1-1-2017

Are Transformational Leaders Sustainable? The Role Of Organizational Culture

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ARE TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERS SUSTAINABLE? THE ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

by

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DISSERTATION

Submitted to the Graduate School

of Wayne State University,

Detroit, Michigan

in partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

2017

MAJOR: PSYCHOLOGY (Industrial / Organizational)

Approved By:

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Advisor Date

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank my advisor, Dr. Marcus Dickson, for his excellent mentorship on my dissertation, academic career, and professional development beyond the I-O psychology program. I would also like to express my appreciation to Dr. Lisa Marchiondo, who served as my advisor during my pre-candidacy years and prepared me to become a better scholar. On my dissertation committee, I am very grateful to have Dr. Boris Baltes and Dr. Alyssa McGonagle, who have also provided invaluable guidance on my dissertation, doctoral study, and scientific research. To make the dissertation possible, I especially thank Dr. Cheryl Boglarsky, the director of research at Human Synergistics International, for approving and assisting in the use of the HSI data. She has also been a tremendous support since I started my graduate study in the U.S.

Throughout my academic career, I have also been fortunate to have many other mentors at various stages. Dr. Hora Tjitra opened the door of I-O psychology to me when I was an undergraduate student. Dr. Kathleen Zimmerman-Oster and Dr. Linda Slowik are extremely helpful and encouraging in recognizing and developing my potential to continue onto the doctoral level study. Besides my committee members, Dr. Jason Huang and Dr. Sebastiano Fisicaro have also offered me valuable opportunities and advices through research projects, teaching assistantship, and consulting. I highly appreciate all the supportive colleagues at Wayne State University, University of Detroit Mercy, and Zhejiang University.

Lastly, I thank my father, Hang Ran, and mother, Sen Jing, in allowing their only child to pursue advanced education oversea. I would also like to extend my gratitude to Mark Williams, my husband-to-be, for unconditionally valuing and supporting who I am and what I want to be. I also thank other family members, especially Nancy Tsui, for their love as always.

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Organizational leaders comprise a critical part of the labor force. According to the Occupational Information Network (O*NET, National Center for O*NET Development, 2015), over 300 occupations fit with the search term "leader", including approximately two million general/operation managers and over 300,000 chief executives. They also play essential roles in the 21st century workplace by motivating employees to exhibit above-excellence performance and facilitating changes in organizations (Bass & Bass, 2009; Day & Antonakis, 2012).

As the workplace is increasingly stressful, leaders, just like other employees, are not exempt from common job stressors, such as job insecurity and long work hours (Sparks, Faragher, & Cooper, 2001). Based on a national survey conducted by the Center for Creative Leadership (CCL), about three quarters of respondents from various leadership positions reported that their leadership role has contributed to a higher level of stress (Campbell, Innis Bates, Marin, & Meddings, 2007). Some common stressors identified by the survey include dealing with conflicts, politics, and confrontations, building and maintaining relationships with others, and working with individuals of different styles. However, only a quarter of the respondents considered that their organizations had provided adequate resources for them to cope with stress. Other stressors relevant to leaders also include emotional labor (Humphrey, Pollack, & Hawver, 2008), potential risks in decision making, and other strategic behaviors, particularly among executive-level leaders (Ganster, 2005; Hambrick, Finkelstein, & Mooney, 2005).

The consequences of experiencing stress are broader for leaders in relation to average employees. Individuals who took on major national leadership roles, such as the presidents of the United States, have shown striking signs of aging in their physical appearance during their terms (McGonigal & Lavender, 2014). A series of interviews with over 100 leaders across 18 countries

indicates that most of them need to engage in activities to compensate for their "relentless tension" due to their leadership responsibilities (Bailey, 2014).

Leaders' poor well-being can also result in a lower level of effectiveness and a higher likelihood for abusive supervisory behaviors (Byrne et al., 2014), which further cause followers' poor job attitudes and performance (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Mawritz, Mayer, Hoobler, Wayne, & Marinova, 2012; Tepper, 2007). Thus, understanding the causes of leaders' well-being is critical for the active promotion of leaders' long-term effectiveness, which also benefits the followers and organizations they serve.

As suggested by Quick, Macik-Frey, and Cooper (2007), healthy leadership is a pivotal factor for maintaining a healthy organization. Nonetheless, limited research has been devoted to the unique stress process underwent by leaders, resulting in scarce knowledge about how to sustain healthy leadership over time. To address this significant gap, the current study investigated the relationship between effective leadership behaviors and well-being consequences for leaders. In other words, the main research question is: "Are effective leadership behaviors detrimental to leaders' positive well-being?" In addition, this study was designed to contribute to the leadership research in the following ways: a) Expanding the outcome of leadership research to leaders' well-being, b) adopting a positive psychology perspective by examining eudemonic well-being of leaders, and c) examining how the organizational context (i.e., culture) moderates the relationship between leader behaviors and well-being.

I will first focus on a critical model of effective leadership, transformational leadership, and then present the perspective of eudemonic well-being. Next, under the framework of self-regulation (Carver & Scheier, 2002; DeShon & Gillespie, 2005; Lord, Diefendorff, Schmidt, &

Hall, 2010; Vancouver & Day, 2005) and conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001, 2002), a series of hypotheses will be offered regarding the relationship between transformational leadership and leaders' eudemonic well-being, as well as the moderating role of organizational culture.

Transformational Leadership

The transformational leadership model has been one of the most dominant theories of leadership since the 1970s (Day & Antonakis, 2012; Gardner, Lowe, Moss, Mahoney, & Cogliser, 2010). Also known as the neo-charismatic or visionary leadership theory, this school of theory originated from House's (1977) "motive-arousing" charismatic leadership and Burns' (1978, p. 18) "mobilizing" effect of transforming leadership, both of which in some ways grew from Max Weber's (1947) conceptualization of charismatic leadership.

Building on these earlier pieces of work, Bass (1985, 1999) proposed the transformational leadership model, which focuses on leader characteristics and behaviors that enable followers to perform "beyond expectations" and strive for goals transcending their self-interests. Transformational leadership consists of four components: a) *Idealized influence* describes leaders' attributes and behaviors, such as communicating vision, exhibiting confidence and power, and being an idealized role model for followers; b) *Inspirational motivation* refers to leaders' inspiring and motivating behaviors targeted at elevating expectations for followers; c) *Intellectual stimulation* involves encouraging rational and creative problem solving, challenging existing assumptions, and promoting creativity among followers; d) *Individualized consideration* comprises leadership behaviors providing personal or "customized" attention, support, and mentoring to followers (Bass, 1985, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1993). As a part of the full range leadership model, idealized influence is further divided into the attributed and behavioral

dimensions (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003). However, because followers often infer leaders' attributes from observing their actions, these two dimensions are usually highly correlated and collapsed as a single factor (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

Meanwhile, Conger and Kanungo (1987, 1992) pointed out that, instead of capturing actual behaviors, the transformational leadership model developed by Bass and Avolio may be contaminated by the outcomes of leadership behaviors. Therefore, they proposed a behavioral model of charismatic leadership, which describes what leaders do rather than what leader behaviors result in. In particular, the three overarching behavioral components include: a) sensitively assessing the environment and follower needs, b) formulating and articulating strategic vision, challenging the status quo, and taking personal risks, and c) engaging in unconventional behaviors (Conger & Kanungo, 1992; Rowold & Laukamp, 2009). As pointed out by Rowold and Laukamp, there is substantial overlap between the transformational and charismatic leadership models, yet the personal risk and unconventional behavior components from the Conger and Kanungo's model are relatively unique.

Despite some distinctions in the operationalization, transformational, or charismatic, leadership emphasizes the motivating effect generated by a leader to his/her followers in order to achieve ambitious outcomes. In this process, leaders may exhibit unusual or extraordinary behaviors to maximize the influence. Empirical evidence has provided general support that transformational leadership is effective in enhancing followers' positive job attitudes, motivation, and performance, as well as objective organizational performance (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Rowold & Laukamp, 2009).

Eudemonic Well-being

While there has been extensive research on factors affecting effectiveness of leadership and how leaders influence others, very few studies have thus far attended to the impact of leadership on leaders themselves, especially their well-being (Byrne et al., 2014). Health is a fundamental need and right for human-beings, of which individuals in leadership positions are a part.

Hedonic versus Eudemonic Well-Being. The World Health Organization (1948) defines health as a state that is not limited to the absence of disease but involves "physical, social, and mental well-being". Bircher (2005) echoes this definition and adds that the improvement of the physical, social, and mental potentials is an integral part of health. Psychologists, in particular, suggest that psychological well-being should not be restricted to pleasure, enjoyment, or subjective happiness (i.e., a hedonic view); instead, the eudemonic view of well-being emphasizes positive mastery, growth of individuals, and the fulfillment of psychological needs, such as autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2001; Ryff, 1989; Ryff & Keyes, 1995). Consistent with the more positive view, the proposed study adopts the eudemonic perspective, suggesting that leaders' well-being is not limited to an absence of ill-health, but it includes realizing their potentials and satisfying their high level needs.

In contrast to hedonic pleasure, the eudemonic perspective holds different assumptions about human nature, such that every individual holds distinctive potentialities from one another and seeks to express and actualize these potentialities (Ryff, Keyes, & Hughes, 2003; Waterman, 1993). From the eudemonic perspective, Ryff and Keyes (1995) proposed and tested a six-dimensional structure: a) Autonomy: Experience of self-determination; 2) Personal growth: Continuous development as a person; 3) Self-acceptance: Positive attitudes toward oneself and

past experiences; 4) Purpose in life: Belief of meaningful life; 5) Mastery: Effective management of one's life and the environment; and 6) Positive relatedness: High quality relationship with others. These components are tied to intrinsic motivation in the theory of self-determination (Ryan & Deci, 2000), but different from traditional measures of well-being, which focus on subjective happiness or satisfaction of desires (Diener, Sapyta, & Suh, 1998).

While these two types of well-being have some degree of overlap (Kashdan, Biswas-Diener, & King, 2008), hedonic and eudemonic well-being do not share the same causes and effects. For instance, autonomy and perceived internal control of a successful task, is related to increased vitality, as an indicator of eudemonia, but not related to subjective happiness (Nix, Ryan, Manly, & Deci, 1999). Positive behaviors toward others, such as prosocial behaviors, are more likely to be the outcome of eudemonic, rather than hedonic, well-being (Ryan, Huta, & Deci, 2008).

Leaders' Well-Being. In the workplace, well-being, in general, (i.e., psychological distress, exhaustion, burnout, etc.) has been linked to meaningful employee and organizational outcomes, including absenteeism (Hardy, Woods, & Wall, 2003), safety (Halbesleben, 2010), engagement (Cole, Walter, Bedeian, & O'Boyle, 2012), and performance (Halbesleben & Bowler, 2007; LePine, Podsakoff, & LePine, 2005; Taris, 2006). Leaders, as organizational employees, also benefit from positive health. Furthermore, leaders are the most active members in initiating and facilitating organizational changes, so understanding phenomena associated with leaders' well-being is above and beyond promoting leaders' own health and satisfaction.

Leaders' well-being is especially meaningful for their followers and the organizations. First, leaders' well-being is directly related to followers' well-being due to the contagion of affect between leaders and their followers (Skakon, Nielsen, Borg, & Guzman, 2010). When

leaders take on dynamic or unpredictable tasks, the negative affect (e.g., irritation) they experience may spill over their followers (Mohr & Wolfram, 2010). Second, leaders' suboptimal health can also indirectly harm followers. For instance, signals of leader depletion (e.g., poor mental health, alcohol consumption, and sleep deprivation) are associated with fewer transformational and more abusive behaviors observed by the followers (Barnes, Lucianetti, Bhave, & Christian, 2015; Byrne et al., 2014), which are negative predictors of followers' favorable job attitudes, performance, and well-being (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Mawritz et al., 2012; Tepper, 2007). Third, organizations may become less effective when leaders make low-quality decisions under stress. In particular, a lack of cognitive resources force leaders to fall back on heuristics (Fiedler, 1995), the likelihood for unethical decisions increases (Selart & Johansen, 2011), and their decisions becomes significantly more shortsighted (Bass & Bass, 2009).

In addition, eudemonic well-being is highly relevant to the understanding of effective leadership. A modern understanding of emergence of leadership is that leaders, at least partially, need to be developed (Collins & Holton, 2004; Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Sturm, & McKee, 2014). Day et al. (2014) suggest that the intrapersonal process of leaders, involving their tendencies to learn from experiences, master skills, and grow as an individual, is critical to leadership development. Thus, the eudemonic perspective of well-being, with an emphasis on realizing potentials and positive growth, is aligned with the inquiry of the long-term process of developing a leader. Meanwhile, to exert positive influence, leaders' enactment of mastery, competence, and growth is consistent with the key tenets of eudemonic well-being. Leaders who demonstrate mastery and growth foci may be more likely to envision in an ambitious way, portray positive role models, engage in positive social exchange, and have a developmental focus with their

followers (Ilies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005; Quick et al., 2007). These desirable characteristics are also recognized by researchers given the current movement toward studying authentic leadership from a positive psychology perspective (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008).

Leaders' eudemonia also positively influences follower outcomes. Compared to hedonic well-being, eudemonic well-being is more related to prosocial concerns (Huta, Pelletier, Baxter, & Thompson, 2012; Ryan et al., 2008), which are critical for leaders to hold high moral standards and balance their own and others' interests when working with followers (Michie, 2009). Due to the prosocial motives, leaders high on eudemonic well-being tend to support others' self-determination (e.g., providing constructive feedback) and facilitate high quality exchange with followers, leading to high levels of follower motivation, satisfaction, and trust toward the leader (Ilies et al., 2005). Moreover, according to social learning theory (Bandura, 1997), when leaders model behaviors related to self-development, fulfilling personal potential, and sustaining positive well-being, followers are more likely to demonstrate similar behaviors that benefit their own well-being.

Moreover, researchers have been increasingly interested in the dark side of leadership (Conger, 1990; Judge, Piccolo, & Kosalka, 2009). Some particular insights are related to self-destructive behaviors observed from leaders who were once effective and ethical, as known as the "Bathsheba Syndrome" (Kets de Vries, 1989; Ludwig & Longenecker, 1993). Because consecutive high goals can deplete individuals' resources to support ethical behaviors (Welsh & Ordóñez, 2014), the erosion of the characteristics described by the "Bathsheba Syndrome" (Ludwig & Longenecker, 1993) is likely a result of the failure to sustain ethical behaviors under the prolonged depletion of resources due to leadership demands. Many controversies also arise

from the potential compatibility and conflicts between effective (i.e., transformational) and ethical leadership (Avolio & Locke, 2002; Day & Antonakis, 2012). Hence, an exclusive emphasis on effectiveness outcomes has limited the consolidation of our knowledge about whether effective leadership can be sustainable over time and how to minimize potential drawbacks of transformational leadership.

Taken together, leaders' well-being is an essential outcome to be considered by leadership researchers. The discussion of well-being consists of the hedonic (i.e., absence of strain) and, most importantly, eudemonic aspects. A leader who suffers from poor health is subject to the same consequences as an average employee (e.g., absenteeism, injuries, burnout, poor performance and career outcomes, etc.), and the followers and organization can also be at risk. However, research to date frequently attends to the effect of leaders on followers' well-being but rarely incorporates leaders' well-being. Not only is leaders' well-being a humanitarian concern, but it also provides critical implications for positive development and sustainability of the leaders themselves and their constituents in a long run.

Theoretical Framework

To address the lack of research in linking effective leadership to leaders' well-being, the current study draws from the self-regulation framework (Carver & Scheier, 2002; DeShon & Gillespie, 2005; Lord et al., 2010; Vancouver & Day, 2005) and COR (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001, 2002) to build a foundation for how transformational leadership behaviors may tax self-regulatory resources and threat leaders' well-being.

Self-Regulation. Common leadership definitions (Bass & Bass, 2009; Day & Antonakis, 2012) suggest that leadership is a systematic set of behaviors directed toward change and influencing others, implying an underlying self-regulatory process of the actors of these

behaviors (i.e., the leaders). Self-regulation is a dynamic, within-person process of identifying the discrepancy between the current state and a desirable state, as well as striving toward the desirable state (Carver & Scheier, 2002), and it has been widely discussed in the context of achievement situations (Lord et al., 2010; Vancouver & Day, 2005).

Described as "Lewin's (1951) Legacy" (Vancouver, 2008, p.2), the self-regulatory process accounts for the continuous interaction between an individual and the environment. Likewise, leaders are engaged in two important self-regulatory processes simultaneously through the complex interactions between leaders and theirs followers within an organizational context. One process is that leaders assess *the current and desirable states of the work group* and then facilitate goal achievement of the group through their leadership (House, 1996). With regard to transformational leaders, they carefully attend to the environmental status quo and individual follower needs (i.e., environmental sensitivity and individualized consideration). They actively envision the desirable states and create goals for the work group to achieve (i.e., idealized influence). They also utilize affective and cognitive means to inspire and challenge followers to reduce the discrepancy between the status quo and the ideal (i.e., inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation). Overall, this process aims at closing discrepancies on the group level. The other process is that leaders, as ordinary individuals, also strive to fulfill *high level personal needs*, such as affiliation, agency, and esteem (DeShon & Gillespie, 2005; Lord et al., 2010). Positive consequences of leadership, such as follower favorable attitudes and work group achievement, can serve as means to satisfy leaders' high level needs (Ilies et al., 2005; Toor & Ofori, 2009).

There is a major distinction between the group-oriented and individual-oriented regulatory processes. According to the hierarchical self-regulatory cycles or goal levels (DeShon

& Gillespie, 2005; Lord et al., 2010), the group-oriented process focuses on how effective leadership is implemented through low level behavioral goals (e.g., transformational behaviors). In contrast, the individual-oriented process is directed at the "self" component of goals, which resides on the top of the self-regulatory hierarchy. The fulfillment of high level needs, instead of discrete behaviors, is closely related to well-being. Traditionally, the emphasis on leader behaviors might have alienated researchers from connecting leadership behaviors to leaders' well-being. In the meantime, some philosophical debates have pointed out that there may be potential conflicts leaders' between own motives and leadership behaviors (Avolio & Locke, 2002). The recent authentic leadership model suggests that an alignment between leaders' behaviors and their high level selves facilitates leadership effectiveness (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Walumbwa et al., 2008), and leaders' eudemonic well-being is proposed as an important correlate of authentic leadership (Ilies et al., 2005). Thus, integrating the goal hierarchy perspective of the self-regulation theory can provide a meaningful conceptual basis for how the inconsistency between leaders' behaviors and their own higher level goals can be responsible for their poor well-being. Specifically, an overemphasis on fulfilling organizational goals or leading others may impede leaders' own growth and needs satisfaction, or eudemonic well-being.

Furthermore, as recognized by the theory, the limited psychological resources (i.e., affect, cognition, etc.) of an individual enable researchers to link the goal striving process to well-being (Lord et al., 2010). Because leadership behaviors involve multiple self-regulatory processes, leaders are constantly allocating limited resources to numerous activities. Depletion of self-regulatory resources can cause counterproductive or unsustainable behaviors among individuals (Welsh & Ordóñez, 2014), including those in leadership positions (Joosten, van Dijke, Van Hiel,

& De Cremer, 2013). To further untangle the relationship between resources and well-being, the theory of COR will be discussed next.

Conservation of Resources (COR). As a widely adopted stress theory, COR states that the most critical determinant of well-being is resource loss (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001, 2002). Hobfoll indicates that human-beings are motivated to preserve and obtain different types of resources (i.e., personal, social, etc.), and (potential) resource reduction can harm one's well-being whereas (potential) gains are beneficial for one's well-being. Additionally, unsuccessful investment of resources can generate a resource loss spiral and subsequently lead to reluctance in future resource investment and chronic poor well-being.

COR sheds some unique light on leaders' well-being. In general, being in a leadership role can be associated with more resources in relation to an average employee (Hobfoll, 2001). For example, leaders, compared to their followers, usually have higher income, higher control on the job, and better access to organizational resources. As a result, others may assume that leaders enjoy abundant resources and are less vulnerable to poor health (Sherman et al., 2012). However, COR asserts that what matters for well-being is not the absolute amount of resources but the change in resources. Self-regulatory resources can be viewed as an important type of personal resources that individuals strive to conserve. As leaders frequently engage in self-regulatory activities, their self-regulatory resources may be at risk if opportunities for replenishing these resources are limited.

Meanwhile, the self-regulatory system is also responsible for resource allocation (Lord et al., 2010). Therefore, depletion of self-regulatory resources is likely to cause unwise investment of resources, which is likely to create a downward spiral of losses and chronic consequences of poor health. Among leaders, indicators of unwise investment of resources due to depletion may

include not attending to important task information and being overly invested in unimportant tasks (DeWall, Baumeister, Mead, & Vohs, 2011). Depletion may also result in deviant actions, such as abusive supervision and unethical decisions (Barnes et al., 2015; Byrne et al., 2014; Joosten et al., 2013), which prevent leaders from future gains of personal and social resources. In these cases, higher level goals, such as long-term mastery and growth, can be compromised for the leaders themselves, resulting in detriments to their eudemonic well-being.

To summarize, leadership behaviors challenge the organizational status quo and exemplify a self-regulatory process toward a visionary goal, which demands leaders' limited psychological resources. Under the self-regulation framework, leadership behaviors are lower level action goals aiming at minimizing the discrepancy between the current and ideal states for the work group. Over time, leaders' well-being can be influenced by consumed self-regulatory resources and the subsequent discrepancy between current and ideal states for leaders' own goals, such as satisfaction of basic individual needs and realization of personal potentials. Moreover, self-regulatory focus, or goal orientation, is a prominent construct to consider because of its role in connecting low- and high-level goals (DeShon & Gillespie, 2005; Vancouver & Day, 2005). The following section will dissect the mechanism associated with self-regulatory focus in the self-regulation process and how this mechanism is related to well-being.

Self-Regulatory Focus. Self-regulatory focus serves as the rudder in self-regulation, which guides the general direction of behaviors. There have been various conceptualizations of self-regulatory focus (or goal orientation), including trait-like implicit theories of important goals for individuals (Dweck, 1996, p. 69), domain specific motivational tendencies (Elliot & Church, 2003, p. 372), and a state-like "pattern of cognition and behaviors" (DeShon & Gillespie, 2005, p. 1114). The state-like conceptualization best reflects the self-regulation theory because it

integrates the other two perspectives and accounts for the complex personal and situational influences on one's dynamic self-regulatory process. Moreover, DeShon and Gillespie (2005) criticized the disconnection between the sematic meaning of "goal orientation" and its construct definition. In particular, goal orientation, or self-regulatory focus, does not mean that individuals tend to pursue different goals (or ends); instead, it refers to how individuals organize their thoughts and behaviors (or means) to achieve a desirable state.

Linking high level selves and concrete actions, self-regulatory focus falls on three dimensions: a) mastery-approach (or learning goal) orientation, a tendency to learn, develop, and master new knowledge and skills, b) performance-approach (or prove goal) orientation, a preference to demonstrate one's competence and receive positive judgment, and c) performance-avoid (or avoid goal) orientation, a desire to prevent the appearance of incompetence and potential negative judgment (DeShon & Gillespie, 2005; VandeWalle, 1997).

Recent development of this construct also suggests that self-regulatory focus can occur on multiple organizational levels (e.g., work unit, team, etc.) due to motivational contagion and social learning, such that members work in the same unit tend to share a similar pattern of cognition and behaviors (Dragoni, 2005; Dragoni & Kuenzi, 2012; Gong, Kim, Lee, & Zhu, 2013). While leaders may play a role in setting the self-regulatory focus for the work unit (Dragoni, 2005), the larger organizational context can influence the extent to which leaders' behaviors are desirable (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007). For instance, Kark and Van Dijk (2007) propose that because an innovation-oriented organization emphasizes change and creativity whereas a quality- or efficiency-oriented organization emphasizes mechanic routine and stability, the former type may foster the approach orientations, but the latter type may foster the performance-avoid orientation among organizational members and leaders.

Because leadership must exert its effect through mobilizing followers, the organizational level regulatory focus can influence how followers respond to leadership, which in turn can determine the results of leaders' resource investment. The current study proposes that organizational culture represents a persistent, organizational-level regulatory focus, and a latter section will discuss the specific moderating effect of organizational culture on the relationship between transformational leadership and leaders' well-being.

Transformational Leadership and Leaders' Eudemonic Well-being

To exhibit transformational behaviors, leaders invest various self-regulatory resources, including affective and cognitive types. Leaders apply affective resources to express desirable emotions, which are essential for motivating followers (Gardner, Fischer, & Hunt, 2009; Gooty, Connelly, Griffith, & Gupta, 2010; Humphrey et al., 2008). Cognitive activities, such as attention, problem solving, and decision making, are essential to leadership activities and require leaders' cognitive sources (Fiedler, 1995; Ganster, 2005). These resources are limited and require opportunities to replenish (Lord et al., 2010).

Affective Resources. Leadership is an interpersonal process. Transformational leaders exhibit behaviors that involve a high level of affective demands. For instance, they exhibit optimism and confidence in oneself and others about achieving ambitious goals (Gooty et al., 2010; Lindebaum & Cartwright, 2010). In order to develop pride, respect, and trust from followers (Bass, 1991), leaders exhibit similar emotions to create emotional contagion (Gooty et al., 2010; Humphrey et al., 2008; Rajah, Song, & Arvey, 2011). When challenging assumptions and encouraging creativity, contagion of positive emotions can further develop and broaden followers' intellectual resources (Fredrickson, 2001; Lindebaum & Cartwright, 2010). For demonstrating individualized consideration, leaders empathize with individual followers with

distinctive needs, interests, and values (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Rajah et al., 2011), which may require leaders to invest more affective resources compared to interacting with the work group as a whole (Byrne et al., 2014).

Humphrey and colleagues coined the "leading with emotional labor" concept to describe the affect demands faced by leaders. Although emotional labor is commonly known as relevant to service workers (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011), leadership positions also meet the definition of emotional labor, such that certain display rules exist for the work. Humphrey et al. add that the display rules are much more complex for leaders compared to service workers, who tend to exhibit monotonic, pleasant emotions during discrete encounters. In contrast, leaders need to be more discretionary about emotion display and choose from a wide array of positive and negative emotions given a certain situation. For example, leaders may think that frustration or anger is an appropriate response to followers' unsatisfactory performance. In fact, leaders' negative emotions, such as anger, can exert positive effects on follower performance in certain situations (e.g., military combat; Lindebaum, Jordan, & Morris, 2016). When leaders do not initially feel the emotions they judge as appropriate to display, emotional labor occurs. They may adopt two active emotional regulation strategies – surface acting and deep acting – in order to exhibit the appropriate emotions required by the situation (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). In general, either strategy can result in loss of affective resources and a higher likelihood of strain, and the detrimental effect of surface acting is especially strong over time (Hülsheger, Lang, & Maier, 2010; Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011).

Emotional labor can have an adverse effect on leaders' eudemonic well-being. First, the experienced inauthenticity associated with acting harms leaders' own feelings of mastery and the subsequent interactions with their followers (Gardner et al., 2009). Second, emotional labor

requires constant, effortful monitoring and regulation of emotions (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011), which distracts leaders' resources from fulfilling their own needs and positive development. Third, leaders frequently encounter interpersonal interactions with various followers, leading to complex, prolonged affective demands and limited opportunities to recover from depletion (Iszatt-White, 2009). Thus, transformational leadership tax leaders' affective resources over time, and consequently their positive growth suffers.

Cognitive Resources. Leadership also consumes cognitive resources (Fiedler, 1995). Some new trends in leadership research involve investigating how leaders process information (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009). Transformational leaders attentively collect and process information within and beyond their work group, such that they observe follower behaviors and characteristics, analyze performance-goal discrepancies, and assess task and organizational characteristics (Wofford, Goodwin, & Whittington, 1998). One of the most critical components of transformational leadership is forming and articulating a vision, which requires leaders to sensitively perceive and analyze the work environment and communicate novel ideas to followers. This process may be intentionally differentiated among followers and specific to the organizational context, as indicated by the individualized consideration aspect of transformational leadership (Avolio & Bass, 1995). Another important aspect is that leaders intellectually stimulate followers' awareness and creativity when approaching problem solving. All of these activities are cognitively demanding.

However, there are limited cognitive resources to draw from. Fiedler (1995) argued that leaders strive to conserve their limited cognitive resources and tend not to utilize all cognitive resources at a given time (i.e., cognitive ability and experiences) at a given time. When leaders focus on their tasks, such as observing followers and analyzing the environment, this active

monitoring can drain their cognitive resources, resulting in a loss of resources for other activities (Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989). As such, when leaders enact transformational behaviors, they may become more reluctant to devote resources for their own high level goals. In other words, high cognitive demands can compromise leaders' long-term development and self-fulfillment.

It is important to note that transformational leadership can also foster leaders' sense of achievement, power, and affiliation due to increased effectiveness in terms of follower performance and goal fulfillment. Nonetheless, these positive outcomes occur with a delay in relation to the enactment of transformational leadership because time is required for follower to perform. Thus, leaders' investment of resources may not be accompanied by equivalent restoration, resulting in insufficient resource for sustaining leaders' eudemonic well-being. As transformational leaders continuously detect discrepancies and generate new visions, they may face a persistent resource deficit. Taken together, the affective and cognitive aspects of transformational leadership are accompanied by increased leaders' need to consider external factors (e.g., follower and environmental needs), which undermines leaders' autonomous choices and intrinsic interests in their daily activities. Thus, I offer the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: Transformational leadership is negatively related to leaders' eudemonic well-being.

Organizational Culture

Although various demands generally threaten leaders' sustainability by exhausting their self-regulatory resources, these resources can be restored through a wide range of means. COR suggests that adequate resource gain can compensate for the harmful results of the initial resource loss. Organizational culture, as an environmental characteristic, can facilitate the extent to which leaders successfully gain resources.

Schein (1990, 2010) defines organizational culture as "a pattern of shared assumptions" in a work group, and argues that it resides on three levels − observable artifacts, espoused values, and underlying assumptions. These shared cultural elements guide how organizational members react and adapt to the environment, as well as how they learn and behave within the group. Despite the active role of leaders in shaping the culture of the work group, they live and breathe in the larger organizational culture just like other members. Schein (2010) suggests that a stabilized culture, like a "coercive" force, determines what types of leadership may fit the organizational expectations. In addition, if leaders attempt to initiate cultural changes, "unfreezing" the current culture is the necessary first step. Therefore, organizational culture exerts a strong contextual influence over the leadership process.

One way to operationalize culture is the organizational norms, or the "implicitly or explicitly required" expectations, which determine what styles of thinking and behaviors can be accepted by other members in the organization (Cooke & Szumal, 2000). This operationalization is consistent with the conceptualization of self-regulatory focus on the group level, the shared pattern of cognitions and behaviors within a work unit (DeShon & Gillespie, 2005; Dragoni, 2005). Leaders must influence followers under the shared expectations, resulting in varying degrees of resource investment and return. Therefore, the current paper speculates that organizational culture serves as a moderator on the relationship between transformational leadership and leaders' well-being.

Organizational Culture as a Moderator for the Well-Being Consequences of Transformational Leadership. Transformational leaders actively invest self-regulatory resources to motivate and develop others for performance beyond expectations, which may or may not be received well by followers based on the organizational culture. As such, culture

affects the amount of resource investment for leaders to exhibit a certain level of influence on followers, as well as the subsequent resource gain. The following sections will discuss how each type of cultural norms, conceptualized as the organizational level self-regulatory focus, moderates the consequences of transformational leadership.

Mastery-approach cultural norm. When an organization encourages its members to continuously improve and adapt to changes, this cultural norm mirrors the construct of mastery-approach regulatory focus (Dragoni & Kuenzi, 2012; Kark & Dijk, 2007; LePine, 2005). Under this cultural norm, members are expected to actively implement novel means in tasks, engage in frequent information exchange and helping, and acknowledge the positive functions of errors and feedback for enhancing the work process and workers themselves (Gong et al., 2013; LePine, 2005; Porter, 2005). Therefore, when achievement is desirable, the underlying assumption of the mastery-approach norm primarily stresses developing mastery of knowledge and skills rather than work outcomes (Brett & VandeWalle, 1999; Dragoni, 2005; Dragoni & Kuenzi, 2012).

Transformational leadership fits well with a cultural norm high on the mastery-approach focus. Followers actively seek challenging work and are not afraid of unfavorable results, showing their readiness to leaders' ambitious vision and unconventional ideas. In such cultural context, leaders do not need to invest extensive affective and cognitive effort to mobilize followers or initiate changes. For instance, individuals high on mastery-approach orientation tend to be more self-efficacious and show more positive emotions when learning new things (Ford, Smith, Weissbein, Gully, & Salas, 1998; Stevens & Gist, 1997). A mastery-approach orientation is also positively related to intrinsic enjoyment of challenging tasks (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996; Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004). Since followers already hold positive attitudes about difficult goals and potential risks, the need for leaders to emotionally mobilize them is limited,

which reduces emotional labor. Also, because mastery goal is associated with positive beliefs about errors (Bell & Kozlowski, 2008), leaders are likely to utilize follower input, both positive and negative, to inform judgment and decisions. Leaders' individualized consideration behaviors are appreciated and valued as developmental opportunities by followers (Avolio & Bass, 1995). Therefore, leaders preserve more resources while being transformational, and followers can reciprocate leaders' resource investment by recognizing and supporting these transformational behaviors. Together, transformational leaders are likely to experience limited resource loss and a greater degree of resource gain under the mastery-approach norm, leading to the following hypothesis:

> *Hypothesis 2:* Mastery-approach cultural norms moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and leaders' eudemonic well-being, such that the relationship is positive when the mastery-approach norm is high, whereas the relationship is negative when the mastery-approach norm is low.

Performance-approach cultural norm. In contrast, the performance-approach cultural norm anticipates and rewards organizational members to demonstrate excellent performance, suggesting a cultural assumption of high emphasis on positive work outcomes (Dragoni, 2005; LePine, 2005). While striving for achievement is encouraged under both performance-approach and mastery-approach norms, interpersonal competition, instead of personal development, is an integral part of the performance-approach norm because of the expectation to outperform others (Brett & VandeWalle, 1999; Dragoni & Kuenzi, 2012).

In general, a performance-approach focus is not compatible with transformational leadership. When this norm is high, followers who are expected to appear competent can feel threated by ambitious visions and become maladaptive to difficult goals (LePine, 2005). They

are more extrinsically motivated (Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004) and less likely to experience positive emotions when facing changes (Stevens & Gist, 1997). Motivational and intellectual appeal from leaders become more effortful in this situation. For instance, leaders must remain positive even if followers show resistance to the ambitious visions and stimulating ideas. Because followers prefer disclosing positive information about themselves, leaders need to devote additional attentional resources to negative aspects of followers and the environment. With the strong competition among followers, they may perceive leaders' individualized consideration as detrimental to their own chance to outperform others (Avolio & Bass, 1995). Consequently, leaders must invest a great amount of psychological resources when exerting transformational influence in a performance-approach norm, with limited opportunities to gain resources from followers. In contrast, when the performance-approach norm is low, the exacerbating demands on leaders are reduced, but the absence of extrinsic motivation or competition does not necessarily facilitate leaders' resource gain, so the negative relationship between transformational leadership and leaders' well-being is expected to be weak but present.

> *Hypothesis 3:* Performance-approach cultural norms moderate the negative relationship between transformational leadership and leaders' eudemonic well-being, such that the negative relationship is stronger when the performance-approach norm is high, whereas the negative relationship is weaker when the performance-approach norm is low.

Performance-avoid cultural norm. Additionally, when the performance-avoid norm is high, members are encouraged to prevent themselves from showing incompetence or receiving negative critiques, revealing a fundamental priority to deny negative aspects of work (Dragoni, 2005; Dragoni & Kuenzi, 2012). The cultural norm is negatively related to members' information exchange and creativity, as well as being positively related to covering up mistakes

and being “safe” on tasks (Dragoni, 2005; Gong et al., 2013). Dragoni also states that the two performance-oriented norms share a similar characteristic of the expectation for impression management.

If an organization is high on performance-avoid expectations, a transformational style will harm leaders’ resources over time. Similar to the performance-approach norm, followers show a strong inclination to the status quo, are motivated more by extrinsic cues, and exhibit a high level of negative emotions to changes and risks (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996; Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004). As members tend to remain silence about negative events (Edmondson, 2004), discovering discrepancies about the work situation and followers become a very difficult task for leaders. Moreover, leaders’ positive motivational actions may be unsupported by the organization with a norm of punishing mistakes (Dragoni, 2005). As the result, transformational behaviors may be unsuccessful by creating an undesirable discrepancy and become a futile investment. In turn, this loss spiral increases the risk for poor leaders’ well-being in a long term. On the other hand, an absence of the performance-avoid norm does not particularly compensate for transformational leaders’ resource loss, so transformational leadership is expected to have a weak but negative effect on leaders’ well-being when the performance-avoid norm is low.

> *Hypothesis 4:* Performance-avoid cultural norms moderate the negative relationship between transformational leadership and leaders’ eudemonic well-being, such that the negative relationship is stronger when the performance-avoid norm is high, whereas the negative relationship is weaker when the performance-avoid norm is low.

Summary

To summarize, the current paper undertakes a novel direction for leadership research to undertake; that is extending outcome of leadership to leaders themselves, particularly their

eudemonic well-being. This line of research will contribute to scientific knowledge of leader sustainability over time. According to the framework of self-regulation and COR, I offer the hypothesis that transformational leadership is negatively related to leaders' eudemonic well-being, and this relationship can be reversed by the mastery-approach culture norm of the organization but exacerbated by performance-approach and avoid norms. To test these hypotheses, an empirical study using archival data from multiple organizations was presented next.

CHAPTER 2: METHOD

The current study utilized a set of archival data obtained from Human Synergistics International (HSI), an organizational assessment instrument publisher. This multi-organizational dataset consists of employee ratings of various leader characteristics using the *Leadership/Impact*®[1] (L/I; Szumal, 2002, 2014) assessment and ratings of organizational culture using the *Organizational Culture Inventory*®[2] (OCI®; Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Cooke & Szumal, 1993, 2000). The methodology is described in detail below.

Procedure

A subset of leaders were selected from a larger population of leaders whose "self-description" and "description by others" forms were scored by the publisher of the *Leadership/Impact*® (L/I) inventory. The "description by others" form involved ratings of the focal leader from multiple employees. From the same organizations where the *Leadership/Impact*® inventory was administered, employee ratings of the current organizational culture using the *Organizational Culture Inventory*® were also obtained from the publisher of the inventory. There were five criteria for including the response in the study: a) the organization must simultaneously have data available on the *Leadership/Impact*® and *Organizational Culture Inventory*® assessments; b) the focal leader evaluated must hold a full-time leadership position at the focal organization; c) each focal leader must be assessed by at least three other employees; d) each focal organization must be assessed by at least five members; and e) each focal organization must contain responses on at least three leaders in the *Leadership/Impact*® dataset(s). Based on

[1] From *Leadership/Impact® Feedback Report* by R. A. Cooke, Human Synergistics. Copyright 2017 by Human Synergistics International. Adapted by permission.
[2] From *Leadership/Impact® Feedback Report* by R. A. Cooke, Human Synergistics. Copyright 2017 by Human Synergistics International. Adapted by permission.

these criteria, I signed an agreement letter with HSI indicating that I would receive a sample of 400 leaders from at least 30 organizations.

I received six separate datasets, each of which included responses from multiple organizations on either the *Leadership/Impact*® or the *Organizational Culture Inventory*® assessments. Each leader and organization was identified using a random, anonymous code. The *Leadership/Impact*® datasets included 7,413 others' ratings of 773 leaders from 66 organizations. Among these responses, 18 organizations did not contain ratings on three or more leaders, so responses from 308 raters on 33 leaders from these 18 organizations were excluded. Also due to no matching responses between the *Leadership/Impact*® and *Organizational Culture Inventory*®, 373 others' ratings of 45 leaders from three organizations were not useable in the *Leadership/Impact*®. Meanwhile, the *Organizational Culture Inventory*® datasets included 13,531 employee responses from 68 organizations, 18 of which corresponded to the organizations with an insufficient number of responses about leaders (two or fewer) in the *Leadership/Impact*®. An additional five did not have matching responses between the *Organizational Culture Inventory*® and *Leadership/Impact*®. Therefore, 2,959 responses from these 23 organizations were not included for further analyses.

With regard to missing data, cases were deleted if values were missing on more than a third of the items within each of the applicable measures. Responses from eight *Leadership/Impact*® and four *Organizational Culture Inventory*® respondents were further deleted from the *Leadership/Impact*® and *Organizational Culture Inventory*® datasets, respectively. The final combined *Leadership/Impact*® dataset consists of 6,724 others' report of leader behaviors and leaders' well-being of 695 leaders from 45 organizations (number of rated leaders per organization: M = 9.67, Mdn = 9.00, SD = 3.91), and the final combined

Organizational Culture Inventory® dataset consists of 10,568 employees from 45 organizations (number of employee responses per organization: M = 234.84, Mdn = 62.00, SD = 465.51). Table 1 provides a summary of the data cleaning and merging process.

After examining interrater reliability and agreement, I aggregated ratings of leaders to the leader level and employee ratings of organizational culture to the organization level. Responses were then linked through organizational codes into a unified dataset. Results regarding interrater reliability and agreement are presented in the data aggregation section.

Sample Characteristics

Using the final sample (N = 6,724 for leadership raters, N = 695 for leaders, and N = 45 for organizations), leadership rater and leader characteristics were summarized in Table 2 and Table 3. Most of the leadership raters and focal leaders were between 36- and 60-year-old. A bi-modal distribution existed for the length of relationship between rater and leader (2 to 4 years and more than 12 years). Also, the raters and leaders were most likely to have a follower-leader (41.9%) or peer relationship (19.4%). In the leader sample, male (61.0%), senior management (24.7%), long organizational tenure (18.4% more than 20 years), and long leadership tenure (25.6% more than 20 years) were most represented.

Measures

Leadership behaviors and leaders' well-being were measured using scales extracted from the *Leadership/Impact*®, a 360-degree assessment of leaders' impact on others through various behavioral strategies at different organizational levels (Szumal, 2002, 2014). Organizational culture was measured using the *Organizational Culture Inventory*®, a widely adopted quantitative assessment of 12 behavioral norms and three culture clusters based on employee perceptions (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Cooke & Szumal, 1993, 2000). Each measure is

described in detail below. Aggregated mean-level employee responses were used to operationalize each construct, given sufficient interrater reliability and agreement (Bliese, 2000; LeBreton & Senter, 2008).

Leadership Behaviors. The leadership strategy section of the *Leadership/Impact*® asks others to evaluate leaders' use of various leadership behaviors on a 5-point frequency scale ranging from 0 = Never to 4 = Always. Followers, peers, leaders' supervisors, or others were required to read statements that describe the focal leader's utilization of behavioral strategies in influencing others and indicate how often the leader generally engages in a particular behavior toward others. Items are clustered into ten domains. Each domain consists of three Prescriptive items and three Restrictive items. The former type focuses on behaviors carried out toward goals whereas the latter type focuses on behaviors for constraining others (Human Synergistics International, 2013).

The Prescriptive scales for six domains (see Appendix A for definitions and item descriptions) were expected to match different components of transformational leadership because of their emphasis on promoting excellence through positive actions. Based on definitions and items, Envisioning and Role Modeling are likely to capture the idealized influence component. Creating a Setting and Referring may operationalize the inspirational motivation component. It was also assumed that Stimulating Thinking is closely aligned with intellectual stimulation, and Mentoring mirrors individualized consideration.

Non-transformational leadership behaviors from the full range leadership model (i.e., contingent reward, management-by-exception active and passive, Laissez-Faire) were also examined in the current study to serve as control variables (Antonakis et al., 2003). Some Prescriptive items from the Reinforcing and Providing Feedback show conceptual overlap with

contingent reward behaviors. The six Restrictive scales, which measure leaders' constraining behavioral strategies, are likely to reflect less effective leadership behaviors in the full range leadership model. For example, Reinforcing and Monitoring dimensions may mirror management-by-exception components of transactional leadership, as well as Laissez-Faire leadership.

Within the *Leadership/Impact*®, the 12 Prescriptive and Restrictive scales have demonstrated desirable reliability, construct validity, and criterion-related validity in predicting leadership effectiveness across different Anglo (e.g., the United State, Canada, New Zealand, etc.) and European (e.g., Belgium, Finland, Germany, Hungary, etc.) countries (Leslie, 2013; Szumal, 2002, 2014).

Q-sort. To ensure the correspondence between items from the *Leadership/Impact*® scales and each leadership component, five graduate students served as subject matter experts (SME) to independently classify these items using a Q-sort method (Kampen & Tamás, 2014; Neff & Cohen, 1967). The recent review by Kampen and Tamás suggests that Q-sorts can help researchers to obtain in-depth "subjective representations of views." Therefore, the Q-sort method is suitable for examining experts' perception of the conceptual correspondence between the *Leadership/Impact*® items and the full range leadership components. Following the best practices, SMEs for this Q-sort have completed the graduate level leadership seminar, which covers the full range leadership model. Each SME, who was also blind to the purpose of the Q-sort, was asked to independently classify each item into the eight components of leadership behaviors, including the four transformational components for the focal hypothesis.

Forty-one out of the 60 items received agreement about its categorization from at least three of the five raters, and the other 19 items were excluded due to insufficient agreement.

Because the retained items demonstrated sufficient psychometric properties under each component for testing the focal hypotheses, no consensus discussion was conducted among the SMEs. Table 4 summarized the Q-sort results on the retained items. In particular, each of the four transformational components included four to six items, each of the three transactional components included six to eight items, and the Laissez-Faire component included two items.

Overall, there is a correspondence between the *Leadership/Impact*® scales and the full range leadership model, such that the transformational components and contingent reward behaviors are all described by the Prescriptive items, whereas management-by-exception and Laissez Faire behaviors are all described by the Restrictive items. Most of the anticipated conceptual overlaps between the *Leadership/Impact*® scales and the full range leadership components were found in the Q-sort results, and some additional overlaps were discovered (e.g., individualized consideration and the *Leadership/Impact*® influencing scale).

Internal consistency. After extracting items with acceptable agreement, Cronbach's α was examined for each scale to ensure that the scale is internally consistent at the follower level (see Table 5). All scales showed desirable internal consistency (αs > .70) except inspirational motivation (α = .65) and Laissez-Faire (α = .46). The inspirational motivation component had a less than optimal α, but the coefficient was not noticeably lower than .70. However, internal consistency for the Laissez-Faire component was not acceptable, and only two items were present in the component. Therefore, analyses that include Laissez-Faire may contain a large portion of measurement errors and lead to questionable results.

Leaders' Eudemonic Well-Being. The personal effectiveness section of the *Leadership/Impact*® requires raters to assess the extent to which the focal leaders are at a positive state as a person (e.g., relaxed, interested in advancement). Followers, peers, leaders'

supervisors, or others were asked to provide their descriptions of the focal leader as a person on four pairs of 7-point bipolar items. Because the definition of eudemonic well-being includes positive personal fulfillment and the emphasis on individual growth, these items adequately reflect the construct.

There has been evidence supporting the correspondence between self- and other-rated well-being in the literature. For instance, family and friends' reports of well-being correlated with self-report of well-being using different measures to a moderate or strong degree (*r*s = .48 − .64; Lepper, 1998; Sandvik, Diener, & Seidlitz, 1993). Lepper (1998) also found that the mean difference in self- and other-reports was small (Cohen's $d = 0.15$). Because followers, peers, and other coworkers have different opportunities to observe the focal leaders, using other-report leaders' well-being is a valid source when leaders' self-ratings are not available.

As a part of the *Leadership/Impact*®, the personal effectiveness scale has received support in terms of its reliability, construct validity, and criterion-related validity in predicting increased constructive and decreased defensive impact on followers across various Anglo and European countries (Leslie, 2013; Szumal, 2002, 2014). In the current sample, the 4-item scale showed desirable reliability at the follower level ($\alpha = .71$).

Organizational Culture. the *Organizational Culture Inventory*® (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Cooke & Szumal, 1993, 2000) measures employee understanding of the current and ideal cultures of an organization. In particular, the *Organizational Culture Inventory*® − Current assesses the degree of actual expectations for employees on a scale from 1 = not at all to 5 = to a very great extent. Members were instructed to read statements that describe various behaviors within an organization and indicate the extent to which each behavior was actually anticipated or implicitly expected by their organization as a whole. It is important to note that the respondents,

referents, and behaviors described were different between the *Organizational Culture Inventory*® and the *Leadership/Impact*® assessments.

Categorized into three cultural clusters, there are 12 norms measured by 10 items each. Employees' responses are averaged within each norm to create a cultural profile on the Circumplex (Human Synergistics International, 2012). In particular, the horizontal direction of the Circumplex reflects a continuum from task-oriented to people-oriented norms; the vertical direction reflects a continuum from security needs-focused to satisfaction needs-focused norms. The four Constructive norms (Achievement, Self-actualizing, Humanistic-Encouraging, and Affiliative) stress satisfaction needs and balance between task and people orientations, such that the organizations expect their members to actively approach work and coworkers for satisfying each other's high level needs. The four Aggressive/Defensive norms (Oppositional, Power, Competitive, and Perfectionistic) emphasize security needs with a task orientation, such that employees' own status is the priority and protected through approaching tasks forcefully. Likewise, the four Passive/Defensive norms (Approval, Conventional, Dependent, and Avoidance) also emphasizes security needs but with a people orientation, such that social interactions at work should avoid threats to members' own status (Cooke & Szumal, 1993, 2000). Appendix C provides the detailed definition and a sample item for each of the 12 cultural norms.

The main advantage of using such quantitative tool is the comparability across multiple organizations (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988). *Organizational Culture Inventory*®, as one of the most important quantitative measurements of organizational culture (Ostroff, Kinicki, & Tamikins, 2003), has shown high internal consistency, test-retest reliability, and interrater

agreement, as well as desirable validity in predicting individual, group, and organizational outcomes (Cooke & Szumal, 1993, 2000).

I speculated that the Constructive, Aggressive/Defensive, and Passive/Defensive cultural clusters, respectively map onto the mastery-approach, performance-approach, and performance-avoid cultural norms. Specifically, consistent with the mastery-approach norm, the *Constructive culture* sets norms for members to learn and grow, such as setting and pursuing challenging goals (Achievement), enjoying tasks and developing themselves (Self-actualizing), being supportive and open (Humanistic-Encouraging), and cooperating with others (Affiliative). The *Aggressive/Defensive culture*, corresponding to the performance-approach norm, encourages members to forcefully approach extrinsic outcomes, and it expects employees to be critical (Oppositional), stay in charge and control (Power), outperform and work against others (Competitive), and appear competent (Perfectionistic). Likewise, the *Passive/Defensive culture*, resembling the performance-avoid norm, stresses minimizing threats to members' own security and involves expectations of agreement (Approval), conformity (Conventional), obedience to superiors (Dependent), and avoidance of problems (Avoidance).

Q-sort. A similar Q-sort procedure for matching the *Leadership/Impact*® with the full range leadership behaviors was carried out to confirm the correspondence between the items measuring the 12 *Organizational Culture Inventory*® norms and the mastery-approach, performance-approach, and performance-avoid cultural norms. Five graduate students who have completed the organizational culture and climate seminar served as the SMEs and independently sorted the 120 *Organizational Culture Inventory*® items into three cultural norms. Four of the five SMEs also participated in the *Leadership/Impact*® Q-sort.

One hundred and seventeen out of the 120 items received at least 60% agreement from the five raters, and the other 3 items were removed because of less than 60% agreement. Among the retained items (see Table 6), the mastery-approach dimension included 34 items measuring the *Organizational Culture Inventory*® Constructive cluster. The performance-approach dimension included 40 items, 35 of which are from the *Organizational Culture Inventory*® Passive/Aggressive cluster. The performance-avoid dimension included 43 items, 39 of which are from the *Organizational Culture Inventory*® Passive/Defensive cluster. SMEs were not invited to further consensus discussion because the Q-sort results yielded adequate items for each cultural dimension. The Q-sort results generally confirmed the expected conceptual correspondence between the self-regulatory focus cultural norms and the *Organizational Culture Inventory*® cultural clusters except for a few re-grouped items.

Internal consistency. For each of the cultural norm, Cronbach's α coefficients ranged from .93 to .97, which were above desirable at the employee level (see Table 7).

Data Aggregation

After ensuring the conceptually sound and psychometrically reliable scales at the individual level, responses were aggregated in two ways. For variables regarding each focal leader, raters' mean responses on leadership and leaders' well-being were used. For each organization's culture, employees' mean response on the three cultural norms was used. Both aggregations require sufficient interrater reliability and agreement, which were examined based on intraclass correlations (ICCs) and r_{wg} coefficients using the uniform distribution as the null (Bliese, 2000; LeBreton & Senter, 2008). In particular, each ICC was calculated using the between-group and within-group variances from one-way random-effects ANOVA. The computation for each ICC(1) also included the average group size. In addition, given acceptable

internal consistency of scales at the individual (i.e., leadership rater and employee) level, the scale scores are reliable composites of item scores for computing ICCs and r_{wg} coefficients.

Table 8 presents the results of interrater reliability and agreement. For transformational and transactional behaviors, ICC(1)s showed that 23% to 31% of the variances can be explained by leader, so that there was a substantial level of differentiation between leaders. ICC(2)s ranged between .64 and .73, showing moderate to strong reliability using mean ratings of transformational and transactional behaviors. The average r_{wg} and $r_{wg(j)}$ values, respectively in the .73 to .83 and the .80 to .95 ranges, also indicated strong agreement of leadership ratings within each leader.

In contrast, although follower ratings of Laissez-Faire leadership were partially dependent on leader [ICC(1) = 13%] and moderately uniform within each leader [$M r_{wg}$ = .70, $M r_{wg(j)}$ = .67], the interrater reliability was weak [ICC(2) =.48]. The lack of interrater reliability suggests that using mean ratings of Laissez-Faire leadership would not be reliable for further analysis.

Regarding leaders' well-being, 26% of the variance was nested within leader. The ratings of the focal leaders' well-being were also reliable [ICC(2) =.68] and strongly uniform across raters within each focal leader [$M r_{wg}$ = .76, $M r_{wg(j)}$ = .80].

Furthermore, employee ratings of the three organizational cultural norms showed strong interrater reliability [ICC(2)s = .88 − .94] and agreement [$M r_{wg}$s = .79 − .85, $M r_{wg(j)}$s = .96 − .97]. The differentiation between organizations on cultural norms is relatively weak given the range of ICC(1)s between .03 and .06.

In sum, there was significant group dependency and acceptable within-group agreement on all measures. The group dependency was particularly pronounced for others' ratings of

leadership behaviors and leaders' well-being. Except for Laissez-Faire leadership, high interrater reliability existed for all measures, supporting the aggregation of responses to the leader or organization level.

Analytic Strategy

The final dataset aggregated and merged mean ratings of leadership behaviors, leaders' well-being, organizational cultural norms, and available demographic variables. Laissez-Faire leadership was excluded from further analyses due to low scale reliability at the rater level and low interrater reliability. After examining leader- and organization-level factor structure through principal component analysis and internal consistency, scales at the group level were further refined. Descriptive statistics using all measures' scale scores were then calculated and summarized. Data were also inspected to identify potential outliers through visual inspections and Mahalanobis distance at the scale level, and no univariate or multivariate outliers were identified.

To test Hypothesis 1, a regression model was tested using transformational leadership as the predictor and leaders' well-being as the outcome. Transactional leadership and leader demographic information were examined and attempted as potential control variables in the analysis. To further explore the effect of leadership components, a similar regression analysis was conducted based on the four components of transformational leadership.

To test Hypothesis 2, 3, and 4, hierarchical linear modeling was applied to use each cultural norm as the higher-level moderator on the relationship between transformational leadership and leaders' well-being. Following the best practice procedures (Aguinis, Gottfredson, & Culpepper, 2013), transformational leadership was first centered using group means to remove any confounds from the leader-level within-group variance and improve

interpretation of the cross-level interactions. Four models were tested sequentially for each set of the hierarchical linear modeling analysis: a) A null model that only contained control variables and a random intercept; b) a random intercept and fixed slope model that added transformational leadership (leader level) and one cultural norm variable (organizational level) as the additional predictors; c) a random intercept and random slope model that allowed the slope of transformational leadership to vary; and d) a cross-level interaction model that required the cultural norm variable to predict the slope between transformational leadership and leaders' well-being. Furthermore, given the limited number of organizations, the moderation effects were also tested using trichotomized cultural norm variables and non-centered predictors in moderated regression models.

All analyses were carried out by SPSS 22 and R-studio.

CHAPTER 3: RESULTS

After creating the unified dataset, psychometric properties of the scales were examined, and means, standard deviations, and correlations among the study variables were calculated. Results from testing the focal hypotheses and the supplemental analyses were then presented.

Descriptive Statistics – Leader Variables

At the leader level, the descriptive statistics and correlations among leader characteristics are presented in Table 9. Results showed that leader gender was not significantly related to other characteristics (*r*s = -.03 − .06), while there were generally positive correlations among leader age, organizational level, years in organizations, and years in leadership positions (*r*s = .19 − .56), with one exception that organizational level was not significantly associated with organizational tenure (*r* = .06).

Regarding leadership behaviors and leaders' well-being at the leader level, factor structure was examined for each scale using principle component analysis with all items forced to load on one component. In Table 10, proportion of variance explained ranged from 55.23% to 82.19%, suggesting that one component was the best structure for all scales at the leader level. Average item loadings for each scale ranged from .74 to .91, and all of the loadings were above .4 except one item in the transformational leadership scale. Taking together the overall supportive evidence from the exploratory factor analysis, the scales for leadership behaviors and leaders' well-being remained intact for the following analyses.

As in Table 11, all scales were also internally consistent after aggregating rater responses to the leader level (αs = .74 − .96). All four components of the transformational behaviors and contingent reward were strongly correlated in the positive direction (*r*s = .75 − .93), whereas they were negatively correlated with management-by-exception behaviors (*r*s = -.06 − -.53).

Meanwhile, leaders' well-being had negative associations with transformational leadership, its components, and contingent reward behaviors (*r*s = -.61 − -.75), but had positive associations with management-by-exception behaviors (*r*s = .41 − .58).

When correlating the average ratings of leadership behaviors and leaders' well-being with leader characteristics (see Table 12), the associations were generally weak or non-significant. Some significant and positive relationships were found between transformational leadership (idealized influence and inspirational motivation components) and several leader characteristics, such as age, organizational level, and years as leaders (*r*s = .09 − .20). Additionally, leaders' well-being was negatively related to organizational tenure (*r* = -.10).

Descriptive Statistics – Organizational Culture

At the organizational level, principal component analysis was adopted to investigate the construct validity of each organizational cultural norm scale. Table 13 presents the results. Based on the initial scale, only the mastery-approach cultural norm showed both desirable variance explained (72.47%) and item loadings (.55 − .95) when all items were required to load on one component.

For the performance-approach norm, proportion of variance explained (44.47%) by one component was below acceptable. Also, four item loadings were negative (-.48 − -.09), and these four items were originally from three separate norms of the *Organizational Culture Inventory*® Constructive cluster (i.e., Achievement, Self-Actualizing, and Affiliative). There were also three weak item loadings (.08 − .25), and these three items were originally from two separate norms (i.e., Oppositional and Perfectionist) of the *Organizational Culture Inventory*® Aggressive/Defensive cluster. These seven items were removed from the scale in two iterations,

yielding a 33-item scale with a higher level of variance explained (52.63%) and acceptable item loadings (.46 − .91).

Likewise, one item with low loading (.16) was removed from the performance-avoid scale, and variance explained by one component increased from 58.89% to 60.23%. This removed item was originally from the dependent norm of the *Organizational Culture Inventory*® Passive/Defensive cluster.

Table 14 shows means, standard deviations, correlations, and internal consistency for all the initial and revised cultural norm scales at the organizational level. All scales were internally consistent before (αs = .96 − .99) and after excluding items (αs = .97 − .98). The mean for the performance-approach norm significantly decreased from 2.65 (*SD* = 0.21) to 2.44 (*SD* = 0.26) after removing the seven items, $t(44) = 24.80$, $p < .001$, Cohen's $d = 3.70$. This significant change might be mostly due to the removal of four items from the *Organizational Culture Inventory*® Constructive cluster, which contains items negatively associated with items from the Aggressive/Defensive cluster. Also, the mean for the performance-avoid norm significantly decreased from 2.6004 (*SD* = 0.26) to 2.6000 (*SD* = 0.26), $t(44) = 3.04$, $p = .004$, Cohen's $d = 0.45$.

The revised performance-approach and performance-avoid scales showed almost perfect correlations with the initial scales ($r = .99$ and $r = 1.00$, respectively). Also, most of the associations between the scales did not differ substantially before and after the item removal, such that the mastery-approach norm was negatively related to the performance-avoid norm ($r = -.63$ for initial and $r = -.64$ for revised; $Z = .08$, $p = .94$ for the difference), and the performance-approach norm was positively related to the performance-avoid norm ($r = .75$ for initial and $r = .81$ for revised; $Z = 0.71$, $p = .48$ for the difference). In contrast, the correlations between the

performance-approach and the mastery-approach scales increased from -.27 to -.39 and become significant after the scale revision, possibly because of the increase in variance of the performance-approach variable (*SD* = 0.21 for initial and *SD* = 0.26 for revised). However, the increase in correlation was not significant ($Z = 0.62$, $p = .54$).

Because the scale revisions may change the estimates of interrater reliability and agreement indices, ICCs and r_{wg} coefficients were computed based on the revised scales (see Table 15). Compared to the reliability and agreement levels prior to the item removal, ICCs did not change, supporting the same level of group dependency in the employee responses about their organizations. Similarly, although the r_{wg} values were slightly different between the initial and revised scales, the level of agreement remained strong, consistently supporting the aggregation. Therefore, further analyses will adopt the revised scales for the performance-approach and performance-avoid cultural norms.

Transformational Leadership and Leaders' Eudemonic Well-Being

Hypothesis 1 stated that transformational leadership was negatively related to leaders' eudemonic well-being. The analysis regressed leaders' well-being on the transformational leadership composite along with the three transactional leadership components as the control variables. Contingent reward and management-by-exception behaviors were selected as control variables because they simultaneously correlated with transformational leadership and leaders' well-being; therefore, they were likely to confound the focal relationship. Leader characteristics were not included in the model because none of the variables simultaneously associated with the predictors and the outcome.

Table 16 presents the regression analysis results. Together, the leadership behaviors explained 65.1% of the variance in leaders' well-being [$F(4,690) = 321.07$, $p < .001$]. Supporting

Hypothesis 1, transformational leadership was a negative predictor of the outcome [b = - 0.96, β = - .62, r_{sp} = -.27, t(690) = -12.04, p < .001]. Regarding the control variables, contingent reward was not a significant predictor [b = - 0.05, β = - .03, r_{sp} = -.02, t(690) = -0.68, p = .499], whereas management-by-exception behaviors were positively related to leaders' well-being [active: b = 0.28, β = .16, r_{sp} = .10, t(690) = 4.34, p < .001; passive: b = 0.28, β = .17, r_{sp} = .12, t(690) = 5.29, p < .001].

A concern about collinearly may rise between transformational leadership and contingent reward, r = .88. The VIF values were relatively high for transformational leadership (5.19) and contingent reward (4.57). Therefore, two supplemental analyses were attempted. The first attempt was a hierarchical regression analysis, which entered the transactional behaviors in the first step and transformational leadership in the second step. Results showed that transformational leadership explained additional 7.3% variance above and beyond transactional leadership [ΔF(1,690) = 145.06, p < .001]. The second attempt removed contingent reward from the original regression analysis and yielded similar estimates and conclusions about the negative relationship between transformational leadership and leaders' well-being. Thus, the original regression analysis was retained, and the findings rendered support for the first hypothesis.

To explore the possible differential associations between transformational leadership components and the outcome, an additional regression analysis was conducted by breaking transformational leadership into its four components (see Table 17). The model explained 66.1% of the variance in leaders' well-being [F(7,687) = 190.99, p < .001]. While the control variables showed similar results as in the first regression analysis, three out of the four components emerged as significant negative predictors: Idealized influence had the strongest association with leaders' well-being [b = - 0.49, β = - .35, r_{sp} = -.17, t(687) = -7.55, p = < .001]; weak but

significant relationships also existed for intellectual stimulation [b = - 0.14, β = - .11, r_{sp} = -.05, t(687) = -2.14, p = = .033] and individualized consideration [b = - 0.19, β = - .12, r_{sp} = -.06, t(687) = -2.45, p = = .014]; inspirational motivation was a non-significant predictor of leaders' well-being [b = - 0.07, β = - .05, r_{sp} = -.03, t(687) = -1.25, p = .213].

Given the high intercorrelations among transformational leadership components and contingent reward (rs = .75 − .84), they may exhibit collinearity as a set of predictor in the regression model. The VIFs values for the five predictors ranged from 3.30 to 5.10. By removing contingent reward from the model, results about the other predictors remained stable. The semi-partial correlations between each transformational leadership component and leaders' well-being suggested that idealized influence added the largest amount of variance to the model above and beyond other predictors (r_{sp} = -.17). Taken together, idealized influence was the strongest transformational leadership component that negatively predicted leaders' well-being.

The Moderating Effects of Organizational Culture

Hypotheses 2 through 4 stated that organizational culture moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and leaders' well-being. Specifically, the relationship would be positive under high mastery-approach norm but negative under low mastery-approach norm. In contrast, both performance-approach and performance-avoid norms would strengthen the negative main effect at the leader level. Before the statistical analyses, regression lines were plotted for all organizations to reveal the presence of slope heterogeneity (see Figure 1). The plot suggests that the direction of slopes is all negative, but the strengths of the slopes vary across organizations, indicating the potential for heterogeneous relationships between transformational leadership and leaders' well-being across organizations.

Mastery-Approach Cultural Norms. Hypothesis 2 stated that the association between transformational leadership and leaders' well-being would be positive when the mastery-approach norm is high, and the relationship would be negative when the mastery-approach norm is low. Hierarchical linear modeling was adopted to test this hypothesis in four steps (see Table 18 for results). The first null model allowed the intercept of leaders' well-being to vary across organizations. Control variables, including contingent reward and management-by-exception behaviors, were also included as the leader level (Level 1) predictors. According to ICC(1), 7.4% of the variance in leaders' well-being resided across organizations, so testing organizational level (Level 2) effects can be meaningful.

The second step added transformational leadership as the Level 1 predictor and mastery-approach norms as the Level 2 predictor to the random intercept and fixed slope model. Transformational leadership (γ_{00} = -0.96, p < .001) was significantly associated with leaders' well-being in the negative direction. Mastery-approach norm was not a significant Level 2 predictor (γ_{01} = -0.15, p = .079). By including these two predictors, residual within organizations reduced from 0.136 by 19.1% to 0.110.

The third step allowed the slope to vary across organizations in addition to Step 2. By including the variance of the slopes in the model (τ_{11} = 0.009), there was a non-significant 0.0% reduction in within-organization variance at Level 1 from 0.110 to 0.110 (Δ-$2LL$ = 0.92, p = .398). The fourth step added the cross-level interaction between transformational leadership and mastery norms. Results showed that the interaction was not significant (γ_{11} = -0.05, p = .657). Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was not supported, such that mastery norms did not moderate the effect of transformational leadership on leaders' well-being.

Performance-Approach Cultural Norms. Hypothesis 3 stated that the negative relationship between transformational leadership and leaders' well-being would be stronger when the performance-approach norm is high, and the relationship would be weaker when the performance-approach norm is low. A similar set of analyses as in testing Hypothesis 2 was conducted (see Table 19 for results). Following the same null model, the random intercept and fixed slope model added transformational leadership as the Level 1 predictor and performance-approach norms as the Level 2 predictor. Transformational leadership was significantly related to leaders' well-being (γ_{00} = -0.95, p < .001), whereas performance-approach norm was not significantly related to the outcome (γ_{01} = 0.14, p = .175). These two predictors explained 19.1% of the within-organization variance from the null model.

The random intercept and random slope model revealed some variance in the slope (τ_{11} = 0.058), which explained additional 0.0% of the within-organization variance from the fixed slope model (Δ-*2LL* = 0.82, p = .442). The cross-level interaction model did not find significant moderating role of the performance-approach norms on the main effect (γ_{11} = 0.16, p = .286). These results did not support Hypothesis 3, such that the performance-approach norms did not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and leaders' well-being.

Performance-Avoid Cultural Norm. Hypothesis 4 stated that the negative relationship between transformational leadership and leaders' well-being would be stronger when the performance-avoid norm is high, and the relationship would be weaker when the performance-avoid norm is low. Following the four-step procedure of hierarchical linear modeling, Table 20 presents the results. The null model was identical to the null model in Table 18 and Table 19. The random intercept and fixed slope model explained 19.1% of the within-organization variance from the null model. Transformational leadership was a significant predictor of leaders'

well-being (γ_{00} = -0.95, p < .001), whereas the performance-avoid norm was not a significant predictor of the outcome (γ_{01} = 0.13, p = .198).

Step 3 involved the additional random slope parameter (τ_{11} = 0.022), and it explained additional 0.0% of the within-organization variance from the fixed slope model (Δ-*2LL* = 1.02, p = .360). Step 4 tested the cross-level interaction due to the performance-avoid norms (γ_{11} = 0.13, p = .360), failing to support Hypothesis 4. Thus, the performance-avoid norms did not serve as an organizational level moderator to the relationship between transformational leadership and leaders' well-being.

Furthermore, due to the intercorrelations among organizational cultural norms, additional hierarchical linear models were examined by including all three dimenisons as the Level 2 predictors, so the main effects of the additional cultural norm dimensions can be controlled while testing each cross-level interaction. Results remained unchanged, such that neither the Level 2 main effects nor the cross-level interactions were significant. Therefore, the original models were retained for maximizing parsimony.

Supplemental Analyses

Considering the limited variability of scores on the three dimensions of organizational cultural norms (*SD*s = 0.26 – 0.30) and the limited number of organizations (N = 45), values on each of the cultural norm variables were grouped into three categories to maximize the between-group differences and group size. Table 21 summarizes the trichotomization procedure. Each of the trichotomized variables was further dummy coded into two vectors: The first vector coded the high value as 1 and the other values as 0, and the second vector coded the moderate value as 1 and the other values as 0. Based on this coding scheme, the low-value group served as the referent group in the subsequent analyses. Hierarchical regression analyses were then conducted

to test the interaction between transformational leadership and each cultural norm dimension on leaders' well-being in two steps. The first step entered the main effects (i.e., transformational leadership, cultural norm dummy vectors) and control variables (i.e., contingent reward, management-by-exception), and the second step added the product terms between transformational leadership and the cultural norm dummy vectors.

Mastery-Approach Cultural Norms. Table 22 presents the hierarchical regression results for mastery-approach cultural norms. By adding the product terms, Model 2 accounted for a significant amount of incremental variance above Model 1 [ΔR^2 = .005, F(2, 686) = 4.90, p = .008]. However, neither of the product terms showed significant association with leaders' well-being [b = -0.11, β = -.25, t(686) = -1.31, p = .192; b = 0.18, β = .40, t(686) = 1.93, p = .054].

Because the hierarchical regression analyses suggested an overall difference in the main effects across the three groups, separate regression analyses were conducted to further explore the relationships between transformational leadership and leaders' well-being at different levels of mastery-approach norms (see Table 23). Results showed that the slope appeared weaker when the mastery-approach norms were high [b = -0.93, β = -.56, t(241) = -6.35, p < .001] or low [b = -0.93, β = -.61, t(211) = 6.92, p < .001], compared to when the mastery-approach norm was moderate, [b = -0.98, β = -.66, t(228) = -7.13, p < .001]. Taken together the hierarchical regression results, the evidence for the differences among individual regression lines was insufficient.

Performance-Approach and Performance-Avoid Cultural Norms. Table 24 and Table 25 present the hierarchical regression results for performance-approach and performance-avoid cultural norms, respectively. For both cultural norms, the product terms did not add significant variance accounted for above the main effects [performance-approach: ΔR^2 = .001,

$F(2, 686) = 1.25$, $p = .288$; performance-avoid: $\Delta R^2 = .000$, $F(2, 686) = 0.14$, $p = .871$]. Thus, results did not support the moderating effects of these two cultural norm dimensions on the relationship between transformational leadership and leaders' well-being.

CHAPTER 4: DISCUSSION

The current study tested the hypothesis that transformational leadership is generally detrimental to leaders' eudemonic well-being by consuming leaders' self-regulatory resources. This detrimental effect can limit leaders' long-term sustainability and development. Not only did the results support the hypothesis, the strong negative effect was also present even after controlling for transactional leadership. The finding also suggests that transformational leadership, as a type of self-regulatory activities, creates more demand than supply to leaders' resources and has negative influence on leaders themselves.

Among the transformational leadership components, idealized influence showed the strongest negative relationship with leaders' well-being, possibly because portraying an ideal image and conveying ambitious visions require a higher level of affective and cognitive resources compared to other transformational behaviors. Intellectual stimulation was also significantly related to the outcome, implying that the seemingly non-affective behavior is also a demanding task for leaders to carry out. When challenging the assumptions, besides cognitive resources, leaders also invest affective resources to convey non-conventional thinking. Individualized consideration emerged as another significant predictor of leaders' well-being. The theoretical argument is that the more leaders attend to individual needs and developing others, the more depleting it becomes to leaders' resources.

The only non-significant transformational component was inspirational motivation. The key conceptual theme of this component is that leaders encourage higher-than-expected performance among followers. I speculate that leaders may shift the burden of high performance to followers, so this component may not be as demanding as the other transformational behaviors. The weak and non-significant relationship could also be a statistical artifact given the

relatively lower leader-level internal consistency of the inspirational motivation measure (.74) compared to other leadership measures (.84 to .93).

Although not hypothesized, the regression models also tested the effects of transactional behaviors on leaders' well-being. Contingent reward did not show a strong association with the outcome, while management-by-exception behaviors displayed moderately positive effects. Therefore, leading through "give-and-take" does not create detrimental effects on leaders. By contrasting the effects related to transformational versus transactional behaviors, I conclude that leadership behaviors do not necessarily depletes leaders' resources, but types of behaviors matter for the direction of the effects. On the one hand, leaders can take advantage of their positional authority to create rules for exchange, rewards, and punishments, and these transactional behaviors lead to more resource gain than loss. On the other hand, leaders can invest resources to mobilize and develop others, which can lead to more resource loss than gain.

However, the moderating role of organizational culture was not significant. The hypotheses proposed that a high mastery-approach norm can facilitate resource replenishment, which could reverse the main effect to become positive, whereas the performance-approach and performance-avoid norms prevent leaders from effective return on their investment of resources, leading to a stronger negative effect of transformational leadership on leaders' well-being. Based on the sample of 695 leaders from 45 organizations, evidence was not supportive for these cross-level moderations, and the association between transformational leadership and poor well-being was generalizable across different levels of organizational culture given the operationalization of culture as the group-level self-regulatory focus.

There are two possible reasons for this null finding. One is theoretical, such that the demands of transformational leadership can be too strong and proximal to affect leaders' well-

being, but the larger organizational culture is too distal to further harm or benefit leader resources. Since leaders tend to have more authority in their work unit, they are able to influence their work unit culture by exhibiting leadership. In relation to the overall organizational culture, the work unit culture is more closely related to followers' reaction to leadership that serves as feedback to leaders' investment of resources.

The other explanation is methodological, such that the insufficient statistical power and/or range restriction on the organizational culture variables may have impeded the detection of the cross-level interactions. Based on Monte Carlo studies, the obtained power level of the current study fell under .20 (Mathieu, Aguinis, Culpepper, & Chen, 2012). Also, the ranges of the values on the three organizational cultural norms were under 1.50 (out of the 5-point Likert scale), which represent organizations between moderate to high mastery-approach norms and low to moderate performance-approach/avoid norms. Nonetheless, this limitation does not invalidate the main effect because the negative relationship between transformational leadership and leaders' well-being was even found within a sample of organizations hypothesized to demonstrate weak or positive main effects. Thus, if the range restriction was the main reason for the absence of cross-level moderation, the nature of cross-level interactions is also unlikely to be consistent with the hypotheses. Overall, the moderating role of organizational culture is inconclusive.

Theoretical Contributions

This study contributes to the leadership literature in the following ways. First, inclusion of leaders' well-being has incremental value to the leadership research. Traditionally, research has viewed leaders as an agent for motivating employees and implementing organizational changes, but consequences of leadership on leaders themselves are rarely integrated into the

leadership process. Some recent development in the leadership theory suggests that desirable leadership is above and beyond effectiveness and encompasses more value-laden characteristics, such as authenticity (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Walumbwa et al., 2008) and integrity (Gentry et al., 2013), which are closely tied with leaders' well-being.

Interestingly, although transformational leadership generally exerts positive effects on followers, teams, and organizations, this study revealed a negative relationship between transformational leadership and leaders' own well-being. This novel finding indicates that, regardless of the organizational context, exhibiting effective leadership behaviors to mobilize others can impose a taxing effect on the actors themselves. On a short-term basis, the strength of the taxing effect is dependent on the type and level of leadership behaviors exhibited by leaders. In the long run, the taxing effect can accumulate to harm leaders' sustainability. Failure to sustain personal well-being over time, in turn, undermine leaders' healthy contribution to the organizations (Quick et al., 2007). Therefore, besides focusing on the dynamics between leaders and followers, understanding leaders' within-person process, which involves studying how various demands influence leaders across different time frames, is also an important theme of the leadership process. The underlying theoretical argument that displaying transformational behaviors creates prolonged affective and cognitive demands for leaders extends the perspectives of leadership research to encompass leaders' within-person process, which requires more attention from the field.

Second, a critical aspect of leaders' well-being, from the eudemonic perspective, is the extent to which leaders' high level need for personal growth can be fulfilled and full potential can be realized based on their available resources. Individuals in leadership roles are simultaneously engaged in a self-regulatory process aimed at leading others and another self-

regulatory process aimed at fulfilling high level personal needs. When the leadership roles expect them to develop followers and achieve organizational objectives, leaders as individuals do not necessarily have the opportunity to develop themselves and realize personal potentials through leadership toward others. This paradox, empirically tested in the current study, addresses an interesting philosophical debate over the altruistic versus egoist motivation behind leadership (Avolio & Locke, 2002). The negative effect of transformational leadership on leaders' well-being confirms the contradiction between promoting followers' and organizational goals and the fulfillment of leaders' self-interest. Thus, studying the process related to leaders' well-being can enhance the understanding of the two self-regulatory cycles engaged by leaders. Research should seek balancing solutions for leaders to simultaneously develop others and develop oneself.

Third, the study also investigated how leader behaviors interact with contextual factors (i.e., organizational culture) to influence leaders' well-being. Although results were inconclusive about the moderations due to organization culture, the construct self-regulatory focus offers some valuable lens to view how individuals approach or avoid opportunities and threats in leadership situations. The effects of different self-regulatory foci on the leadership process may be more complex than expected. For instance, a high mastery-approach focus may also have its maladaptive aspect that leaders continuously attend to discrepancies but fail to recognize the strengths, which is not beneficial for the sense of achievement. A high performance-approach focus can motivate individuals (although extrinsically) to meet high standards and positively influence leaders' fulfillment of potential. A high performance-avoid focus may be necessary in highly risky situations to prevent leaders from unwise investment of resources. Therefore, the effect of self-regulatory foci may have both positive and negative influences on leaders'

eudemonic well-being. More situational moderators may exist to intervene leaders' self-regulatory processes.

Practical Implications

Several practical implications can be drawn from the current study. For leaders, they should be more aware of the cost of displaying transformational behavior in terms of its negative impact on leaders' own well-being and self-development. While transformational behaviors require leaders to transcend self-interests, they must not ignore their own needs to grow as individuals. There are several approaches for leaders to balance between being an effective leader and being a sustainable person. The first approach is to flexibly utilize transformational and transactional behaviors when leading others. Contingent reward can augment the effectiveness of transformational leadership (Waldman, Bass, & Yammarino, 1990), but does not create additional taxing effects on leaders. Thus, balancing transformational and effective transactional behaviors (i.e., contingent reward) can minimize the trade-off between leadership effectiveness and leaders' personal well-being. Foreseeing issues and actively setting rules (or active management-by-exception) is also generally effective (Judge & Piccolo, 2004) and allow replenishment of resources.

The second approach is to strive for leadership outcomes that can return resources to leaders, such as quality relationship with followers and justice climate in the work group. Maintaining high quality leader-member exchange equally with all followers can facilitate leaders' positive social exchange with others, which is beneficial for leaders' well-being (Bernerth & Hirschfeld, 2016). When leaders actively promote procedural and interactional justice climate in the work group, they also tend to experience less exhaustion and more occupational satisfaction (Bernerth, Whitman, Walker, Mitchell, & Taylor, 2016).

The third approach is to actively seek out opportunities outside the leadership role to restore personal resources for sustaining positive well-being. These opportunities include, but are not limited to, receiving social support outside the workplace, participating in professional and personal development workshops, and adopting a healthy life style. In particular, mindfulness is a developable skill that can mitigate the emotional exhaustion due to emotional labor (Hülsheger, Alberts, Feinholdt, & Lang, 2013), and it can be applied to reduce the influence of affective demands on leaders' well-being. Engaging in general mastery activities (e.g., learning new and challenging things) and quality sleep can enhance recovery at night and positive experiences at the second day (Barnes et al., 2015; Sonnentag, Binnewies, & Mojza, 2008).

Meanwhile, organizations should understand the contradiction between transformational leadership and leaders' sustainability. Leaders who consistently display transformational behaviors may be vulnerable to the loss of resources and sustainability. This contradiction helps explain two interesting phenomena in the workplace. One of them is that many effective leaders are not willing to advance to a higher level even if their advancement can benefit a larger group of followers. The decision to withhold career advancement can be due to the protection for limited resources as a result of over-investment. The other one is the Bathsheba Syndrome. Because effective leaders tend to accumulate idiosyncrasy credit (Hollander, 1958) and others' trust through their transformational behaviors early on, their low quality decisions or destructive behaviors under a low state of eudemonic well-being are particularly risky for the organization and its constituents. To promote the advancement of effective leaders and prevent the Bathsheba Syndrome from occurring, organizations can incorporate the following strategies in various organizational procedures.

The first set of organizational strategies concerns selection and placement of leaders. Organizations should purposefully select leaders who tend to demonstrate a high level of self-awareness, resilience, and integrity under stressful situations, so these leaders are more motivated to remain a positive state of mind and less subjective to destructive behaviors. Leaders should also be placed to positions and career paths that are aligned with their interests (e.g., career, division, project, etc.), so they experience a greater level of intrinsic motivation and satisfaction in these positions.

The second set of organizational strategies involves leadership assessment and development. Leaders' well-being should be included in regular assessments to identify needs of leaders, so that interventions can be planned accordingly. With regard to the interventions, authentic leadership development can adds values beyond transformational leadership by focusing on positive psychological capital of leaders and authentic behaviors, such as internalized moral standard, balanced processing, and relational transparency (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Ilies et al., 2005). Coaching can offer consistent feedback to develop leaders' effectiveness and personal well-being. A coaching program that involves multi-source feedback, leadership plan development, goal setting, and other self-regulatory skills can significantly improve leaders' self-regulatory processes (Yeow & Martin, 2013).

Limitations

This study is not free from limitations. In terms of the internal validity, a reversed causation may not be plausible because leaders' depleted resources is related to reduced transformational behaviors (Byrne et al., 2014). It is unlikely that poor eudemonic well-being promotes transformational leadership. However, the cross-sectional design of the current study restricts the ability to draw causal inferences.

With regard to the construct validity, other report of leaders' well-being may not fully capture leaders' internal experience. While other-report is less prone to social desirability and has shown moderate to strong correlations with self-report well-being in past research (Lepper, 1998; Sandvik et al., 1993), leaders may engage in acting when being observed by others. Therefore, other-report well-being can be contaminated due to leaders' impression management and deficient due to raters' limited opportunities to observe leaders.

A few issues also limit the external validity of this study. Organizations which invest in cultural and leadership assessment tend to pay better attention to maintaining desirable cultures and developing leaders. The organizations in the current sample tend to have above mid-point scores on the mastery-approach norms and below mid-point scores on the performance-approach/avoid norms. Also, leaders who participate in a leadership assessment generally occupy significant and formal leadership roles. Therefore, compared to a lower level leader in an average organization, leaders in the current sample may have better resources based on their important roles in supportive organizations. As such, results may not be generalizable to all leaders in all types of organizations.

Additionally, Mathieu et al. (2012) stated that the statistical power for testing cross-level interactions is generally low, except for when larger units are sampled. Specifically, Level 1 sample size per unit should be 3:2 to Level 2 sample size. However, the current study had a relatively small average Level 1 sample size (9.67) compared to the Level 2 sample size (45). Due to the insufficient statistical power, it is difficult to draw conclusions from the non-significant cross-level interactions.

Future Directions

The current study offers several directions for future research. The overarching recommendation is that leaders' well-being should be integrated into leadership research. The key implication of leaders' well-being is their sustainability, which is a concern for both the leader themselves and the beneficiaries of leadership (i.e., followers and organizations). There are three particularly interesting areas for expanding research on leaders' well-being.

First, research is needed to reveal antecedents of leaders' well-being besides transformational leadership. The self-regulation and resources framework is helpful in explaining the mechanisms underlying leaders' well-being. Research can explore how specific affective and cognitive demands, as well as resources, play roles in leaders' self-regulatory process. This perspective also sheds some light on the within-person process of leadership, such as leadership development over time and daily fluctuations based on varying demands and resources. Interventions aiming at improving leaders' self-regulation can be further explored (e.g., Yeow & Martin, 2013). According to the exploratory results on transactional leadership behaviors, future research can also investigate the theoretical underpinning of how each component of transactional leadership influences leaders' well-being, especially the reasons for the positive effects of management-by-exception behaviors.

Second, many interesting research questions can be generated regarding consequences of leaders' well-being. Because of their positional power in organizations and decision latitude, can leaders' poor well-being trickle down to followers and the whole organization? How can leaders effectively cope with depletion and restore their resources? What are the processes associated with deteriorating leadership as described by the Bathsheba Syndrome? More empirical research can be done to answer these questions.

Third, the incorporation of leaders' well-being can provide a unique perspective for enhancing the diversity of leadership. The current view of a lack of diversity in leadership is the role theory, such that women and minorities are often viewed as a misfit with the "White man" prototype of a leader (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Knight, Hebl, Foster, & Mannix, 2003). While women are not disadvantageous in exhibiting transformational leadership (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003), it is unknown that if gender differences exist "behind the scene". That is if women (or minorities) need to invest additional resources to cope with role incongruity, which may in turn lower their engagement and performance in leadership roles over time. This proposition can be tested if leaders' well-being processes are incorporated, and the findings can advance our understanding about diversity and leadership.

Table 1. *Summary of the Data Cleaning and Merging Process*

Step	Instrument	*N* raters/employees	*N* leaders	*N* organizations
Initial	L/I	7,413	773	66
	OCI®	13,531	N/A	68
Cases excluded due to insufficient number of leaders per organization	L/I	308	33	18
	OCI®	2,222	N/A	18
Cases excluded due to excessive missing data	L/I	8	0	0
	OCI®	4	N/A	0
Cases excluded due to non-matched responses between L/I and OCI	L/I	373	45	3
	OCI®	737	N/A	5
Final Sample	L/I	6,724	695	45
	OCI®	10,568	N/A	45

Note. L/I = *Leadership/Impact*®; From *Leadership/Impact® Feedback Report* by R. A. Cooke, Human Synergistics. Copyright 2017 by Human Synergistics International. Adapted by permission; OCI® = *Organizational Culture Inventory*®; From *Organizational Culture Inventory* by R.A. Cooke and J.C. Lafferty, 2003, Plymouth, MI: Human Synergistics. Copyright © 2017 by Human Synergistics©. Adapted by permission.

Table 2. *Summary of Leadership Rater Characteristics*

Characteristic	*N*	%	Characteristic	*N*	%
Rater age			**Length of relationship**		
Under 30	335	5.0	Less than 1 year	873	13.0
30 to 35	591	8.8	1 to 2 year	865	12.9
36 to 40	692	10.3	2 to 4 years	1,166	17.3
41 to 45	854	12.7	4 to 6 years	812	12.1
46 to 50	978	14.5	6 to 8 years	604	9.0
51 to 55	987	14.7	8 to 10 years	526	7.8
56 to 60	799	11.9	10 to 12 years	347	5.2
61 or older	423	6.3	More than 12 years	1,023	15.2
N/A	1,065	15.8	N/A	508	7.6
Type of relationship					
Your direct supervisor				2,817	41.9
A manager to whom your supervisor reports				430	6.4
Another manager at a higher level than you				605	9.0
Your project manager				46	0.7
A person who reports directly to you				431	6.4
Your peer				1,305	19.4
An associate in a lateral position				341	5.1
Other				376	5.6
N/A				373	5.5
Total				6,724	100

Table 3. *Summary of Leader Characteristics*

Characteristic	*N*	%	Characteristic	*N*	%
Gender			**Organizational tenure**		
Female	193	27.8	Less than 1 year	50	7.2
Male	424	61.0	1 to 2 years	42	6.0
N/A	78	11.2	2 to 3 years	35	5.0
			3 to 4 tears	26	3.7
Leader age			4 to 6 tears	71	10.2
Under 30	6	0.9	6 to 8 years	62	8.9
30 to 35	40	5.8	8 to 10 tears	42	6
36 to 40	79	11.4	10 to 12 years	45	6.5
41 to 45	103	14.8	12 to 15 tears	44	6.3
46 to 50	144	20.7	15 to 20 years	73	10.5
51 to 55	112	16.1	More than 20 years	128	18.4
56 to 60	84	12.1	N/A	77	11.1
61 or older	47	6.8			
N/A	80	11.5	**Years as leaders**		
			Less than 1 year	8	1.2
Organizational level			1 to 2 years	15	2.2
Non-management	14	2.0	2 to 3 years	20	2.9
Line management	78	11.2	3 to 4 years	24	3.5
Middle management	126	18.1	4 to 6 years	35	5.0
Senior management	172	24.7	6 to 8 years	43	6.2
Vice president	86	12.4	8 to 10 years	60	8.6
Senior vice president	64	9.2	10 to 12 years	58	8.3
CEO/president	52	7.5	12 to 15 years	77	11.1
Owner	13	1.9	15 to 20 years	98	14.1
N/A	90	12.9	More than 20 years	178	25.6
			N/A	79	11.4
Total				695	100

Table 4. *Results of the Q-sort on Leadership/Impact®*

Leadership Behavior	# Items	# Items by Agreement Level 60%	80%	100%	*Leadership/Impact®* Scales
Transformational	**18**	**6**	**3**	**9**	
Idealized influence	6	0	1	5	*Envisioning (P), Role Modeling (P)*
Inspirational motivation	4	3	1	0	*Creating a Setting (P), Referring (P)*
Intellectual stimulation	4	1	1	2	*Stimulating Thinking (P)*, Creating a Setting (P)
Individualized consideration	4	2	0	2	Influencing (P), *Mentoring (P)*
Transactional	**21**	**13**	**4**	**5**	
Contingent reward	7	4	0	3	*Providing Feedback (P)***,** Monitoring (P), Mentoring (P), Creating a Setting (P), *Reinforcing (P)*
Management-by-exception active	6	4	1	1	*Monitoring (R)*, Creating a Setting (R), Influencing (R)
Management-by-exception passive	8	5	2	1	Providing Feedback (R), *Monitoring (R), Reinforcing (R)*
Laissez-Faire	**2**	**2**	**0**	**0**	Mentoring (R)
Total	**41**	**19**	**7**	**14**	

Note. (P) items from the Prescriptive scales; (R) items from the Restrictive scales. Each expected overlap between the *Leadership/Impact®* (L/I) scales and the full range leadership components is italicized; From *Leadership/Impact® Feedback Report* by R. A. Cooke, Human Synergistics. Copyright 2017 by Human Synergistics International. Adapted by permission;

Table 5. *Internal Consistency of Leadership Component Scales at the Follower Level*

Leadership Behavior	# Items	α	*N*
Transformational	**18**	.93	6,676
Idealized influence	6	.86	6,705
Inspirational motivation	4	.65	6,697
Intellectual stimulation	4	.87	6,716
Individualized consideration	4	.75	6,704
Transactional	**21**	N/A	
Contingent reward	7	.89	6,706
Management-by-exception active	6	.76	6,682
Management-by-exception passive	8	.80	6,686
Laissez-Faire	**2**	.46	6,714

Table 6. *Results of the Q-sort on Organizational Culture Inventory®*

		# Items by Agreement Level			# Items by OCI® Clusters		
Cultural Norm	# Items	60%	80%	100%	Constructive	Aggressive	Passive
Mastery-approach	34	4	8	22	34	0	0
Performance-approach	40	9	12	19	4	35	1
Performance-avoid	43	8	8	27	0	4	39
Total	**117**	**21**	**28**	**68**	**38**	**39**	**40**

Note. OCI® = *Organizational Culture Inventory®*; From *Organizational Culture Inventory* by R.A. Cooke and J.C. Lafferty, 2003, Plymouth, MI: Human Synergistics. Copyright © 2017 by Human Synergistics©. Adapted by permission.

Table 7. *Internal Consistency of Cultural Norm Scales at the Employee Level*

Cultural Norm	# Items	α	*N*
Mastery-approach	34	.97	10,485
Performance-approach	40	.93	10,441
Performance-avoid	43	.96	10,433

Table 8. *Agreement of Others' Ratings of Leadership Behavior and Leaders' Well-Being by Leader and Employee Ratings of Organizational Culture by Organization*

Measure	Average Group Size	ICC(1)	ICC(2)	*p*	Mr_{wg}	$Mr_{wg(j)}$
Transformational leadership	9.67	.30	.72	< .001	.83	.95
Idealized influence	9.67	.31	.73	< .001	.80	.89
Inspirational motivation	9.67	.30	.72	< .001	.79	.80
Intellectual stimulation	9.67	.27	.69	< .001	.73	.84
Individualized consideration	9.67	.25	.66	< .001	.79	.84
Transactional leadership	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Contingent reward	9.67	.25	.67	< .001	.78	.90
Management-by-exception active	9.67	.23	.64	< .001	.81	.86
Management-by-exception passive	9.67	.31	.73	< .001	.83	.89
Laissez-Faire	9.67	.13	.48	< .001	.70	.67
Leaders' well-being	9.67	.26	.68	< .001	.76	.80
Organizational cultural norms						
Mastery-approach	234.84	.05	.93	< .001	.79	.97
Performance-approach	234.84	.06	.94	< .001	.85	.96
Performance-avoid	234.84	.03	.88	< .001	.81	.97

Table 9. *Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among Leader Characteristics*

Measure	Min	Max	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4
1. Male	0	1	0.69	0.46				
2. Age	1	8	5.03	1.69	-.03			
3. Level	1	8	4.16	1.61	.06	.21**		
4. Years in org	1	11	6.89	3.35	-.00	.26**	.06	
5. Years as leader	1	11	8.35	2.66	-.02	.56**	.36**	.19**

Note. $N = 597 - 616$. $^{**}p < .01$

Table 10. *Exploratory Factor Analysis of Scales of Leadership Behaviors and Leader Well-being*

			Loadings		
Measure	#Items	% Variance Explained	*M*	Min	Max
1. TFL	18	61.12	.77	.35	.89
2. II	6	70.91	.84	.72	.90
3. IM	4	59.53	.76	.59	.86
4. IS	4	82.19	.91	.88	.94
5. IC	4	68.31	.83	.77	.87
6. CR	7	72.10	.84	.53	.92
7. MBE-active	6	56.63	.75	.68	.84
8. MBE-passive	8	55.23	.74	.55	.83
9. Well-being	4	58.72	.76	.69	.87

Note. TFL = Transformational Leadership, II = Idealized Influence, IM = Inspirational Motivation, IS = Intellectual Stimulation, IC = Individualized Consideration, CR = Contingent Reward, and MBE = Management-by-Exception.

Table 11. *Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Internal Consistency among Leadership Behaviors and Leaders' Well-being*

Measure	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. TFL	2.76	0.37	(.96)								
2. II	2.94	0.41	.93	(.91)							
3. IM	2.51	0.40	.89	.76	(.74)						
4. IS	2.80	0.44	.93	.84	.76	(.93)					
5. IC	2.80	0.38	.92	.81	.75	.81	(.84)				
6. CR	2.88	0.39	.88	.79	.77	.84	.82	(.93)			
7. MBE-active	1.23	0.34	-.45	-.35	-.35	-.43	-.53	-.35	(.84)		
8. MBE-passive	1.41	0.37	-.19	-.14	-.06[a]	-.19	-.33	-.17	.72	(.88)	
9. Well-being	2.99	0.58	-.75	-.71	-.61	-.70	-.73	-.66	.58	.41	(.76)

Note. N = 695. TFL = Transformational Leadership, II = Idealized Influence, IM = Inspirational Motivation, IS = Intellectual Stimulation, IC = Individualized Consideration, CR = Contingent Reward, and MBE = Management-by-Exception; All correlations were significant at the .01 level except when noted[a].

Table 12. *Correlations between Leadership Behaviors, Leader Well-being, and Leader Characteristics*

Measure	Male	Age	Level	Year in org	Years as leader
1. TFL	-.07	.11**	.13**	.00	.09*
2. II	-.03	.16**	.18**	.04	.16**
3. IM	-.10*	.11**	.20**	.05	.13**
4. IS	-.05	.05	.07	-.07	.03
5. IC	-.09*	.06	.04	.01	.02
6. CR	-.10*	.06	-.03	.03	-.03
7. MBE-active	.04	.01	-.03	-.01	.04
8. MBE-passive	.06	-.02	.09*	-.01	.05
9. Well-being	-.02	.02	-.08	-.10*	.03

Note. N = 605−617. TFL = Transformational Leadership, II = Idealized Influence, IM = Inspirational Motivation, IS = Intellectual Stimulation, IC = Individualized Consideration, CR = Contingent Reward, and MBE = Management-by-Exception; *p < .05, **p < .01.

Table 13. *Exploratory Factor Analysis of Organizational Cultural Norm Scales*

Measure	#Items	% Variance Explained	Loadings		
			M	Min	Max
Initial					
Mastery-approach	34	72.47	.84	.55	.95
Performance-approach	40	44.47	.57	-.48	.92
Performance-avoid	43	58.89	.75	.16	.95
Revised					
Performance-approach	33	52.63	.71	.46	.91
Performance-avoid	42	60.23	.76	.32	.95

Table 14. *Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Internal Consistency among Initial and Revised Scales of Organizational Cultural Norms*

Measure	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5
1. Mastery-approach	3.66	0.30	(.99)				
2. Performance-approach (initial)	2.65	0.21	-.27	(.96)			
3. Performance-avoid (initial)	2.60	0.26	-.63**	.75**	(.98)		
4. Performance-approach (revised)	2.44	0.26	-.39**	.99**	.81**	(.97)	
5. Performance-avoid (revised)	2.60	0.26	-.64**	.75**	1.00**	.81**	(.98)

Note. $N = 45$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 15. *Comparison of Interrater Reliability and Agreement Before and After Item Removal*

Measure	Average Group Size	ICC(1)	ICC(2)	*p*	Mr_{wg}	$Mr_{wg(j)}$
Initial						
Performance-approach	234.84	.06	.94	< .001	.85	.96
Performance-avoid	234.84	.03	.88	< .001	.81	.97
Revised						
Performance-approach	234.84	.06	.94	< .001	.80	.98
Performance-avoid	234.84	.03	.88	< .001	.80	.96

Table 16. *Regression Analysis of the Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Leaders' Well-Being*

Predictor	*b*	*β*	r_{sp}	*t*	*p*
Transformational leadership	-0.96	-.62	-.27	-12.04	< .001
Control Variables					
CR	-0.05	-.03	-.02	-0.68	.499
MBE-active	0.28	.16	.10	4.34	< .001
MBE-passive	0.28	.17	.12	5.29	< .001
F(4,690)				321.07	
R^2				.651	< .001

Note. N = 695. CR = Contingent Reward and MBE = Management-by-Exception; r_{sp} = Semi-partial correlation.

Table 17. *Regression Analysis of the Relationship between Transformational Leadership Components and Leaders' Well-Being*

Predictor	*b*	*β*	r_{sp}	*t*	*p*
Transformational Leadership Components					
II	-0.49	-.35	-.17	-7.55	< .001
IM	-0.07	-.05	-.03	-1.25	.213
IS	-0.14	-.11	-.05	-2.14	.033
IC	-0.19	-.12	-.06	-2.45	.014
Control Variables					
CR	-0.09	-.06	-.03	-1.29	.199
MBE-active	0.33	.19	.11	5.11	< .001
MBE-passive	0.25	.16	.10	4.47	< .001
F(7,687)				190.99	
R^2				.661	< .001

Note. N = 695. II = Idealized Influence, IM = Inspirational Motivation, IS = Intellectual Stimulation, IC = Individualized Consideration, CR = Contingent Reward, and MBE = Management-by-Exception; r_{sp} = Semi-partial correlation.

Table 18. *The Moderating Effect of the Mastery-Approach Cultural Norms on the Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Leaders' Well-Being*

Level and Variable	Step 1: Null	Step 2: Random Intercept, Fixed Slope	Step 3: Random Intercept, Random Slope	Step 4: Cross-Level Interaction
Level 1				
Intercept (γ_{00})	4.45** (0.15)	3.14** (0.35)	3.11** (0.36)	3.12** (0.36)
TFL (γ_{10})		-0.96** (0.08)	-0.95** (0.08)	-0.75 (0.46)
CR	-0.82** (0.04)	-0.11 (0.07)	-0.12 (0.07)	-0.13 (0.07)
MBE-active	0.54** (0.07)	0.30** (0.07)	0.30** (0.06)	0.30** (0.07)
MBE-passive	0.15* (0.06)	0.27** (0.06)	0.26** (0.06)	0.26** (0.06)
Level 2: Mastery (γ_{01})		-0.15 (0.09)	-0.14 (0.09)	-0.14 (0.09)
Cross-level interaction: TFL * Mastery (γ_{11})				-0.05 (0.12)
Variance components				
L1 Within org variance (σ^2)	0.136	0.110	0.110	0.110
L2 Intercept variance (τ_{00})	0.011	0.020	0.047	0.048
L2 Slope variance (τ_{11})			0.009	0.009
L2 Intercept-slope covariance (τ_{01})			-0.988	-0.988
Additional information				
ICC(1)	.074			
-2 log likelihood (FIML)	-317.75	-254.21	-253.29	-254.38
Number of estimated parameters	6	8	10	11
% Reduction in Residual	N/A	19.1%	0.0%	N/A

Note. Level 1 (L1) N = 695, Level 2 (L2) N = 45; TFL = Transformational Leadership, CR = Contingent Reward, MBE = Management-by-Exception, and FIML = Full information maximum likelihood estimation; Values in parentheses are standard errors; TFL was group mean centered; *p < .05, **p < .01.

Table 19. *The Moderating Effect of the Performance-Approach Cultural Norms on the Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Leaders' Well-Being*

Level and Variable	Step 1: Null	Step 2: Random Intercept, Fixed Slope	Step 3: Random Intercept, Random Slope	Step 4: Cross-Level Interaction
Level 1				
Intercept (γ_{00})	4.45** (0.15)	2.28** (0.33)	2.41** (0.34)	2.44** (0.34)
TFL (γ_{10})		-0.95** (0.08)	-0.95** (0.08)	-1.34** (0.37)
CR	-0.82** (0.04)	-.13 (0.07)	-.13 (0.07)	-0.14* (0.07)
MBE-active	0.54** (0.07)	0.30** (0.06)	0.29** (0.07)	0.30** (0.07)
MBE-passive	0.15* (0.06)	0.26** (0.06)	0.26** (0.06)	0.26** (0.06)
Level 2: Approach (γ_{01})		0.14 (0.10)	0.09 (0.11)	0.09 (0.11)
Cross-level interaction: TFL * Approach (γ_{11})				0.16 (0.15)
Variance components				
L1 Within org variance (σ^2)	0.136	0.110	0.110	0.110
L2 Intercept variance (τ_{00})	0.011	0.020	0.391	0.390
L2 Slope variance (τ_{11})			0.058	0.058
L2 Intercept-slope covariance (τ_{01})			-0.980	-0.981
Additional information				
ICC	.074			
-2 log likelihood (FIML)	-317.75	-254.68	-253.86	-254.25
Number of estimated parameters	6	8	10	11
% Reduction in residual	N/A	19.1%	0.0%	N/A

Note. Level 1 (L1) N = 695, Level 2 (L2) N = 45; TFL = Transformational Leadership, CR = Contingent Reward, MBE = Management-by-Exception, and FIML = Full information maximum likelihood estimation; Values in parentheses are standard errors; TFL was group mean centered; *p < .05, **p < .01.

Table 20. *The Moderating Effect of the Performance-Avoid Cultural Norms on the Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Leaders' Well-Being*

Level and Variable	Step 1: Null	Step 2: Random Intercept, Fixed Slope	Step 3: Random Intercept, Random Slope	Step 4: Cross-Level Interaction
Level 1				
Intercept (γ_{00})	4.45** (0.15)	2.28** (0.33)	2.42** (0.33)	2.42** (0.33)
TFL (γ_{10})		-0.95** (0.08)	-0.95** (0.08)	-1.29** (0.34)
CR	-0.82** (0.04)	-0.12 (0.07)	-0.13 (0.07)	-0.14* (0.07)
MBE-active	0.54** (0.07)	0.30** (0.07)	0.30** (0.07)	0.30** (0.07)
MBE-passive	0.15* (0.06)	0.26** (0.06)	0.26** (0.06)	0.26** (0.10)
Level 2: Avoid (γ_{01})		0.13 (0.10)	0.09 (0.10)	0.09 (0.10)
Cross-level interaction: TFL * Avoid (γ_{11})				0.13 (0.13)
Variance components				
L1 Within org variance (σ^2)	0.136	0.110	0.110	0.110
L2 Intercept variance (τ_{00})	0.011	0.021	0.265	0.240
L2 Slope variance (τ_{11})			0.022	0.020
L2 Intercept-slope covariance (τ_{01})			-0.994	-0.992
Additional information				
ICC	.074			
-2 log likelihood (FIML)	-317.75	-254.80	-253.78	-254.39
Number of estimated parameters	6	8	10	11
% Reduction in residual	N/A	19.1%	0.0%	N/A

Note. Level 1 (L1) N = 695, Level 2 (L2) N = 45; TFL = Transformational Leadership, CR = Contingent Reward, MBE = Management-by-Exception, and FIML = Full information maximum likelihood estimation; Values in parentheses are standard errors; TFL was group mean centered; *p < .05, **p < .01.

Table 21. *Trichotomization of the Organizational Cultural Norms*

Group		Mastery-Approach	Performance-Approach	Performance-Avoid
	n leaders	216	204	226
Low	*n* orgs	16	12	14
	range of scores	3.08 − 3.52	1.80 – 2.2995	2.95 − 2.50
	n leaders	233	246	232
Moderate	*n* orgs	15	19	16
	range of scores	3.53 − 3.77	2.2996 − 2.572	2.51 − 2.72
	n leaders	246	245	237
High	*n* orgs	14	14	15
	range of scores	3.78 − 4.51	2.573 − 3.04	2.73 − 3.18

Table 22. *The Moderating Effect of Mastery-Approach Cultural Norms (Trichotomized) on the Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Leaders' Well-Being*

Predictor	*b*	*β*	*t*	*p*
Model 1				
TFL	-0.97	-.62	-11.98	< .001
Mastery – high	-0.02	-.02	-0.54	.587
Mastery – moderate	-0.08	-.07	-2.48	.014
CR	-0.05	-.03	-0.67	.506
MBE-active	0.26	.16	4.15	< .001
MBE-passive	0.29	.18	5.29	< .001
$F(6,688)$			216.77	
R^2			.654	< .001
Model 2				
TFL * Mastery – high	-0.11	-.25	-1.31	.192
TFL * Mastery – moderate	0.18	.40	1.93	.054
TFL	-0.96	-.61	-10.17	< .001
Mastery – high	0.28	.23	1.24	.216
Mastery – moderate	-0.57	-.46	-2.25	.025
CR	-0.05	-.04	-0.73	.464
MBE-active	0.28	.17	4.47	< .001
MBE-passive	0.27	.17	4.98	< .001
$\Delta F(2,686)$			4.90	
ΔR^2			.005	.008

Note. N = 695. TFL = Transformational Leadership, CR = Contingent Reward, MBE = Management-by-Exception.

Table 23. *The Moderating Effect of Mastery-Approach Cultural Norms (Trichotomized) on the Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Leaders' Well-Being*

	Low (n = 216)		Moderate (n = 233)		High (n = 246)	
Predictor	*b*	*β*	*b*	*β*	*b*	*β*
TFL	-0.93	-.61**	-0.98	-.66**	-0.93	-.56**
CR	-0.11	-.07	0.19	.13	-0.19	-.12
MBE-active	0.13	.08	0.37	.26**	0.34	.17**
MBE-passive	0.47	.27**	0.12	.09	0.25	.25**
F		149.20		67.09		120.87
df1, df2		4, 211		4, 228		4, 241
R^2		.739**		.541**		.667**

Note. TFL = Transformational Leadership, CR = Contingent Reward, MBE = Management-by-Exception. **p < .01.

Table 24. *The Moderating Effect of Performance-Approach Cultural Norms (Trichotomized) on the Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Leaders' Well-Being*

Predictor	*b*	*β*	*t*	*p*
Model 1				
TFL	-0.99	-.63	-12.26	< .001
Approach – high	0.06	.05	1.67	.096
Approach – moderate	0.09	.07	2.67	.008
CR	-0.02	-.01	-0.27	.785
MBE-active	0.27	.16	4.19	< .001
MBE-passive	0.28	.18	5.29	< .001
$F(6,688)$			216.86	
R^2			.65	< .001
Model 2				
TFL * Approach – high	0.02	.03	0.17	.865
TFL * Approach – moderate	0.13	.29	1.42	.155
TFL	-1.04	-.67	-11.06	< .001
Approach – high	0.01	.01	0.04	.965
Approach – moderate	-0.26	-.22	-1.05	.294
CR	-0.01	-.01	-0.11	.911
MBE-active	0.28	.16	4.34	< .001
MBE-passive	0.28	.18	5.25	< .001
$\Delta F(2,686)$			1.25	
ΔR^2			.001	.288

Note. N = 695. TFL = Transformational Leadership, CR = Contingent Reward, MBE = Management-by-Exception.

Table 25. *The Moderating Effect of Performance-Avoid Cultural Norms (Trichotomized) on the Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Leaders' Well-Being*

Predictor	*b*	*β*	*t*	*p*
Model 1				
TFL	-0.98	-.63	-12.23	< .001
Avoid – high	0.07	.06	2.14	.003
Avoid – moderate	0.00	.00	0.28	.978
CR	-0.04	-.03	-0.59	.557
MBE-active	0.25	.15	3.97	< .001
MBE-passive	0.30	.19	5.51	< .001
$F(6,688)$			216.34	
R^2			.654	< .001
Model 2				
TFL * Avoid – high	0.00	.00	0.01	.990
TFL * Avoid – moderate	0.04	.09	0.45	.650
TFL	-0.99	-.64	-10.55	< .001
Avoid – high	0.07	.05	0.27	.786
Avoid – moderate	-0.11	-.09	-0.44	.658
CR	-0.04	-.03	-0.56	.571
MBE-active	0.26	.15	3.99	< .001
MBE-passive	0.30	.19	5.48	< .001
$\Delta F(2,686)$			0.14	
ΔR^2			.000	.871

Note. N = 695. TFL = Transformational Leadership, CR = Contingent Reward, MBE = Management-by-Exception.

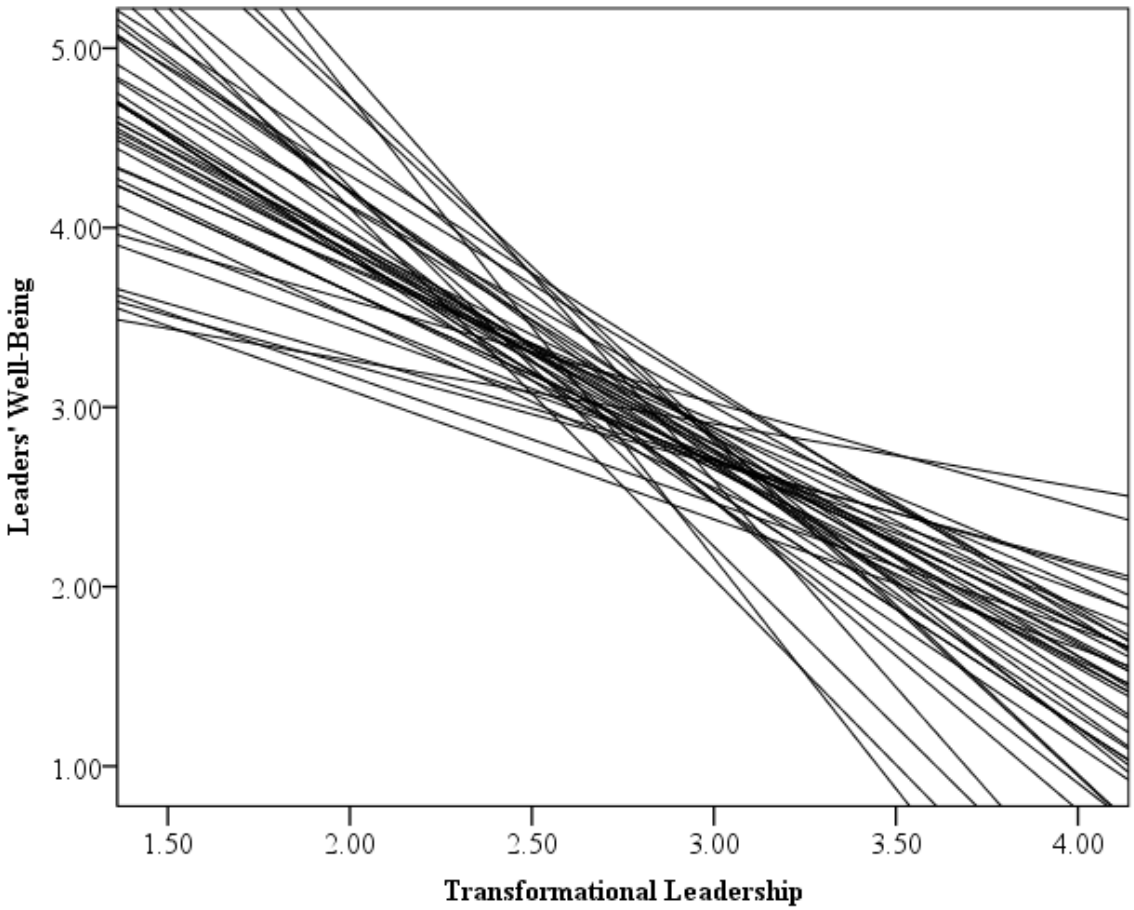


Figure 1. The Relationships between Transformational Leadership and Leaders' Well-Being across Organizations

APPENDIX A: *Leadership/Impact*® – Prescriptive Scales of Leadership Strategies

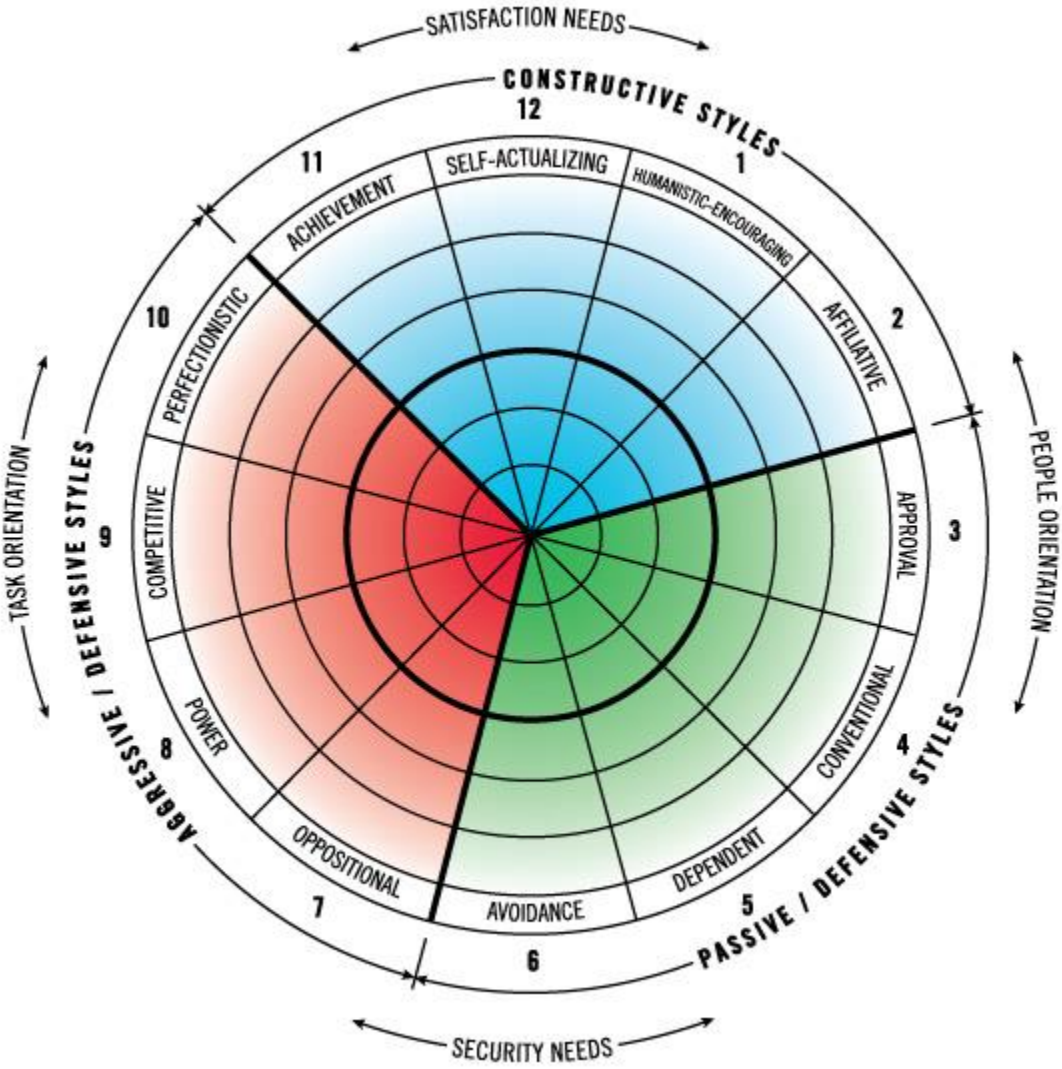
(Human Synergistics International, 2013; Leslie, 2013)

Domain	Definition	Item Description
1. Envisioning	Defines and shares a desired state of future affairs	communicating vision, sharing opinions
2. Role Modeling	Exemplifies behaviors that reflect the desired values	being a role model, setting examples
3. Creating a Setting	Encourages others' growth and development	empowering others, preparing others for advancement
4. Referring	Uses positive stories and remarks about role models	talking about strengths, telling positive stories
5. Stimulation to Thinking	Encourages new thinking	challenging assumptions, inspiring creativity
6. Mentoring	Provide direction and creative a "safe" environment for learning	providing explanations, helping others
7. Monitoring	Manages by excellence and focuses on the right things to do	being interested in improvement and good performance
8. Feedback	Communicates positive evaluations when appropriate	giving compliments and telling positive impressions
9. Reinforcing	Rewards and recognizes desired behaviors	rewarding success
10. Influencing	Uses reciprocal control and influence behaviors	respecting others, being participative

Note. From *Leadership/Impact® Feedback Report* by R. A. Cooke, Human Synergistics. Copyright 2017 by Human Synergistics International. Adapted by permission.

APPENDIX B: The *Organizational Culture Inventory*® Circumplex

(Human Synergistics International, 2012)



Note. Research and Development by Robert A. Cooke, Ph.D. and J. Clayton Lafferty, Ph.D.

APPENDIX C: ***Organizational Culture Inventory*®** – The 12 Cultural Norms

(Cooke & Szumal, 2000; Human Synergistics International, 2003)

Norm (Clock Position)	**Definition:** Members are expected to...	**Sample Item**
1. Humanistic-Encouraging (C)	"...be supportive, constructive, and open to influence in their dealings with one another."	help others to grow and develop
2. Affiliative (C)	"...be friendly, cooperative, and sensitive to the satisfaction of their work group."	share feelings and thoughts
3. Approval (P/D)	"...agree with, gain the approval of, and be liked by others."	be liked by everyone
4. Conventional (P/D)	"... conform, follow the rules, and make a good impression."	fit into the "mold"
5. Dependent (P/D)	"... do what they're told and clear all decisions with superiors."	do what is expected
6. Avoidance (P/D)	"...shift responsibilities to others and avoid any possibility of being blamed for a problem."	take few chances
7. Oppositional (A/D)	"...be critical, oppose ideas of others, and make safe (but ineffectual) decisions."	be hard to impress
8. Power (A/D)	"...take charge, control subordinates, and yield to the demands of superiors."	demand loyalty
9. Competitive (A/D)	"...operate in a "win-lose" framework, outperform others, and work against (rather than with) their peers."	never appear to lose
10. Perfectionistic (A/D)	"...appear competent, keep track of everything, and work long hours to attain narrowly-defined objectives."	do things perfectly
11. Achievement (C)	"...set challenging but realistic goals, establish plans to reach those goals, and pursue them with enthusiasm."	openly show enthusiasm
12. Self-actualizing (C)	"...enjoy their work, develop themselves, and take on new and interesting tasks"	do even simple tasks well

Note. C = Constructive styles; P/D = Passive/Defensive styles; A/D = Aggressive/Defensive styles. From *Organizational Culture Inventory* by R.A. Cooke and J.C. Lafferty, 2003, Plymouth, MI: Human Synergistics. Copyright © 2017 by Human Synergistics©. Adapted and reproduced by permission. The OCI style descriptions and items may not be reproduced without the express and written permission of Human Synergistics.

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ABSTRACT

ARE TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERS SUSTAINABLE? THE ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

by

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May 2017

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Major: Psychology (Industrial/Organizational)

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As the workplace becomes increasingly stressful, leaders' well-being, a critical determinant for follower well-being and organizational effectiveness, rises as an important research direction. Under the theoretical framework of self-regulation and conservation of resources, the current study hypothesized that transformational leadership deters leaders' affective and cognitive resources from long-term self-growth, resulting in a detrimental effect on leaders' eudemonic well-being. In addition, organizational culture was hypothesized to moderate the overall negative relationship between transformational behaviors and well-being of the leaders. On the one hand, mastery-approach norms would facilitate restoration of resources, so the association between transformational leadership and well-being becomes positive under a high level of mastery-approach norms. On the other hand, performance-approach and avoid norms would prevent resource gain and exacerbate the negative effect of transformational behaviors on leaders' well-being.

To test these hypotheses, an empirical study was conducted using a multi-organizational archival dataset, which contains others' ratings of transformational leadership and leaders' well-being, as well as employee responses to measurements of organizational culture. These measures

were extracted from the *Leadership/Impact*® (L/I) and *Organizational Culture Inventory*® (OCI®) published by Human Synergistics International. Given sufficient interrater reliability and agreement, data were aggregated to the leader and organizational levels. Regression and hierarchical linear modeling was used for analyzing the aggregated data.

Results supported the main effect hypothesis that transformational leadership was negatively related to leaders' eudemonic well-being when controlling for transactional leadership. Results were inconclusive about the cross-level interactions, such that organizational culture, conceptualized as the collective self-regulatory focus, did not significantly moderate the main effect at the leader level, but statistical power was lacking to reveal the potential interactions. These findings are helpful for understanding long-term sustainability of effective leadership. Regardless of organizational context, leaders and organizations need to be aware of and balance the contradiction between effective leadership and leaders' personal development and fulfillment. Future research should continue incorporating leaders' well-being for exploring the within-leader processes associated with the dynamic nature of leadership.

AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL STATEMENT

SHAN RAN

I am a doctoral candidate in Industrial and Organizational (I-O) psychology at Wayne State University and also a research consultant at the Research Design and Analysis (RDA) unit. Before becoming the consultant, I taught undergraduate and graduate level laboratory courses on statistics (PSY3010, PSY7150, and PSY7160) and an undergraduate course on psychology in the workplace (PSY2100). I also hold a master's degree in I-O psychology from the University of Detroit Mercy in Detroit, Michigan and a bachelor's degree in psychology from Zhejiang University in Hangzhou, China.

My research addresses the broad question of the success of diverse workers, which encompasses topics like leadership, training and development, and workplace mistreatment along gender, age, culture, and other factors. My publications have appeared in the *Journal of Business and Psychology*, I-*O Psychology: Perspectives on Science and Practice*, *The Oxford handbook of workplace discrimination*, and the *Encyclopedia of industrial and organizational psychology*. At Wayne State, I have also served on the Commission on the Status of Women (COSW), the Graduate Employee Organizing Committee (GEOC), and the diversity committee within the psychology department.

Starting August 2017, I will be an assistant professor of applied psychology at Mercer University in Macon, Georgia.