadership behavior shown. Affective commitment was shown to be a moderating factor on the positive relationship of work engagement on transformational leadership. Accordingly, leaders with higher levels of affective commitment showed a stronger positive link between resources such as well-being and their behavior.

Affective commitment could also independently be seen as a resource resulting from a sense of social belonging. For example, affective commitment as a work attitude has already been shown to have positive effects on beneficial outcomes such as better job performance (Hunter & Thatcher, 2007; Riketta, 2002). Moreover, affective commitment could thus not only represent a social component that influences the leader's behavior, but also boost an additional resource process or interaction.

The results illustrate that the social group in which the leader inevitably finds himself or herself can make an important contribution to ensuring that the leader behaves in an appropriately positive way, in our case transformational.

Discussion of Research Question 3b

Research Question 3b dealt with the question of what role expectations about leadership outcomes play in leaders' behavior. Expectations are defined as anticipatory assumptions that derive from the experiences we have made with our (social) environment (Panitz et al., 2021).

Expectations of different leadership behaviors were explored in Manuscript 3. The results showed that the eight different leadership behaviors raised different expectations regarding the four different outcome variables. In addition, these behaviors were also rated as having different levels of attractiveness. Regarding the link with the self-perceived and reported leadership behavior of the leader, it was found that the expectations of the leader were related to the behavior exhibited.

Because the results are cross-sectional, no causal conclusions can be drawn. However, following expectation theories such as Heckhausen's (1977), it could be concluded that the leader's expectations influence the leadership behavior that is ultimately shown. Heckhausen, among others, assumes that our behavior is determined by expectations of the results of our behavior, and is therefore significantly influenced. Accordingly, positive outcome expectations of the leader for certain behaviors would lead to the leader behaving accordingly toward the follower.

What Does It Need to Lead Transformationally?

Considered all together, it can be concluded that first, the well-being of the leader plays an important role in the manifestation of transformational leadership behavior, to the extent that a leader with higher levels of well-being shows higher levels of transformational leadership. Second, the results show that resources (job and personal) also have an influence

on the behavior displayed by a transformational leader. Higher levels of adequate resources enable the leader to show higher levels of transformational leadership. Third, under the social-psychological focus, social identity and the resulting affective commitment were also shown to play a moderating role in the exercise of transformational leadership. And finally, expectations are also related to the behavior of the leader. The results listed here were examined in the previously established and derived Research Questions.

It should be noted that the present work has considered the three research questions independently of each other. Thus, the effects of resources, both as job resources (role clarity) and personal resources (self-efficacy), as well as the role of well-being next to social factors (affective commitment) and the influence of outcome expectations were considered individually. Therefore, it poses the question whether and to what extent the effects of the various factors together have an impact on the transformational leadership behavior shown. A possible conceivable combination and a further question could examine the temporal precedence of these factors named, for example, whether further social influencing factors only play a role for the leader when there are already sufficient resources available.

Furthermore, an integration of these different perspectives, as presented in the conceptual framework (see Figure 1), would be extremely important and certainly profitable to better understand the behavior of the leader. Ultimately, it would be important to compare the different perspectives when they interact in such a way as to explain what has the determinative impact on the leaders' behavior.

Strengths and Limitations

The presented dissertation has several strengths but also some limitations that should be considered. As a major strength, the manuscripts address recent calls in the leadership literature to focus closer on the leader him-/herself (Barling & Cloutier, 2017). While the leadership literature to date has mainly examined the impact of leadership on employees and the underlying mechanisms of that leadership, there has been a large gap in how the leader

him/herself is affected and what it takes to lead appropriately. With the present dissertation and its focus on the leader himself/herself as well as his/her required resources and assets to lead transformationally, a previously missing bridge to the existing research is built.

Furthermore, the present dissertation covers different methodological approaches and tries to prove effects in a variety of ways. In the first manuscript a longitudinal study with three measurement points over a period of almost two years took place. Longitudinal data allow a better investigation of possible causal directions and reciprocal effects, and are highly recommended (Tan, 2008). On top of this, by realizing not only two but three measurement time points, effects could also be replicated to strengthen the findings.

Manuscript 2 addressed the potential problem of a cross-sectional assessment and, among other things, problems of endogeneity, by performing additional analyses. The IVR model was implemented as a method to determine causal effects (Sajons, 2020). Hence, the effect of work engagement on transformational leadership could be demonstrated and strengthened.

With the third manuscript, a quasi-experimental online study could be realized in which different scenarios were shown in randomized order. With the scenario-based approach, assessments of the participants could be collected and analyzed.

One additional strength of this dissertation is the application of different perspectives on the researched object, i.e., the leader and his or her shown behavior. Using various perspectives, a differentiated picture on the subject matter emerges. So far, the stress models primarily used to explain organizational outcomes and behavior have their limitations. These limitations are complimented within the three manuscripts with social-psychological assumptions, supplementing and extending the established theories.

Furthermore, the present manuscripts focus primarily on positive indicators of both well-being and resources in terms of leadership behavior. The positive side has often been neglected, and previous research has often focused on negative processes, such as health

impairment. Rooted in the idea of positive psychology, mainly positive indicators such as work engagement were used in this research (Bakker et al., 2008).

Nevertheless, some limitations of the dissertation need to be mentioned. The present manuscripts are all based on self-reports, which are known to have certain limitations. Data of self-reports are sensitive to biases such as social-desirability, and cause problems with common method bias (Donaldson & Grant-Vallone, 2002). Previous research could demonstrate, for example, discrepancies between leadership assessment by the leaders themselves and their followers. Therefore, leaders and followers differed in their ratings of leadership behavior, whereby leaders rated themselves more positively (Corrigan et al., 2002).

On the other hand, other scholars argue that collecting self-reports of leadership behavior seems to be acceptable, as leaders are in a good position to report their overall behavior with all followers (Johnson et al., 2012). The validity of self-reports is also demonstrated in other studies, giving evidence to the idea that individuals are capable of reliably evaluating themselves (Fox & Dinur, 1988). Nevertheless, alternative observations of leaders' leadership behavior would have reduced a potential same-source bias.

Despite the diversity and variety of methodological approaches, it is not possible to say unequivocally whether the results we found can be interpreted causally and should, therefore, be taken with caution. Finally, both the measurement models of the constructs used do not represent the whole reality and there could be overlaps of these (Pearl & Mackenzie, 2018). For example, the measurement of work engagement could be strongly associated with transformational leadership simply because the constructs are measured similarly. While work engagement items ask about inspired and engaged work, transformational leadership also measures whether others are inspired and energized by the leader's behavior. This similarity could lead to errors in the representation of the measurement models and to misinterpretation of the results. Methodologically, this problem has been partially addressed with analyses of measurement invariance (see Manuscript 1).

Another well-known difficulty is the underlying endogeneity and the question of “origin”. This cannot be clearly traced and determined in the present manuscripts. Ultimately, we have modeled a process and determined a “beginning”, but we cannot say or prove with absolute certainty that the process did not begin “earlier” (Pearl & Mackenzie, 2018).

Avenues for Future Research

The focus on the positive and constructive side of the underlying mechanisms behind the behavior of a leader can also be accompanied by the limitation that the difficulties of the leader regarding the performance of leadership behavior have not been examined. While this dissertation has set itself the goal of looking at beneficial mechanisms and positive outcome variables, the opposite side should not be forgotten in order to present a holistic picture. The conceptual framework may also be extended by further mechanisms.

For example, barriers and demands that stand in the way of transformational leadership could be examined in more detail. It is conceivable that further interaction effects between demands and resources could come to light. The JD-R model proposes, for example, that resources buffer the negative influence of job demands on exhaustion. Furthermore, it is suggested that individuals under high demanding work conditions with high levels of resources are more capable of dealing with these demands (Bakker et al., 2005). Especially for leaders, a more detailed investigation of these circumstances would be promising and could be added to the existing results and previous findings, which focus on employees.

Furthermore, future research would certainly benefit from looking at transformational leadership not only as an overall concept of leadership behavior but also at its sub-facets. As presented in Manuscript 3, we could show that the different aspects of transformational leadership are also associated with different expectations. Similarly, other research has shown that the effects of the individual subdimensions differ on, for example, employee well-being (Harms et al., 2017; Podsakoff et al., 1996). It is, therefore, conceivable that the different

aspects of behavior are also subject to different mechanisms. A more detailed and differentiated examination could be very promising here.

In this present research, for the first time, social-psychological factors were integrated into the explanation of organizational outcomes, in addition to stress theories. Considering that leadership always involves social interaction (Maramygin et al., 2019; Ogawa, 2005), it would make perfect sense to also address situation-specific circumstances and to include them in future research. There are already scholars who are looking at contextual leadership and how it influences leadership (Oc, 2018). An extension and connection with the results presented here could be very fruitful and shed further light on the mystery of the leader and his or her behavior. A more dynamic view of leadership behavior would be quite possible and arguable in this context.

Furthermore, there is not enough attention paid to a differentiated analysis of industries, gender, and management level in the present dissertation. Previous studies show, however, that it is quite important to consider leadership from these points of view in a differentiated way. It is not without reason that there have been studies specializing specifically, for example, in firefighter or clinical staff (Smith et al., 2020; L. Wang et al., 2018).

Another important research approach for the future would be the extension of the previous work to further distinguished leadership behaviors. Until now, it remains to be seen whether the results from Manuscript 1 and 2 can be applied to other leadership behaviors known as both beneficial, such as authentic or social identity leadership. Furthermore, the question also arises whether less promoted behaviors of the leader – for example abusive leadership – can likewise be integrated into the conceptual model derived here and if the same mechanisms appear valid, whether these cannot be taken over for the explanation of this certain leadership behavior. A more differentiated approach could lead to a better generalization of the model.

Finally, future research should build on overcoming previous methodological limitations like endogeneity, e.g., by conducting research with individuals who are just entering a leadership position for the first time. Here, it could be examined exactly how leadership behavior ultimately develops and what the leader needs.

Practical Implications

Given the results of the present dissertation, it seems appropriate to recommend that organizations invest in an adequate availability of resources to support leaders in leading in a transformational way. Resources seem to be enormously important for this purpose. In terms of job resources, it would be appropriate for organizations to create an appropriate work environment and work conditions for the leader. For example, a clear description of what work tasks belong to a position and what responsibilities go along with it would be an important starting point to support leaders with the valuable resource of role clarity.

In addition to the availability and improvement of adequate job resources, a consideration of personal resources for the leader is also on the agenda. Already during the recruitment process attention could be paid to the personal resources that the leader might already own. If necessary, these should be nurtured or promoted through personal development programs. In fact, interventions to increase self-efficacy in trainings for transformational leadership are already tested (Mason et al., 2014), and should become more popular.

In promoting transformational leadership behavior, practitioners should also take a careful look at the leaders' overall health. Early intervention when the leader's well-being is suffering would be appropriate, as it is likely that otherwise their behavior as a leader will also be impaired, e.g., indicated through lower levels of transformational leadership. In addition to these interventions, this point can also be addressed preventively. Regular health checks and health-care programs would be potential solutions here.

In addition to the availability of adequate resources and monitoring the well-being of the leader, the social component should not be neglected. As the results from Manuscript 2 show, the social bond to the company or organization is also a decisive factor for the performance of transformational leadership. The organization should perceive itself more as a social group to which its members should be committed.

This paper also provides numerous suggestions for the development of appropriate and useful leadership training. A focus on resources, well-being, and affective commitment should be considered. In addition, it also would be important to specifically consider the expectations of the leaders and to be able to modify them. If we understand the expectations of the leaders, these can be specifically adapted and changed (Panitz et al., 2021). Individual leaders should be addressed, and their expectations for the outcomes of their behavior questioned and reflected. Potential changes in expectations could proceed through input or experience.

In conclusion, the present dissertation aims to raise practitioners' awareness of the leader and their needs in order to understand them better, not only in terms of their effects on the followers.

Conclusion

The present dissertation aimed to understand what is needed to behave in a transformational way. With a multi-facet view this question was explored and different perspectives on the leader and his/her behavior were provided. Because the leader plays such an influential role in the organization, it should not be forgotten that the leader is also just an employee who has needs and depends on being provided with sufficient resources.

Finally, it was shown that the leader is a part of the social system and his or her behavior is influenced by different factors, which are based on stress theory as well as social-psychological theories. To sum up, to be able to empower others, the leader also needs the mental, physical and social "power" to lead in a transformational way.

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Appendix

Appendix A: Manuscript 1

It All Comes Back to Health: A Three-Wave Cross-Lagged Study of Leaders' Well-Being, Team Performance, and Transformational Leadership

Authors: Hannah V. Geibel, Thomas Rigotti, Kathleen Otto

Status: Accepted by *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*

Appeared as: Geibel, H.V., Rigotti, T., & Otto, K. (2022). It All Comes Back to Health: A Three-Wave Cross-Lagged Study of Leaders' Well-Being, Team Performance, and Transformational Leadership. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*.

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Appendix B: Manuscript 2**Commitment is the Key: A Moderated Mediation Model Linking Leaders' Resources, Work Engagement, and Transformational Leadership Behavior**

Authors: Hannah V. Geibel, Kathleen Otto

Status: Accepted by *Psychological Reports*

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Appendix C: Manuscript 3

A Matter of Expectations: A Scenario-based Approach on Leaders' Leadership

Behavior

Authors: Hannah V. Geibel, Kathleen Otto

Status: Submitted to *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*

**A Matter of Expectations: A Scenario-based Approach on Leaders' Leadership
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Abstract

Leadership behavior has been a widely studied subject over the last decades, with varying evidence of effectiveness regarding specific leadership behaviors (e.g., Lee et al., 2020; Schyns & Schilling, 2013). In this presented study, we asked leaders and followers what outcome expectancies they place on certain leadership behaviors and how these expectations are related to leaders' own leadership behavior. Using a scenario-based approach, an online study was conducted focusing on eight different leadership behaviors that reflected and extended the full-range model of leadership (i.e., passive, directive, aversive, contingent reward, and transformational leadership with its subdimensions of high-performance expectancy, providing individualized support, and intellectual stimulation). Results of a sample of 440 participants (345 followers and 95 leaders) revealed significant differences between the ratings of the eight scenarios concerning their impact on different work-related outcomes in followers (performance, affective commitment, job satisfaction, and well-being). The results showed that leaders' ratings of the scenarios and their expectations of the outcomes were associated with their own displayed leadership behavior. Practical implications in terms of adapting leadership development training considering existing expectations of the leaders as well as further research avenues are discussed.

Keywords: Leadership behavior, organizational outcomes, expectation

Introduction

The leadership role is tied to multiple expectations (e.g., Gupta & Van Wart, 2015; Van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). Leaders are faced with expectations from their organization to achieve sales, their superiors to increase the performance of their followers, and those they lead to create a good working climate. Accordingly, leaders might reflect on how to adjust their behavior to fulfill these expectations and achieve desired outcomes. The role of a leader, therefore, can be seen as a great responsibility but also a burden due to the need to handle such diverse requirements. Role expectations have already been studied in previous research and applied to leadership. For example, Shivers-Blackwell (2004) attempted to examine the influence of the organizational setting on demonstrated transformational and transactional leader behavior based on Merton's (1957) role theory. However, while role theory can be used to explain how the work environment influences and shapes certain behaviors due to role expectations and forces, it leaves out the expectations of the leaders themselves.

We know that cognitive, motivational, emotional, and even actional processes are controlled by subjective expectations (Bandura, 1977) and are, therefore, primarily interested in the expectations of the leader. With the desire to better promote the practice and training of certain leadership behaviors, we first need to explore the mechanisms behind them. This makes it necessary, above all, to be in a position to better understand the expectations of the leader. With this present study, we aimed to investigate how leadership is perceived in terms of its potentially beneficial impact on work-related outcomes and to what extent leaders experience certain expectations/outcomes. Using a scenario-based design, we contribute to the leadership literature and the development of leadership behavior in the workplace and help to explain differences between leaders by focusing on expectations.

Theory

Based on the expectation-by-value theory, Heckhausen developed a motivational model for goal-directed action. In his extended cognitive model of motivation (Heckhausen, 1977; Heckhausen & Rheinberg, 1980), action episodes are categorized into four sequences: situation, action, outcome, and sequence. The four stations of an action episode are thereby bridged by different expectations. Heckhausen differentiated multiple expectations, whereby consequence expectations (or outcome expectancies) refer to the probability of bringing about a desired outcome through action. Outcome expectancies are essential components of expectancy-value models (Atkinson, 1975, Heckhausen & Rheinberg, 1980, Vroom, 1964). Thus, each consequence expectation has a reinforcing component that can be rewarding if it is positive. That is, an expectation that the desired outcome can be achieved by the action. This leads to the conclusion that personal expectations can influence our behavior. In the leadership context, this would mean that leaders behave transformationally, for example, because they have positive expectations of improving the performance or levels of job satisfaction of those they lead.

If we transfer the model into the field of leadership, and more specifically into leaders' action episodes and behavior, we end up with the question of what expectations leaders have of their behavior or their outcome expectancies. By addressing this question, a fruitful opportunity arises not only for the associated organization or team but also for potential training programs to better understand and potentially modify these expectations and change the direction of leadership behavior.

The multiple outcomes to be achieved through leadership may be categorized along two dichotomies (see e.g., Sverke et al., 2002): proximal versus distal and relevance for the individual versus for the organization. The first dichotomy differentiates outcomes that are directly influenced (proximal) or indirectly influenced (distal). The second dichotomy

differentiates outcomes that have a direct impact on the individual or are primarily relevant to the entire organization. This provides four outcomes for our study: followers' performance (distal & organization), affective commitment (proximal & organization), job satisfaction (proximal & individual), and well-being (distal & individual).

Upon reviewing the leadership literature, these factors are considered both beneficial and highly desirable (i.e., Ceri-Booms, 2020, Harms et al., 2017). We expect effective leadership behavior to foster these factors in followers, as these attributes are often of incredible value for the ultimate success of an organization.

Followers' Outcomes

Performance

Leadership literature has revealed that leaders' behavior decisively influences follower performance outcomes (Burke et al., 2006; Ceri-Booms, 2020). Follower performance can be measured as the requirements followers need or as effectiveness or productivity (Burke et al., 2006). Ultimately, therefore, follower performance is an important indicator of beneficial leadership behavior.

Affective Commitment

An individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization is defined as affective commitment (Mowday et al., 1982). Affective commitment is considered an emotional bond between a follower and the organization and refers to the desire to stay with the organization (N. J. Allen & Meyer, 1990). Affectively committed individuals adopt attitudes and behaviors endorsed by the organization, which demonstrates their satisfying, self-defining relationship with their workplace (Becker et al., 1996). Thus, affective commitment is a favorable attitude of a follower because it fosters performance and buffers stress in relation to turnover intentions (Hunter & Thatcher, 2007; Riketta, 2002; Tetteh et al., 2020).

Job Satisfaction

The other key indicator and highly valued attitude in followers is job satisfaction (Harrison et al., 2006). Followers with high levels of job satisfaction are more likely to show favorable work-related behavior. Leadership has been found to influence this attitudinal factor in followers strongly (Nohe & Hertel, 2017) and, therefore, job satisfaction is one of the key markers of effective leadership behavior.

Well-Being

Numerous studies have examined the work context in relation to well-being and found both promoting and impairing factors, the latter of which leaves a follower feeling stressed or exhausted (Harms et al., 2017). Leaders and their leadership behavior are found to play a major role in an organization, as they create and influence the whole system (Nyberg et al., 2005) and cause burdens or create resources for their followers through their leadership behavior (Donaldson-Feilder et al., 2013). To favorably influence these previously described factors in followers and, in the best case, obtain them as a consequence of the leader's behavior, the leader has a variety of behavioral styles at their disposal. The leader can thus utilize a wide variety of instruments to ideally cause favorable consequences in their followers.

Multifactor Model of Leadership

Our theoretical model of leadership is founded on the conceptual and empirical work centered on transformational and transactional leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1993). We then considered the approach by Podsakoff and colleagues (1990). We followed the recommendations of adding the behavioral components of the existing models of transformational leadership and distinguished between a *core transformational* component (articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, fostering the acceptance of group goals) and three more behavioral components of transformational leadership (*high-*

performance expectations, providing individualized support, and intellectual stimulation) as well as a behavioral component defined as *contingent reward* to represent transactional leadership. As the full-range model also distinguishes an absence of leadership (Bass, 1985), we added a passive leadership behavioral type as well. We further extended the model upon the work of Pearce and Sims (2002), adding two more behavioral leadership types to also include more traditional and uncomfortable types of leadership. Ultimately, doing so provided us with the following types of leadership behavior: (a) passive, (b) transformational, (c) transactional, (d) directive, and (e) aversive.

Passive

Passive leadership, as a non-leadership or absence of leadership, has been defined as a behavior that involves avoidance shown by an individual who has power in their position. Passive leaders avoid or delay taking necessary actions (Barling & Frone, 2017). Passive leadership behavior is found to have negative effects on followers' well-being (Che et al., 2017) and overall work attitudes, such as job satisfaction and commitment (Barling & Frone, 2017), and negatively related to leader effectiveness (Derue et al., 2011). Scholars demonstrated in a meta-analytic review that passive leadership leads to significant negative outcomes for followers related to their attitudes, behavior, and well-being (Fosse et al., 2019). Moreover, passive leadership is the least effective leadership behavior (Kelloway et al., 2005).

Core Transformational – Articulating a Vision, Providing an Appropriate Model, Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals

The core behavioral type of transformational leadership combines the following: (a) the leader's aim to identify new opportunities for their followers while developing, articulating, and inspiring others with the leader's vision of the future (*articulating a vision*); (b) the leader's effort to set an example for followers, which is consistent with the values the

leader espouses (*providing an appropriate model*); and (c) the leader's aim to promote cooperation among followers and getting them to work together toward a common goal (*fostering the acceptance of group goals*).

Transformational leadership has strong positive effects on follower outcomes (MacKenzie et al., 2001). Scholars noted that these leaders positively influence follower performance, commitment, and satisfaction and individual and group performance (Nohe & Hertel, 2017). Overall, being an effective role model fosters job satisfaction and the performance of the follower (Rich, 1997), and providing an appropriate model, vision articulation, and fostering the acceptance of group goals fosters general satisfaction (Podsakoff et al., 1996).

Concerning in-role performance, fostering the acceptance of group goals was found to increase followers' outcomes (Podsakoff et al., 1996). Moreover, vision articulation was found to have a significant effect on follower organizational commitment (Podsakoff et al., 1996). In addition to the above-mentioned positive effects of core transformational behavior, scholars also found beneficial outcomes on well-being factors (e.g., reducing stress and burnout; Harms et al., 2017).

High-Performance Expectations

Leaders' high-performance expectations behavior demonstrates their expectations for excellence, quality, and/or high performance on the part of followers, which is found to negatively affect followers' job satisfaction (Podsakoff et al., 1996). This kind of leadership behavior is found to exist in teams with higher performance and task cohesion (Callow et al., 2009).

Providing Individualized Support

Leaders provide individualized support when they respect followers and are concerned about their personal feelings and needs. This type of leadership behavior was found to

increase followers' in-role performance (Podsakoff et al., 1996) and negatively affects rates of stress and burnout (Harms et al., 2017). Further, scholars demonstrated that individualized support positively influences follower satisfaction (Chen et al., 2009).

Intellectual Stimulation

Intellectual stimulation behavior occurs when a leader challenges followers to re-examine some of their assumptions about their work and rethink how it can be performed (Podsakoff et al., 1996). Research has identified that intellectual stimulation results in higher job commitment and satisfaction (Anjali & Anand, 2015), stronger team positive affect and learning (Sánchez-Cardona et al., 2018), and extra effort (Robinson & Boies, 2016).

Contingent Reward

Contingent reward leadership behavior is defined as an exchange between leaders and followers, whereby followers are rewarded or recognized for accomplishing agreed-upon objectives (Howell & Avolio, 1993). Further, contingent reward leadership defines and clarifies goals and expectations for followers. Contingent reward leaders primarily rely on contingent reinforcement by providing followers with material and/or psychological rewards and motivating followers with rewards to fulfill requirements. Scholars have found that contingent reward leadership had a positive impact on followers' work engagement (Breevaart et al., 2014), extra effort, and task enjoyment (Robinson & Boies, 2016).

Directive

Leaders with a directive leadership behavior assign goals and issue instructions and commands. This behavioral leadership type primarily relies on position power and represents a prototypical boss who engages in a highly directive style, expecting followers to carry out decisions (Sims & Pearce, 2002). Scholars have found a diverse pattern of associations with follower outcomes. On the one hand, positive relations were found between directive leadership behavior and job satisfaction within African culture (Mwaisaka et al., 2019), but no

significant result could be found in the United States (Yun et al., 2001). Further, a positive association was found with team efficiency but a negative one between directive leadership and team creativity in a Chinese population (Li et al., 2018). Moreover, some support for a negative impact on team effectiveness was found (Pearce & Sims, 2002) as well as a positive relation to performance (Somech & Wenderow, 2006). A growing body of research demonstrated the effect of directive behavior on follower attitudes and performance at the individual level (Martin et al., 2013). Many studies have reported the negative impact of directive behavior on follower attitudes or extra-role performance as well as its positive effects on efficiency, core task performance, or productivity (Judge et al., 2004; Pearce & Sims, 2002). Research has demonstrated a clear link between directive leadership and follower and team performance (Judge et al., 2004; Lorinkova et al., 2013).

Aversive

Aversive leadership is a behavioral type that primarily relies on coercive power and is rooted in punishment research (Pearce & Sims, 2002). Aversive leaders engage in intimidation and dispense reprimands. Scholars have found a negative association between this leadership type and follower job stress, performance (Saeed, 2017), and satisfaction (Bligh et al., 2007; Yun et al., 2001) and some support for a negative association with team effectiveness (Pearce & Sims, 2002).

Our Study

According to the model of Heckhausen (1997), we set certain expectations for the behavior we exhibit. Leaders have a wide choice of different behaviors, which promise traditionally beneficial outcomes. In this presented study, we would like to investigate if there are different expectations of leadership behaviors in regard of beneficial outcome. We postulated that the beneficial consequences of leadership behaviors, such as core transformational behavior or individualized support, are widely known, whereas other more

destructive forms, such as *aversive* leadership behavior, are expected to be negative for followers' outcomes. Accordingly, our stated hypotheses were as follows:

Hypothesis 1a: Various types of leadership behaviors will be perceived as having different positive effects on followers' performance.

Hypothesis 1b: Various types of leadership behaviors will be perceived as having different positive effects on followers' affective commitment.

Hypothesis 1c: Various types of leadership behaviors will be perceived as having different positive effects on followers' job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1d: Various types of leadership behaviors will be perceived as having different positive effects on followers' well-being.

Leaders' own Leadership Expectations

Ultimately, a leader's expectation toward certain types of leadership (i.e., various behaviors demonstrated by the leader in relation to their followers) is of critical importance. In the case that leaders have definite expectations of a behavior they manifest, this should also encourage or hamper the performance of that behavior, and in any case, it affects it. Individuals in leadership roles may be expected to engage in the specific behaviors that they believe will positively influence important outcomes within the organizational context. Studies on the performance expectations of leaders with regard to their followers showed that the expectation of the leader alone led to an increase in the performance of their followers (Eden, 1992; Sutton & Woodman, 1989). The mechanism known as the Pygmalion effect has been echoed in other studies as well (Duan et al., 2017). With this in mind, we take a step ahead and state leaders' outcome expectations regarding the different behaviors match, or at least are related to, their self-reported behaviors. In other words, leaders might align their

behaviors with their outcome expectations. Thus, we examined how expectations of leadership behaviors are related to the leader's self-perceived leadership behaviors.

Hypothesis 2: Leaders' expectations of leadership behaviors in regard to followers' outcomes are related to their own performed leadership behavior.

Attributed Attractiveness

Interpersonal attraction is a widely investigated field (Montoya et al., 2018). Normally we invest more time and resources when we like somebody. From a social-psychology perspective, we also identify ourselves more likely with others if we are attracted to them (Hogg & Hardie, 1992), which fosters group cohesiveness. Concerning the world of work, this also seems to be an interesting factor that should be examined more deeply.

In line with the assumption of the concept of the *romance of leadership* (Meindl et al., 1985) and implicit leadership theories (Eden & Leviatan, 1975), the evaluation of leadership by followers plays a crucial role. Many studies have shown that these concepts have an impact on the perception and evaluation of leadership by attributing characteristics to the leader by followers (Felfe & Petersen, 2007). The precise evaluation of the various leadership behaviors in terms of their perceived attractiveness, therefore, seems to be of further relevance here.

While other studies have examined interpersonal attraction between team members (Kleszewski & Otto, 2020), in this study, we asked which leaders are perceived as attractive and whether differences exist between them. Thus, we conducted an exploratory investigation to determine whether the ratings of interpersonal attraction would differ depending on the different leadership behaviors.

Research Question 1: Do different leadership behaviors have different ratings of attraction?

Method

Participants

We recruited 440 participants (95 leaders) online via social networks (Facebook, Xing, etc.) and mailing lists. Most of the participants without a leadership position were women (76.70%) with an average age of 31.91 years ($SD = 11.70$). Further, most of them reported being employed (78.70%), working 30.62 hours per week on average ($SD = 12.87$), and having an average of 10.95 years ($SD = 12.02$) of work experience. In terms of income, 29% of the participants had an average income of 1,000 to 2,000 Euros per month, followed by 2,000 to 3,000 (20.3%), less than 500 (14.80%), and 500 to 1,000 (13.10%).

Leaders

Most of the leaders were women (66.30%) with an average age of 40.13 ($SD = 12.01$). In total, 18.90% had at least 1.5 years of leadership experience, while 42% stated they had more than 4 years of leadership experience. Most of the leaders had been employed for 4 years in their current organization (46.3%). Leaders responded they were responsible for approximately 19 followers ($SD = 57.97$). On average, leaders had 17.61 years ($SD = 12.24$) of work experience and worked 40.17 hours per week ($SD = 11.60$). Concerning income, 33% of the leaders had an average income of 2,000 to 3,000 Euros per month, followed by 1,000 to 2,000 (24.2%), and 4,000 and more (15.8%).

Design/Procedure

This study used a scenario-based experimental design to determine whether various leadership behaviors generate different expectations. The university's internal review board approved the study (blinded for review: Aktenzeichen 2020-42k). Participation was voluntary and no compensation was offered. As an incentive for participating in the study, one tree was donated to a reforestation project for each participant. An online study was conducted, displaying eight different leadership behaviors within different scenarios. Participants first

provided informed consent, after which they were instructed to imagine a team member was telling them about their leader. The participants were asked to read the scenarios and rate each described leadership behavior regarding the expected influence on several outcomes. Further, they were asked to rate whether they would like to work with a leader displaying this particular leadership behavior. Each participant was randomly assigned to a different scenario order to avoid sequence effects. Participants who stated that they held a leadership position were also asked to rate their leadership behavior on the corresponding scales (of the scenarios). Finally, demographic variables were assessed.

Measures

Participants' expectations on how leadership behaviors affect followers' outcomes were rated on a scale from 0 (*not true at all*) to 10 (*completely true*). Items were adapted from established measuring instruments for performance (Goodman & Svyantek, 1999), commitment (Schmidt et al., 1998), job satisfaction (Wanous et al., 1997), and well-being (Sullivan et al., 2002).

Further, two items, based on the Interpersonal Judgment Scale (Byrne, 1971), were used to measure interpersonal attraction. The first item referred to liking the described leader ("How much would you like the leader?"). The second item captured the degree to which the participant would enjoy working with the person ("How much would you like to work with this leader?"). Items ($\alpha = .79$) were rated on a scale from 1 (*not at all*) to 7 (*very much*). The items were summed, and the mean was calculated. Internal consistency reliability was good to excellent ($\alpha = .86-.94$).

Additionally, we assessed the different leadership behaviors using the German version (Heinitz & Rowold, 2007) of the Transformational Leadership Inventory by Podsakoff et al. (1990). We assessed (a) the core dimensions of transformational leadership behavior (identifying and articulating vision, providing an appropriate model, fostering acceptance of

group goals, sample item: “I provide a good model to follow.”, $\alpha = .84$) (b) high-performance expectations (three items, sample item: “I insist on only the best performance”, $\alpha = .83$), (c) providing individualized support (four items, sample item “I show respect for my team members’ feelings.”, $\alpha = .69$), (d) intellectual stimulation (three items, sample item: “I have provided my team members with new ways of looking at things which used to be a puzzle for them”, $\alpha = .66$), and (e) contingent reward behavior (four items, sample item: “I always give positive feedback when my team members perform well.”, $\alpha = .72$). Items were rated on a 5-point scale from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*).

Aversive and directive leadership were assessed with three items each by the leader behavior items of Pearce and Sims (2002). Sample items were, “I let my team members know about it when they perform poorly.” (aversive) and “I provide commands in regard to my team members’ work.” (directive). Items were rated on a 5-point scale from 1 (*definitely not true*) to 5 (*definitely true*). Internal consistency reliability was acceptable to good ($\alpha = .70$ for aversive; $\alpha = .83$ for directive).

Passive leadership was assessed with five items in line with the study by Barling and Frone (2017). A sample item was, “I avoid making decisions.” Items were rated from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 4 (*strongly agree*). Internal consistency reliability was acceptable ($\alpha = .71$).

Scenarios

This study used scenarios of eight different leadership behaviors, which were created for this purpose. Leader behavior was manipulated in the scenarios using items based on different leadership behavior measurements. Each item was transformed into a sentence and included in the scenario describing a leader’s behavior. Finally, scenarios of passive, directive, aversive, contingent reward, and transformational leadership with the subdimensions of high-performance expectancy, providing individualized support, and

intellectual stimulation as well as a core transformational dimension of identifying and articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, and fostering acceptance of group goals vision, were created. Examples of scenarios used can be found in the Appendix.

Statistical Analyses

Preliminary Data Analyses and Hypotheses Testing

Before testing the hypotheses, the reliability of the measures was examined using Cronbach's alpha internal measures. Further, assumptions needed for the application of an ANOVA were tested. Further, data were checked for multivariate outliers using the Mahalanobis distance (see Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

First, descriptive statistics as means and standard deviations of the scenario ratings were investigated. To examine the significance of differences in the ratings of the described leadership behavior, we conducted a repeated-measures ANOVA with the scenarios of the different leadership behavior as between-participant factors and the work-related outcome variables as dependent variables. A Bonferroni-adjusted post hoc analysis was used to test pairwise comparisons between the eight scenarios displayed.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

Means of the ratings of the scenarios displaying the different leadership behaviors are illustrated in Figure 1. Detailed results are presented in Table 1.

ANOVA Results

Performance

A repeated-measures ANOVA with a Greenhouse-Geisser correction determined that mean ratings on the expected performance showed a statistically significant difference between the scenarios of the leadership behavior, $F(4.62, 1366.97) = 567.05, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .66$. A Bonferroni-adjusted post hoc analysis revealed significant differences ($p < .001$)

in the ratings of the expectation of followers' performance between the different kinds of leadership behavior. The results support Hypothesis 1a.

Affective Commitment

A repeated-measures ANOVA with a Greenhouse-Geisser correction determined that mean ratings on the expected performance showed a statistically significant difference between the scenarios of the leadership behavior, $F(5.44, 1592.82) = 1368.46, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .82$. A Bonferroni-adjusted post hoc analysis revealed significant differences ($p < .001$) in the ratings of the expectation of followers' affective commitment between the different kinds of leadership behavior. The results support Hypothesis 1b.

Job Satisfaction

A repeated-measures ANOVA with a Greenhouse-Geisser correction determined that mean ratings on the expected performance showed a statistically significant difference between the scenarios of the leadership behavior, $F(5.37, 1572.67) = 1310, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .82$. A Bonferroni-adjusted post hoc analysis revealed significant differences ($p < .001$) in the ratings of the expectation of followers' job satisfaction between the different kinds of leadership behavior. The results support Hypothesis 1c.

Well-Being

A repeated-measures ANOVA with a Greenhouse-Geisser correction determined that mean ratings on expected well-being showed statistically significant differences between the leadership behavior scenarios, $F(4.64, 1355.21) = 895.96, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .75$. A Bonferroni-adjusted post hoc analysis revealed significant differences ($p < .001$) in the ratings of the expectation of followers' well-being between the different kinds of leadership behavior. The results support Hypothesis 1d.

Attraction

A repeated-measures ANOVA with a Greenhouse-Geisser correction determined that mean ratings on expected performance showed statistically significant differences between the leadership behavior scenarios, $F(5.20, 1537.96) = 1383.24, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .82$. A Bonferroni-adjusted post hoc analysis revealed significant differences ($p < .001$) in the ratings of leaders' attraction between the different kinds of leadership behavior. The results answer Research Question 1 and are visualized in Figure 2.

Mixed Model for Repeated-Measures Results

Leaders' Leadership Behavior and Outcome Expectations

To examine Hypothesis 2, a mixed model for repeated measures was conducted (covariate type of unstructured variance). First, the results revealed significant differences between the ratings of the different leadership scenarios concerning outcome expectations for performance, $F(7, 87) = 119.86, p < .001$, affective commitment, $F(7, 85) = 331.25, p < .001$, job satisfaction, $F(7, 85) = 313.38, p < .001$, and follower well-being, $F(7, 84) = 209.10, p < .001$. Giving, again, support for Hypotheses 1a, 1b, 1c, and 1d – this time in a sample of leaders only.

We included leaders' self-rated leadership behavior as an additional factor in the analysis to test for potential differences concerning leaders' leadership performance. The results revealed a significant interaction effect of the displayed scenarios and leaders' self-rated intellectual stimulation leadership behavior regarding followers' expected performance, $F(7, 87) = 4.32, p < .001$.

Further, intellectual stimulation, $F(7, 87) = 6, p = .016$, providing individualized support, $F(7, 87) = 5.94, p = .017$, and contingent reward leadership behavior, $F(7, 87) = 4.80, p = .031$, showed significant fixed effects (Type 3) regarding followers' performance expectancy. Concerning followers' expected affective commitment, the results

revealed a significant fixed effect (Type 3) for providing individualized support, $F(7, 87) = 7.56, p = .007$. For the followers' expected job satisfaction, the results revealed a significant interaction effect of the displayed scenarios and leaders' self-rated aversive leadership behavior, $F(7, 87) = 2.89, p = .009$. Further, high-performance expectations, $F(7, 87) = 11.73, p = .001$, and providing individualized support, $F(7, 87) = 8.90, p = .004$, showed significant fixed effects (Type 3). For followers' well-being, tests of fixed effects (Type 3) revealed that providing individualized support, $F(7, 87) = 7.08, p = .009$, showed significant fixed effects. Our results provide support for Hypothesis 2.

Additional Analyses

We also compared the ratings of the leaders with those of the followers by applying t-tests. Results indicated no significant differences between the ratings of the followers and the leaders concerning followers' outcomes, except for evaluations of the impact of providing individualized support on the performance of the followers. A statistically significant difference existed between followers and leaders concerning the expected impact of providing individualized support on followers' performance, with mean ratings being .878 higher (95% CI [1.42, 0.34]) for the followers than the leaders, $t(394) = 3.188, p = .002$.

Moreover, the ratings of the attributed attraction of the eight leadership behaviors were compared. T-tests revealed no statistically significant differences in the attributed attraction of the various types of leadership behaviors between leaders and followers, except for the leadership behavior of providing individualized support. Results revealed a significant difference, with mean ratings being .516 higher (95% CI [0.82, 0.22]) for the followers than the leaders, $t(131) = 3.4, p = .001$.

Discussion

Current Findings

The purpose of this paper was to examine possible expectations of followers and leaders related to four different outcomes that are tied to different leadership behaviors. Based on the full-range model of leadership (Bass, 1985) and two less constructive ways to lead, the present study aimed to uncover differences in the eight assessed leadership behaviors and compare them in terms of their attributed attractiveness. In enhancement, we wanted to examine potential differences in expectations with respect to leaders' leadership behavior.

First, as predicted, results revealed significant differences in the expectations of the four outcomes of followers' performance, well-being, affective commitment, and job satisfaction in regard to the displayed leadership behavior. Our findings indicated that different kinds of leadership behavior are associated with certain outcome expectations. Based on the assumption that our expectations control our behavior control, as postulated by Heckhausen (1977), this finding is of great value. Further, our findings showed that expectations for specific leadership behaviors also differed with respect to the four outcomes. Core transformational leadership, for example, was most strongly expected to promote affective commitment, while intellectual stimulation was most strongly expected to account for followers' well-being. While affective commitment is categorized as a proximal outcome primarily relevant to the organization, well-being is classified as a distal outcome with a main focus on the individual (Sverke et al., 2002). This gives the appearance that expectations for certain leadership behaviors are differentiated – some of them might more strongly justify expectations of the organization and thus are in line with organizational goals, whereas others might fulfill expectations of the organization's workforce. It can be concluded from these findings that different behaviors could be exhibited based on the goal or consistent intention of the leader.

Beyond, we assumed that leaders' expectations about leadership outcomes would be related to their leadership behavior. Our results showed that among the leaders, their displayed leadership behavior was dependent on the ratings of the scenarios and their expectations of the outcomes. However, the causality of these findings is debatable. According to Heckhausen (1977), expectations of behavioral consequences are formed before action and ultimately before the performance of the behavior. Conversely, it could also be argued that leaders assess their behaviors as particularly positive in retrospect. To provide answers to the question of cause and effect, longitudinal cross-lagged studies are called for. From an ethical perspective, it would also be necessary to discuss which expectations are appropriate or should be pursued. For example, should organizational goals be placed above those of the followers, or should the well-being of the followers be given priority? It may also be worth considering whether the behavior of the leader should be adapted to the particular situation. Perhaps, the behavior should also be matched to the expectations of the followers – individually or as a team.

Third, as predicted, our results indicated significant differences between interpersonal attraction concerning the eight leadership behaviors. While aversive, passive, and directive leadership behavior were rated the least attractive, core transformational, contingent rewards, intellectual stimulation, and providing individualized support were perceived as most attractive. Consequently, it can be assumed that leadership behaviors are differently attractive, which could lead to them being selected with different frequencies. Building on the similarity-attraction theory, research has also suggested that attraction is also related to possible similarities between followers and leaders (Dust et al., 2021). The combination of such findings would suggest that perhaps respondents found themselves more reflected in certain leadership behaviors than in others.

Furthermore, our additional analyses showed that providing individualized support is perceived differently in terms of attractiveness by leaders and those led. While followers value this leadership behavior far more than leaders themselves, it is unclear how this difference emerges. Comparisons of expected follower outcomes between leaders and followers yielded similar results. Again, leaders perceived providing individualized support as less positive for follower performance than the followers themselves. Franke and Felfe (2011) found attributed individualized consideration and influence as leadership behaviors have a great impact on the well-being of those being led. Leaders may engage in this behavior with less frequency because they consider it to be less effective for employee performance and less attractive. Consequently, this could ultimately harm the health of the employees.

While the other ratings of the leadership behaviors did not differ from each other, suggesting high generalizability of expectations between leaders and followers, this was not the case when examining providing individualized support. Leaders may underestimate the positive influence of this behavior or do not perceive it as being as influential as followers. In fact, this leadership behavior also implies, and might be associated with a particularly high level of effort on the part of the leader.

Strength and Limitations

Our study contributes to the leadership literature by exploring expectations placed on different kinds of leadership behavior. We considered a wide range of different leadership behaviors in the implementation. Following the multifactor model of leadership, we realized a broad spectrum by implementing eight specific behaviors. In addition, the expectations were examined in relation to four various outcomes.

Further, the scenario-based approach seems to be an innovative method and a promising way to compare various leadership behaviors. Our study further supports our theoretical assumptions of the multifactorial model of leadership.

Nevertheless, some limitations of the present study must be mentioned. First, we need to address the limitation of using only one-item ratings for the measurement of the expectations. While one-item ratings might introduce bias, research has demonstrated that a single-item approach as a measurement provides valid and reliable assessments (M. S. Allen et al., 2022; Nagy, 2002).

Moreover, the self-appraised assessment of the leaders' leadership behavior could be criticized. Self-reports can easily be subject to distortions, such as being biased by social desirability. On the other hand, self-reports may reflect the intention of the respondent. In line with Heckhausen's extended cognitive model of motivation (1977), expectancies bridge the stages of actions, and outcome expectancies are formed before action. Additionally, scholars argue that leaders are in a good position to rate their leadership behavior in terms of overall situations with all followers and that followers' ratings might be biased by implicit leadership theories (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004) and perception of group prototypicality (van Knippenberg, 2011), which might influence the rating of followers.

Also, the differences in the response format could be criticized. Different response formats were used across the scales – frequency vs. agreement ratings on the one hand, and different levels of ratings on the other. Especially for the rating of passive leadership, we implemented a four- instead of a five-level rating. We decided to use the original measurements and kept the response formats instead of harmonizing them, as the established measurement instruments could then be compared with previous results concerning their reliability and be used to ensure high quality in this presented study.

Practical Implications and Further Directions

Our results can help to improve leadership development training in particular. It would be especially important to include the expectations of the leader and to address existing assumptions about the possible effects of behavior on followers and the organization.

Leadership training should explicitly address and reflect possible expectations on leadership efficacy of various behaviors. In practice, our findings could remove possible obstacles in the implementation of promising leadership behavior among leaders as well as support the development of appropriate behavior in leaders. It could also be made clear that not every constructive behavior works for everything, but that certain behaviors are more beneficial to organizational goals versus others that are more beneficial to followers.

Furthermore, our study closes a potential gap between science and practice by investigating whether positive effects of leadership behavior have also reached the non-scientific society or working world. Differentiation of the various types of behaviors could be demonstrated in our study as well as a reflection of the study participants on their expectations of them. Future research could test individual leadership behaviors against each other in more detail. For example, situational factors could also be included in future work.

Researchers should recognize that longitudinal data would be needed to disentangle expectations and demonstrated behavior. Only then could an underlying mechanism and thus causality be clearly tested. In addition to longitudinal data collection, experimental studies to determine which situational aspects reflect specific leadership conditions (e.g., day-to-day routine vs. emergency response) could be manipulated could be beneficial.

Conclusion

With this research, we contribute to the leadership literature and the development of leadership behavior in the workplace and help to explain differences between leaders by focusing on expectations. The present study demonstrated that (a) leadership behaviors significantly differ in their expected outcomes placed on them, (b) leadership behaviors differ significantly in their perceived attraction, and (c) leaders' self-reported leadership behavior relates significantly to their expectations of leadership behaviors. Knowing how leaders' expectations influence their behavior helps to improve leadership training and supports

understanding how certain leadership behaviors develop. Further, our study helps to build a bridge between the scientific world and the world of work and demonstrates the importance of knowing our expectations.

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Tables and Figures

Table 1

	Performance		Affective Commitment		Job Satisfaction		Well-Being	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Passive	3.31 ^a	2.40	2.78 ^a	1.87	2.57 ^a	1.67	2.93 ^a	1.9
Core Transformational	9.50 ^b	1.49	10.26 ^b	1.09	7.51 ^b	2.11	8.28 ^b	2.14
High-Performance Expectation	7.80 ^c	2.73	5.34 ^c	2.41	4.20 ^c	2.13	3.61 ^c	2.1
Providing Individualized Support	7.83 ^c	2.26	9.12 ^d	1.85	7.10 ^d	2.18	9.15 ^b	1.92
Intellectual Stimulation	9.77 ^b	1.31	8.65 ^e	1.96	7.18 ^d	2.16	7.81 ^c	2.28
Contingent Reward	9.75 ^b	1.48	9.23 ^d	1.75	7.46 ^b	2.35	7.99 ^b	2.36
Directive	5.22 ^d	2.74	2.89 ^a	1.89	2.92 ^a	1.79	3.33 ^a	2.04
Aversive	3.03 ^a	2.61	1.53 ^f	0.98	1.53 ^e	1.22	1.48 ^d	0.94

Note. $N = 440$. Performance, affective commitment, job satisfaction, and well-being were rated on a scale from 0 (not true at all) to 10 (completely true). Means with different superscripts indicate significant mean differences between the eight experimental conditions in pairwise comparisons.

Figure 1

Means of outcome expectations across leadership behaviors

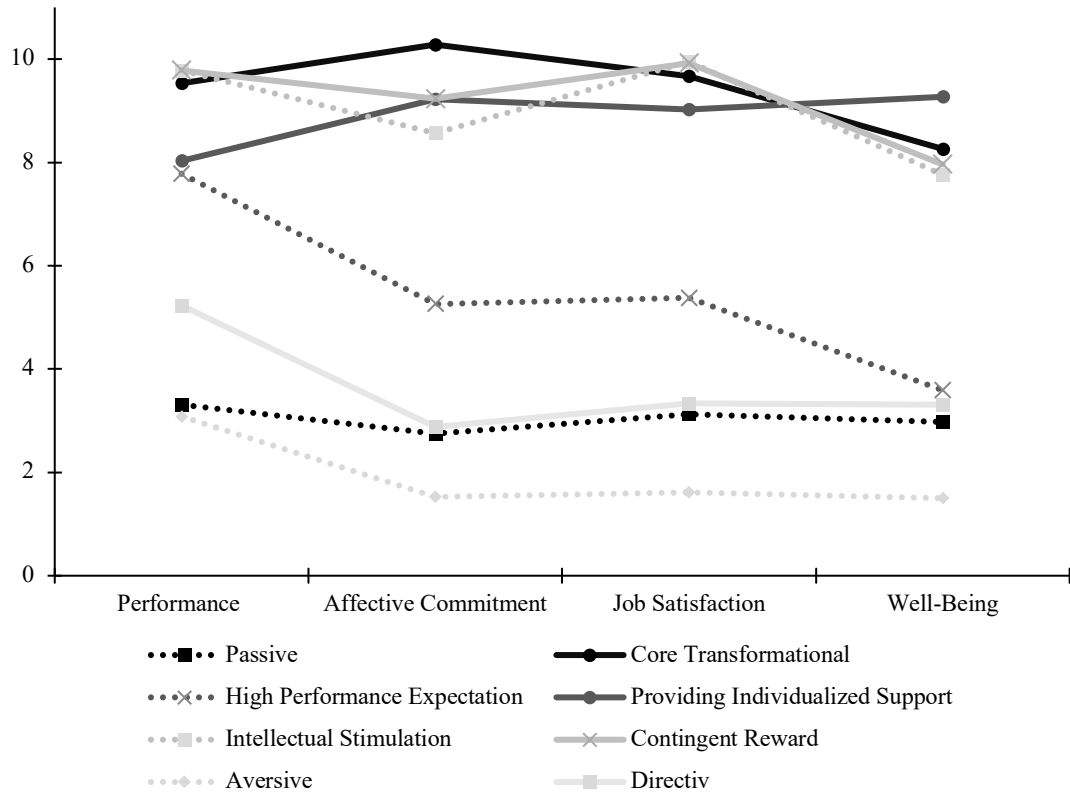
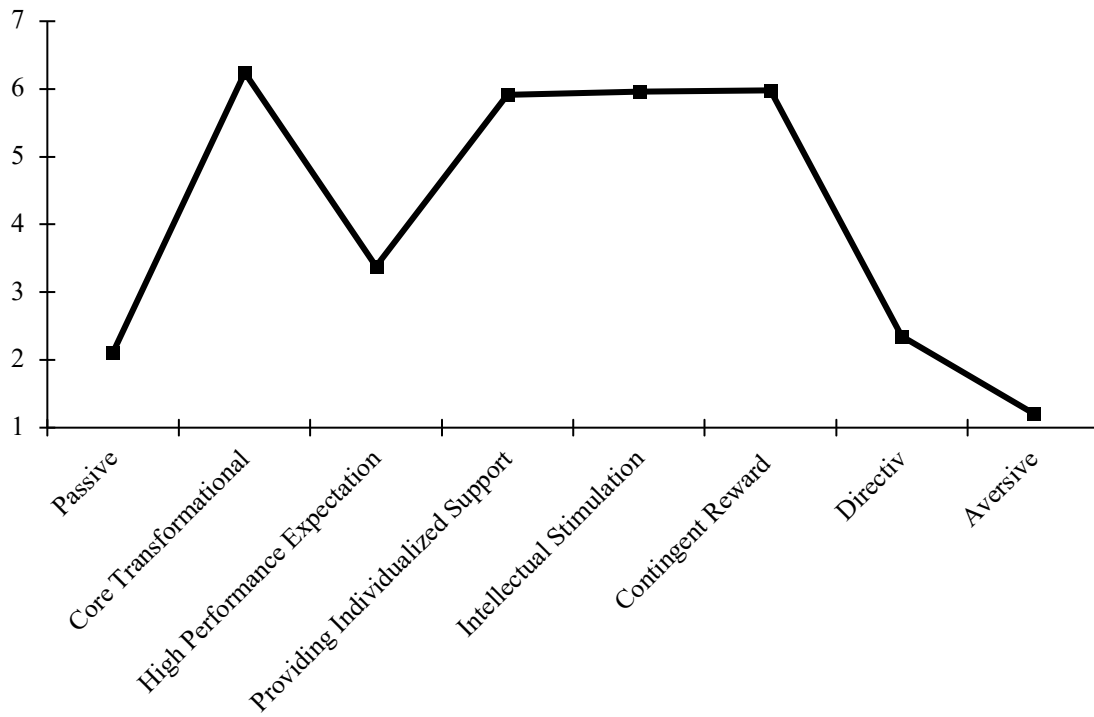


Figure 2

Means of the ratings of interpersonal attraction across leadership behaviors



Appendix

Scenarios

„Meine Führungskraft neigt dazu, nicht verfügbar zu sein, wenn wir Hilfe bei einem Problem benötigen. Erst wenn Dinge schiefgelaufen sind, handelt sie und wartet ansonsten ab. Meine Führungskraft vermeidet es, Entscheidungen zu treffen und sich einzumischen, wenn wichtige Fragen auftreten.“ / „My leader tends to be unavailable when we need help with a problem. He/she waits until things have gone wrong before taking action. My leader avoids making decisions and getting involved when important issues arise.” (passive)

„Meine Führungskraft ist ständig auf der Suche nach neuen Möglichkeiten für unser Team und hat ein klares Verständnis dafür, wo sich unser Team hinbewegt. Meine Führungskraft führt mit beispielhaftem Verhalten und eher durch „Taten“ als durch „Anweisungen“. Sie bringt uns dazu, gemeinsam für ein Ziel zu arbeiten und ein Wir-Gefühl und Teamgeist zu entwickeln.“ / „My leader is constantly looking for new opportunities for our team and has a clear understanding of toward which direction our team is moving. My manager leads with exemplary behavior by using “action” rather than “instruction”. He/she makes us work together in order to achieve one goal and to develop a “we feeling” (sense of togetherness/unity) as well as team spirit.” (core transformational)

„Meine Führungskraft zeigt offen, dass sie viel von uns erwartet. Meine Führungskraft besteht auf Höchstleistungen von uns Mitarbeitenden. Sie wird sich nicht mit dem Zweitbesten zufriedengeben. Meine Führungskraft zeigt hohe Erwartungen bezogen auf die Qualität und Leistungen gegenüber uns Mitarbeitenden.“ / „My leader openly shows that he/she expects a lot from us. My leader insists on top performance from us followers. He/she will not settle for second best. My leader shows high expectations from its followers in terms of quality and performance.” (high performance expectation)

„Meine Führungskraft handelt auf eine Art und Weise, die meine persönlichen Gefühle berücksichtigt. Sie zeigt ihren Respekt für uns Mitarbeitenden und bringt ihren Respekt für unsere persönlichen Gefühle zum Ausdruck. Meine Führungskraft nimmt auf meine persönlichen Gefühle Rücksicht.“ / “My leader acts in a way that takes my personal feelings into account. He/she treats us respectfully and expresses her respect for our personal feelings. My leader shows consideration for/interest in my personal feelings.” (providing individualized support)

„Meine Führungskraft zeigt mir neue Wege, an Dinge heranzugehen, die für mich vorher unverständlich waren. Sie hat Ideen, die mich dazu bringen, einige meiner eigenen Gedanken zu überdenken, die ich vorher nicht infrage gestellt habe. Meine Führungskraft regt mich dazu an, alte Probleme auf eine neue Art und Weise zu bedenken.“ / „My leader shows new ways to approach things that were incomprehensible to me before. He/she has ideas that make me rethink some of my own thoughts that I did not question before. My leader encourages me to think about old problems in a new way.” (intellectual stimulation)

„Meine Führungskraft gibt mir immer eine positive Rückmeldung, wenn ich gut Leistungen erbringe. Sie erkennt meine guten Leistungen immer an und lobt mich, wenn meine Arbeit besser als das Mittelmaß ist. Meine Führungskraft beglückwünscht mich persönlich, wenn ich herausragende Arbeit leiste.“ / „My leader always provides positive feedback when I perform well. He/she always recognizes my good performance and praises me when my work is better than average. My leader congratulates me personally when my work is outstanding.” (contingent reward)

„Meine Führungskraft legt Ziele für meine Arbeit fest ohne uns Mitarbeitende in die Entscheidung einzubeziehen. Wenn es um meine Arbeit geht, gibt mir meine Führungskraft Anweisungen, wie ich diese auszuführen habe. Sie erwartet, dass man ihre Vorgaben ohne Diskussion umsetzt.“ / „My leader establishes goals form my work without involving us followers in the decision making process. When it comes to my work, my leader gives me instructions on how to carry it out. He/she expects the implementation of his/her instructions without any discussion.” (directive)

„Meine Führungskraft schüchtert mich durch ihr Verhalten ein. Sie versucht mich durch Drohungen und Einschüchterungen zu beeinflussen. Meine Führungskraft lässt mich darüber wissen, wenn ich schlechte Leistung bringe und weist mich darauf hin, wenn meine Leistung nicht den Anforderungen entspricht.“ / „My leader intimidates me with his/her behavior. He/she tries to influence me through threat and intimidation. My leader lets me know about it when I perform poorly and points it out to me when my performance is not up to par.“ (aversive)

Der Lebenslauf (Seiten 189f.) ist nicht Teil der Veröffentlichung.

Appendix E: Eidesstattliche Erklärung der Verfasserin

Ich versichere hiermit, dass ich meine Dissertation „**Ways to Leadership: Considering Different Perspectives on What it Needs to Lead**“ selbstständig, ohne unerlaubte Hilfe angefertigt, und mich keiner anderen als der von mir ausdrücklich bezeichneten Quellen und Hilfsmittel bedient habe. Alle vollständig oder sinngemäß übernommenen Zitate sind als solche gekennzeichnet. Die Dissertation wurde in der jetzigen oder ähnlichen Form noch bei keiner anderen Hochschule eingereicht und hat noch keinen sonstigen Prüfungszwecken gedient.

Marburg, Mai 2022

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