Organizational Behavior, Motivation, & Accurate Person Perception:

Leadership in the Context of Followers' Values, Assumptions, Beliefs, and Expectations

Comprehensive Exam Integrative Paper

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Abstract

Essential to the performance of all organizations is its workforce. Thus, a perpetual struggle exists in how best to obtain optimal employee behavior. In this paper, I advocate for consideration of the *whole* person (motivations, personality traits, and self-concept) when providing leadership. For this to occur, it is argued that the leader's ability to make, and properly utilize, accurate judgments of followers is critical. Specifically, to influence organizational behaviors and attitudes of individual followers, the leaders must communicate the organizational mission, vision, and performance goals as congruent with their self-concept, drawing upon their motivations and aligning with their personality traits. It is only by having an accurate understanding of the follower, can congruence be purposely obtained. Ultimately, an integrative model is presented, which draws attention to some applied implications of this overarching proposition.

Keywords: Transformational Leadership; Leader-Member Exchange; Judgmental Accuracy; Self-Expansion; Motivation; Organizational Behavior; Employee Attitudes

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"It's a simple concept: unless the whole employee is engaged in the work, the work won't be as high quality as it otherwise would be."

~ James G. Clawson (p. 27)

One is hard pressed to think about business without consideration of dealings between organizations and the entities (persons or other firms alike) to which they provide goods and/or services. Just as important, but often a much less salient consideration is the relationship between an organization and its workforce. Most often this bi-directional relationship is perceived as an exchange process (e.g., employee provides labor for which the organization provides monetary compensation). However, there is more to the employee-organization link than a simple economic interchange. Individuals look to their organization as contributing to their social status and identity (Jahoda, 1981), a source of social support (Baruch-Feldman, Brondolo, Ben-Dayan, & Schwartz, 2002), and a place to expand their knowledge and skills (Dansereau, Seitz, Chiu, Shaughnessy, & Yammarino, 2013; McIntyre, Mattingly, Lewandowski, & Simpson, 2014).

Behavior and attitudes of employees are dependent upon the way in which they view these elements. Therefore, an inquiry as to how one might improve employees' views of them is warranted. While myriad factors could be discussed at length, only a select few are within the purview of this paper. Specifically, personality and individual differences, style and process of leadership, and interpersonal perception will be considered herein. Ultimately, the argument will be made that *interpersonal perception* is a key *leadership process* by which employees' *personality and individual differences* are assessed and considered in an effort to influence behaviors and attitudes, which are critical to achieving the *perceived* organizational vision.

Organizations and Behaviors Within Them

At the most basic level, organizations are created to pool resources (human, financial, otherwise) toward a common objective (Blau & Scott, 1962). Churches bring people together to connect with a deity; political parties (e.g., Democratic, Republican) rally together to translate commonly held positions into legislation; businesses emerge to provide desired goods and/or services. However, even when formed with a clear and common objective, such views and purposes can, and often do change. Moreover, as time passes, those within a given organization can come to misunderstand the ideas and views on which the organization was founded (Ouchi, 1980). Thus, decision makers within organizations need to be cautious when interpreting the behaviors of constituents, as their behaviors and attitudes are not only a function of their motivation, self-efficacy of requisite skills, and personality (Cerasoli, Nicklin, & Ford, 2014; Judge & Ilies, 2002; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998), but also their perception of the organizational vision, culture, and objectives (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Schein, 2004).

Organizational Behaviors and Attitudes

Organizational behavior consists of all actions within an organizational context, and its study can be defined as the investigation of “human behavior in organizational settings, of the interface between human behavior and the organization, and of the organization itself” (Griffin & Moorhead, 2010, p. 3). These activities can occur at three distinct levels – micro, conduct of individual persons; meso, team or group behaviors; and macro, organizational actions. While all three levels are certainly important to achieving a visionary state, the micro level will be the focus herein. Moreover, because attitudes represent hidden views, beliefs, and/or intentions (i.e., only assessable to the individual who holds them) that influence the manifestation of behaviors

(Ajzen, 2001; Glasman & Albarracin, 2006), attitudes will be considered under the umbrella of organizational behaviors for the purpose of this paper.

There are numerous attitudes important to organizations, but in an effort to maintain focus only a subset will be discussed. Specifically, job satisfaction (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001), organizational commitment and turnover intentions (Shore & Martin, 1989), and trust (Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007) will be mentioned within the scope of this paper. Similarly, the behaviors that could be deliberated are numerous, but again only a subset will be considered herein. For instance, organizational citizenship behaviors (e.g., working beyond scheduled hours, assisting coworkers; Koys, 2001; Organ, 1997; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983; Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994) and job performance (i.e., quantity and quality of outputs) will be reviewed within the purview of this paper.

Important to the manifestation of organizational behaviors and attitudes at the micro level are personality and individual differences. Indeed, Judge and his colleagues have found personality, particularly the lower-order facets seen using the trait theory approach, to be meaningfully predictive of organizational behavior, attitudes, and performance outcomes (Judge, Klinger, Simon, & Yang, 2008; Judge, Rodell, Klinger, Simon, & Crawford, 2013). As such, personality is discussed in greater detail below with consideration of its relation to organizational behaviors and attitudes.

Personality and Individual Differences

The discipline of personality psychology is aimed at understanding the *whole* person – how people, situational constraints, and resulting behaviors interact to allow distinction between individuals. With this purpose in mind, personality is an "individual's characteristic patterns of thought, emotion, and behavior together with the psychological mechanisms – hidden or not –

behind those patterns" (Funder, 2001, p. 198). This broad definition provides room for many theoretical approaches to understanding individual differences. However, for the purpose of this paper, two domains of particular interest – the Big Five taxonomy and the Self-Determination Theory (SDT) of motivation – are reviewed below and followed by dialog of the levels on which behavior is expressed.

The Big Five Taxonomy

The very existence of the trait approach to personality can be traced back to Sir Francis Galton, Gordon Allport, and L. L. Thurstone and the *Lexical Hypothesis* (Goldberg, 1993). The lexical hypothesis asserts that most individual differences, as seen in linguistic interchange (i.e., conversations), can be grouped into several higher-order descriptions. Indeed, searches for these groupings with shared meanings through factor analysis have consistently revealed five factors – the Big Five (Goldberg, 1993).[1] Even so, some scholars (e.g., Block, 2010; Zuckerman, Kuhlman, Joireman, Teta, & Kraft, 1993) contest the use of this as the *exclusive* taxonomy of personality traits. Nonetheless, as Barrick and Mount (1991, p. 23) cogently stated, "in order for any field of science to advance, it is necessary to have an accepted classification scheme for accumulating and categorizing empirical findings."

While much taxonomic progress was made since the 1920's, an influential and heated debate began when Walter Mischel (1968) published *Personality and Assessment* – a critique that questioned the validity of personality to predict behavior across situations. Such a focus on how personality could *reliably* predict behavior across situations provided little focus on the substantive nature of the Big Five categories in the proceeding decade. However, work by McCrae and Costa (Costa & McCrae, 1995; McCrae & Costa, 1985, 1987) provided the footing

[1] While the Big Five taxonomy is certainly the most widely accepted, there exist myriad others that range from two factors (e.g., Block's Ego Control and Ego Resiliency) to those with more than a dozen (Cattell, circa 1945).

for the literature on the Big Five taxonomy (Goldberg, 1993), which has received widespread acceptance (albeit not universally) by personality scholars. The five trait domains are *openness* (involves imagination, insightfulness, and possessing varied interests), *conscientiousness* (describes attributes such as organization, planning, and being thorough), *extraversion* (associated with being energetic, talkative, and assertive), *agreeableness* (describes kind, affectionate, and empathetic tendencies), and *neuroticism* (propensity to be anxious, moody, and/or tense; Srivastava, 2016).

Given the general acceptability of the Big Five as a "classification scheme for accumulating and categorizing empirical findings" (Barrick & Mount, 1991, p. 23), a profusion of research on the relational and achievement oriented correlates has emerged over the past three decades (e.g., Komarraju, Karau, & Schmeck, 2009; Noftle & Shaver, 2006). Even more important was research indicating consistency in behavioral predictions across the Big Five domains (Paunonen, 2003). However, central to this paper is the relation between the Big Five domains and organizational behaviors and attitudes.

Importantly, one of the most cited studies on this relation (Barrick & Mount, 1991) found that the Big Five factors relate to job performance, but they do so differentially – except for conscientiousness. In fact, across three performance criteria in five occupational groups conscientiousness was a reliable correlate. Further, a later published study (Judge, Higgins, Thoresen, & Barrick, 1999) found that the Big Five traits were reliably related to career success, even when controlling for intelligence. More specifically, job satisfaction and income level were positively correlated with conscientiousness. Beyond this, income level was also negatively related to neuroticism. Similarly, a more recent meta-analysis (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002) supported this notion that conscientiousness was related to job satisfaction (estimated true correlation (ρ) = .26).

Expanding upon the utility of the Big Five taxonomy in the workplace from a lifespan perspective, data from the Mills Longitudinal Study indicated that three of the Big Five factors (conscientiousness, extraversion, and openness) were predictive of key work-related outcomes in women over a period of 50 years. Specifically, the three personality traits measured at 21 years of age were predictive of a diverse range of employment outcomes across the lifespan. Openness was positively related to the number of creative accomplishments; extraversion was related to the attainment of higher status careers; conscientiousness was related to commitment toward life duties (e.g., family, work; George, Helson, & John, 2011).

Overall, there is a substantial body of evidence – cross-sectional, longitudinal, and meta-analytic – for the utility of the Big Five traits. However, it does not complete the picture of the *whole* person (Funder, 2001). In fact, motivation is an important individual difference. While it has been meta-analytically found that neuroticism, extraversion, and conscientiousness are predictive of motivation (Judge & Ilies, 2002), there are also situational and social factors that influence motivation. Thus, one meta-theory and several *sub*-theories of motivation, which have been shown to be relevant to organizational behaviors and attitudes, are reviewed in the proceeding section.

Motivation

Motivation is the term used to capture the broad latent construct of what energizes one to initiate goal-oriented behaviors (Ryan & Deci, 2000), and shapes the form, duration, intensity, and focus of those behaviors (Pinder, 2008). In essence, motivation is a core element to the attainment of objectives – be it personal-, relationship-, or work-oriented. Within the field of management and leadership, motivation is an essential piece (mindset) of the informal *performance equation* (i.e., Opportunity x Abilities x Mindset = Performance Output; Steers, Mowday, & Shapiro, 2004). Although framed broadly here, "motivation is hardly a unitary phenomenon; people have not only different amounts, but also different kinds of motivation" (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 54). As such, several perspectives on the construct of motivation, which have been deemed relevant to the current paper, are discussed under the framework of the meta-theory of SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2008).

SDT. A fundamental tenant of SDT is that humans have basic psychological needs that provide nourishment for psychological wellness, growth, and integrity. Behavior is posited to be a function of the manner in which one construes stimulus inputs (either external or internal); and, the construal of those inputs is determined by their fulfillment of the basic psychological needs (Ryan & Deci, 2008). The basic, innate psychological needs as proposed by SDT are *autonomy* (volition and congruence to the self of undertaken actions), *competence* (sense of efficacy in one's actions), and *relatedness* (sense of belonging in and connectedness with one's social environment; Deci & Ryan, 2000). Conceptually, it is these needs that provide the *motivation for one to act*, which can be either intrinsically or extrinsically incentivized.

Intrinsic vs. extrinsic incentivization. Motivation is commonly dichotomized as either *intrinsic* (the undertaking of an action simply because it is perceived as enjoyable or interesting) or *extrinsic* (as a means of obtaining some "separable" consequence, such as money or social status; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Conceptualized from the SDT framework, "people will become more or less [intrinsically motivated] in activities as a function of the degree to which they experience need satisfaction *while* engaging in those activities" (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 233; emphasis added). The same holds for extrinsic motivation, but the need satisfaction would *stem* *from, or occur after*, the action. Given this nature of extrinsic motivation, it will subsequently be reviewed in the context of goals and self-expansion (although self-expansion can also be considered an intrinsic motivation (Aron, Aron, & Norman, 2001)).

In regards to intrinsic motivation, it has been found that having choice in activity and time allotted for tasks produce greater intrinsic motivation than being assigned to activities with a predetermined time allotment (Patall, Cooper, & Robinson, 2008; Zuckerman, Porac, Lathin, Smith, & Deci, 1978), which is congruent with the need for autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 2000). More importantly, however, is that intrinsic motivation is positively related to exerted effort, perceived competence, and task performance (Patall et al., 2008). Additionally, a recent meta-analytic review (Cerasoli et al., 2014) indicated that intrinsic motivation is more predictive of quality than quantity of performance outcomes. Furthermore, aligned with the view of Ryan and Deci (2000) it was found that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are not at opposite ends of a single spectrum, but rather two separable influences of performance motivation that jointly predict variation in performance outcomes (Cerasoli et al., 2014).

Goals. Goal setting theory has a rich tradition in industrial and organizational psychology and is considered an "open" theory. This means that the theory is amenable to integration with other theories (Locke & Latham, 2006), such as SDT. In fact, SDT is well suited for the study of goals as a source of extrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2008). While goals provide a "separable" consequence, they do provide a direction for action (Locke & Latham, 2002), which could address the need for autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 2000) – especially if self-selected. Furthermore, there are many moderators and mediators of the efficacy of goals. For instance, precise, hard goals generally lead to greater task performance (Locke & Latham, 2006).

This effect of goal difficulty maps nicely onto the competence need outlined in SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000). This is especially true when one holds a “learning orientation”, as the goals are viewed as challenging as opposed to threatening (Locke & Latham, 2006). Potentially, this is an area where both intrinsic and extrinsic motives could simultaneously be at play as suggested by Cerasoli et al. (2014). That is, the goal is extrinsically motivating as a means to a future consequence, but also intrinsically as a method to personal growth (Deci & Ryan, 2000) by expanding one’s self-concept (Leary, 2007)

Self-Expansion. The self-expansion model posits that individuals have a desire to expand the *self* through a variety of activities (Aron & Aron, 2009), which aim to increase efficacy “by increasing the physical and social resources, perspectives, and identities that facilitate achievement of any goal that might arise.” In this regard, self-expansion motivation is aimed at “attaining the resources” needed to achieve goals (Aron et al., 2001, p. 478). Applying this to SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2008), self-expansion serves as an avenue to meet the need for competence by gaining requisite skills and knowledge to be effective. Further, it can help alleviate the need for relatedness as expanding the self through relations with others is commonplace (Aron, Lewandowski, Mashek, & Aron, 2013). Finally, the need for autonomy is confronted as self-expansion is marked by an approach motivation for increasing resources in domains that one *perceives* as novel (Mattingly, McIntyre, & Lewandowski, 2012).

Although much of the research on self-expansion has focused on close relationships (Aron et al., 2001; Aron et al., 2013; Mattingly et al., 2012), its recent application to the work environment has been promising. While is has been found that work contributes to one’s social status and identity (Jahoda, 1981), it was found that repositioning to a less self-expanding job is related to decreased self-concept clarity and self-esteem (McIntyre et al., 2014). Beyond this, higher levels of work-place self-expansion is predictive of job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and affective commitment (Gray, McIntyre, Mattingly, & Lewandowski, 2015), and this holds after controlling for demographics, tenure in the position, and monetary compensation (McIntyre et al., 2014).

Levels of Behavioral Expression

There are three levels at which human behavior are theorized to occur (Clawson, 2002). Level 1 (L1) is visible, objectively measurable behavior – the words that people speak, the actions that they undertake. This is certainly the most salient level of behavior exhibited. Beyond L1, at level 2 (L2), is the conscious thought of the individual. While it is possible to infer an individual's thought process from his or her overt behavior, the conclusions are subjective. Finally, espoused Values, Assumptions, Beliefs, and Expectations (VABEs) held by individuals reside at the semi-conscious level (L3). These VABEs are culturally engrained elements of the self that have been developed over a long period of time (Schein, 2004); they represent "the way [one thinks] the world is or should be" (Clawson, 2002, p. 26).

An explicit objective of a supervisor within an organization is to influence followers' expression of behaviors and attitudes toward supporting the organization's mission, vision, and attainment of goals. Given these levels at which behavior and attitudes can be expressed (Clawson, 2002), it is crucial that the *whole* individual is considered when trying to understand and influence manifested behaviors and the attitudes that drive them. To this point, supervisors have a wide array of tactics at their disposal, of which some address behavior at L1, L2, or L3. For instance, a supervisor could develop policies that simply constrain (by reward or punishment) visible and explicit organizational behaviors. Getting below the surface, a manager can attempt to influence, or even change, followers' conscious thoughts and mental behavior through additional training, communicative processes, etc. Alternatively, the invested, and hopefully ethical, leader can attempt to challenge and ultimately change follower VABEs (Clawson, 2002). Conceptually, it is the L3 elements that affect those at L2, and then those aspects ultimately manifest in the visible behavior exhibited at L1 (Clawson, 2002; Schein, 2004). Stated differently, "it is typically people's feelings, beliefs, motives, and goals, and the perceived environment within which these feelings, beliefs, motives, and goals arise, that organize subsequent behavior" (Ryan & Deci, 2008, p. 655).

Organizational behaviors and attitudes as a function of VABEs. Humans have a desire to find order in an otherwise chaotic environment. This need is not lost on the leader, yearning to understand the patterns of organizational behaviors and attitudes exhibited by his or her followers. However, this desire is not just directed toward those around us, it is also desired for a true understanding of ourselves. Enter the topic of personality coherence (Carvone, 1997; Carvone & Shoda, 1999; Sheldon & Kasser, 1995) – the degree to which our behaviors can be said to exist within a single rational framework.

While one is unable to change the past, and that includes his or her behavior, we are able to change our attitudes in response to behaviors, which were inconsistent with attitudes that we hold. For the sake of maintaining personality coherence, this ability to adapt ones attitudes is valuable. Moreover, it provides an avenue for leaders to affect change in followers' organizational behaviors and attitudes. A Zig Ziglar quote emphasizes this point: *"You cannot perform in a manner inconsistent with the way you see yourself."* I briefly describe a classic study conducted by Festinger and Carlsmith (1959) to provide context on this point.

Participants were asked to report to the next participant (a confederate) that the boring and mundane experimental task was actually interesting, and in exchange they would receive compensation – either $1 or $20. Interestingly, those receiving minimal payment ($1 rather than $20) later rated the experimental task as significantly more interesting. Because individuals *typically* act in accord with their belief system, attitudinal changes will occur in response to cognitive dissonance, which arises when one acts out of *coherence* with his or her self-view without a rational reason (e.g., $20 for a simple white lie; Festinger & Carlsmith, 1959).

The existence of this phenomenon provides two distinct avenues to influence individuals to exhibit desirable organizational behaviors and attitudes. First, create appropriate value systems that allow individuals to avoid cognitive dissonance (Kerr, 1995). Or two, align follower VABEs with those of the organization. Regardless of the path of influence chosen for initiating desirable organizational behaviors and attitudes, some degree of leadership, as opposed to management, is required. Thus, in the next section of this paper the topic of leadership is broached. First, the distinction between management and leadership is presented. Then, two key philosophies – Full Range Leadership Theory and Leader-Member Exchange Theory – are outlined. Specifically, arguments are made for how follower VABEs provide a method for eliciting behavior and attitudes that advance the organizational mission, as well as the goals of the followers.

Leadership

"Humans typically influence others through psychological (rather than physical) means: for example, facilitating insight or inspiration, engaging in persuasion, making salient subjectively relevant information or values, conveying regard or distain, or changing contingencies to specifically alter others' explicit motives and goals."

~ Richard M. Ryan & Edward L. Deci (p. 654)

Management vs. Leadership[2]

To the layperson, the terms *management* and *leadership* are synonyms; they are used interchangeably. However, for the purpose of this paper, the distinction between these constructs

[2] Given the purpose of this paper, the review of the differences between *Management* and *Leadership* is pithy. However, for a greater in-depth review of the definitional, conceptual, functional, and behavioral distinctions see Toor and Ofori (2008).

is important. While leadership has been a topic of interest for millennia (for example Plato, Aristotle, and Sun Tzu all broached the topic), it wasn't until the onset of the industrial revolution in the 19th century that the concept of management was introduced. With an increased need to organize, plan, and control the production process, *managers* used a scientific approach to increase efficiency (Toor & Ofori, 2008). Conversely, leadership holds a lush tradition of aligning vision among organizational members, increasing their performance motivation, and enabling followers by providing the means (e.g., autonomy, skills) for performing *not only* to, but also beyond, expectations (Bass, 1985; Bass & Riggio, 2006). Indeed, Kotter (2001, p. 90) made this point by stating: "Management is about coping with complexity. Leadership, by contrast, is about coping with change."

Because of these distinctions in why leadership versus management emerges within an organizational context, there are meaningful differences in how power is obtained (Zaleznik, 1977). As Toor and Ofori (2008, p. 64) noted, "leadership involves power by influence [while] management involves power by position". Most notably, leaders can emerge at any level of an organization, with or without formal authority. Conversely, managers, by definition, require formal authority, be it monetary resources, hiring/firing privileges, etc. Although the purpose and source of power vary between leaders and managers, both are necessary for successfully fulfilling the mission of any organization (Hay & Hodgkinson, 2006). Leadership plays a crucial role in determining, and ensuring understanding of, the organizational vision; management on the other hand ensures that financial performance through product/service quality is sustained while progressing to the visionary state (Toor & Ofori, 2008). This last point on the need for both managers and leaders within an organization also makes salient another difference – time orientation. Managers most often focus on the here and now, while leaders typically hold a future orientation – especially for growth (Thoms, 2004).

Full Range Leadership Model

Burns (1978) first introduced the concept of *transforming leadership.* Using that initial conceptualization, Bass (1985) broadened it to describe a model of *full range leadership* and provided initial empirical support. As the name implies, there is a range of tactics that can be used to influence others. These include inactive-passive strategies (i.e., laissez-faire), error management and contingent reward (i.e., transactional), all the way to full incorporation of the individual (i.e., transformational; Northouse, 2010). In the following sections each of these will be considered, with special attention to transformational leadership.

Laissez-faire supervision.[3] It is interesting that laissez-faire is traditionally dubbed a type of leadership, as it is defined as the absence thereof. Individuals exhibiting the laissez-faire style are people in a position of power, but lack an enthusiasm for leading, and even managing, others. These individuals are inactive – there is a clear lack of interaction with their subordinates. This point stands true even when there are delays, production errors, or other problems that occur which necessitate involvement by a supervisor (Bass, 1985; Bass & Riggio, 2006). Overall, this type of *non*-leadership is never a useful method to influencing organizational behaviors and attitudes crucial to attaining an organizations vision.[4]

[3] I have substituted the term supervision for leadership to differentiate between management and leadership as discussed in the preceding *Management vs. Leadership* section.
[4] A laissez-faire approach may be acceptable in situations where the outcome only matters to the individuals directly contributing to it (Bass & Riggio, 2006). However, it could be argued that such a situation is not within the purview of leadership.

Transactional management.[5] As the supervisor becomes more active, the leadership process becomes more transactional in nature. Under the umbrella of transactional management, supervisors exhibit behaviors that can vary in their degree of interaction. Specifically, three distinct subtypes of transactional processes exist – passive management by exception, active management by exception, and contingent reward systems (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass, 1985; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Northouse, 2010). Ultimately, this category of leadership techniques is aimed at maintaining the status quo.

Management by exception. Just beyond the laissez-faire supervisor is the manager who remains inactive until failures occur and require intervention (Bass & Riggio, 2006). In such situations, the manager will issue a correction through reprimand to the individual/s responsible for the particular mishap. This influence tactic is rather reflexive and thus termed management by exception – *passive*. Alternatively, management by exception – *active* is a management style in which the supervisor will actively investigate procedural areas in which errors can occur. Once identified, methods are devised to *actively* monitor for, and correct, errors (Northouse, 2010).

Contingent reward. Contrasting, but in the same domain as management by exception is contingent reward (Bass, 1985; Bass & Riggio, 2006). Under this scheme, managers use reward systems, hopefully ones that are properly structured and communicated (see Kerr, 1995), to maintain the output of desirable organizational behaviors and attitudes by subordinates (Northouse, 2010). Put in psychological terms from the learning literature, management by exception – active (and passive to a lesser extent) is a punishment-based system while contingent reward is a reinforcement-based system.

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[5] Again, here I have taken the liberty of replacing the term leadership with management to provide consistency with the *Management vs. Leadership* discussion.

Transformational leadership. Again, the concept of *transforming leadership* was first introduced by Burns (1978), specifically in a political-historical context. As expanded upon by Bass (1985), this type of leadership emphasizes intrinsic motivation and follower development, which has made it one of the most prominent theories over the past quarter century (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Indeed, Judge and his colleagues have noted that since the delineation of transformational leadership (circa 1990) there have been more articles published with the *keywords* "transformational leadership" or "charismatic leadership" than all other popular theories, combined (Judge & Bono, 2000; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Although transformational leadership is but one dimension of the Full Range Leadership Model, Bass, Avolio, and their colleagues have argued that four distinct factors exist (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass, 1985; Bass & Riggio, 2006), each of which is briefly described in turn.

Idealized influence. Transformational leaders are often seen as a role model by followers and are thus admired (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Because of the transformational leader's propensity for ethical behavior, followers deeply respect and place trust in them (Northouse, 2010). Stemming from this respect and trust, leaders high in idealized influence act more consistently with the vision they set forth, even when doing so requires taking risks. Ultimately, this component of transformational leadership is comprised of two separable aspects: behaviors and attributions (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Does the leader act consistently within the proper ethical boundaries (behavior)? Do followers describe the leader using higher-level descriptions, such as persistent, truthful, or determined (attribution)? The point here is that transformational leaders can influence followers in an *idealized* (or charismatic) way through (a) their behaviors, (b) the way they are perceived, or (c) an interaction of behaviors and follower perceived attributions.

Inspirational motivation**.** In the process of influencing followers, the transformational leader provides clear goals with which followers are able to identify (Northouse, 2010). A clear vision is presented, which helps provide a connection between the followers and the organizational purpose and inspires followers to act in ways that propel them toward the desired end state (Bass, 1985; Bass & Riggio, 2006). Although the purpose is clear, the degree to which it challenges followers is also important. As describe previously, the process of self-expansion can be a strong motivator (Aron & Aron, 2009; Aron et al., 2001). Thus, when the path to attaining the clearly presented organizational vision is challenging and an opportunity for growth, it is seen as motivating. Ultimately, when a clear vision is presented in alliance with high expectations for performance, followers tend to exert more time and effort in the tasks (Locke & Latham, 2002). Further, encouragement and optimism by the leader about the visionary state increase followers' belief in their abilities and excitement about expanding their current skill set (Gray et al., 2015).

Intellectual stimulation**.** A core difference mentioned above during the discussion about the distinction between a leader and a manager is the time orientation (Thoms, 2004) – focus on the here and now (manager) or the future through growth (leader). It is in this factor of transformational leadership that this essential difference is manifested. The transformational leader challenges the follower to grow (Bass & Riggio, 2006). They challenge followers' VABEs, encourage calculated risk taking, and intentionally solicit followers' perspectives and ideas (Clawson, 2002; Schein, 2004). In this process, leaders develop individuals' ability to think independently, and encourage creativity (Northouse, 2010). Learning is viewed as an important skill in and of itself, thus unexpected situations are seen as opportunities for growth (Gray et al., 2015). In this regard, the leader is extremely active in the process by creating opportunity and providing feedback.

Individualized consideration. In a similar vein as intellectual stimulation, transformational leaders consider each individual follower as unique and possessing a distinct skill set. In this regard, each follower's needs are distinct. Thus, leaders customize their mentorship to the unique aspects of each follower (Bass, 1985; Bass & Riggio, 2006). Over time, development occurs through a series of challenging tasks that provide opportunities for growth. And during that process, the leader provides the necessary support through quality interactions (H. Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005). Binding this component to the previous ones, and as a transformational process in general, leaders celebrate and respect successful follower growth and acknowledge their individual contribution to the attainment of the organizational vision (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

A major theoretical element not captured by the full range leadership model is the quality of the leader-follower relationship. However, this element of the leader-follower dynamic has been studied, which has produced a separate, but related theory – Leader-Member Exchange (LMX; G. Wang, Oh, Courtright, & Colbert, 2011). While it is a distinct line of inquiry, the LMX process is particularly relevant to transformational leadership, and chiefly the individualized consideration and idealized influence factors therein (Deluga, 1992). Given this, LMX theory will now be discussed.

LMX Theory

First dubbed *Vertical Dyad Linkage*, LMX theory proposes that leaders have a different relationship with each of their followers (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Thus, the quality of the relationship serves an important function in the leader's ability to influence followers, and the tactics they use to do so (Harris, Wheeler, & Kacmar, 2009). Specifically, followers who experience higher quality LMX will be privy to greater information, more communication, and direct influence (Dansereau et al., 1975). Indeed, as Deluga (1992) noted, "transformational leaders may foster the formation of high-quality relationships and a sense of a common fate with individual subordinates; while in a social-exchange process, subordinates strengthen and encourage the leader" (pp. 243-245). This observation draws a direct link between LMX and the transformational leadership process described in the Full Range Leadership Model. Therefore, the next few paragraphs outline the impact of transformational leadership on organizational behaviors and attitudes, with consideration of LMX quality.

Transformational Leadership, LMX Quality, and Organizational Behaviors and Attitudes

The enormity of the literature on transformational leadership provides evidence of its perceived importance, for scholars and practitioners alike. Indeed, meta-analyses (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; G. Wang et al., 2011) have provided strong evidence of transformational leadership's validity. In particular, the recent review by G. Wang and colleagues (2011) found that transformational leadership was positively related to performance across three individual level criterion (task, contextual, and creative) as well as team- and organizational-level performance. Beyond these correlational findings, the use of transformational leadership over transactional techniques was found to increase trust in, and value congruence with, the leader, which were then predictive of organizational behaviors (quality and quantity of outputs) and attitudes (job satisfaction; Jung & Avolio, 2000). Much like the effect of intrinsic motivation on quality and quantity of performance (Cerasoli et al., 2014), transformational leadership had a negative relation with quantity, but a positive relation with quality of performance (Jung & Avolio, 2000). Investigating the factors of transformational leadership in a field experiment, Barling, Weber, and Kelloway (1996) found that managers who were instructed to focus on increasing intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and charisma toward their followers produced significant increases to organizational commitment and financial performance over a 5 month period.

More interesting than the simple effects of transformational leadership on organizational behaviors and attitudes, are the factors through which these results occur (mediating variables) or elements that attenuate (moderate) the relationship. As noted earlier, the quality of the leader-member relationship (LMX dynamic) is a central consideration. Indeed, it has been reliably found that LMX quality mediates the relation between transformational leadership and the resulting organizational behaviors and attitudes of followers (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2012; H. Wang et al., 2005). However, transformational leadership is still predictive of performance outcomes after controlling for LMX quality (Krishnan, 2005). Therefore, each of these two leadership processes uniquely contributes to the influencing of followers' organizational behaviors and attitudes.

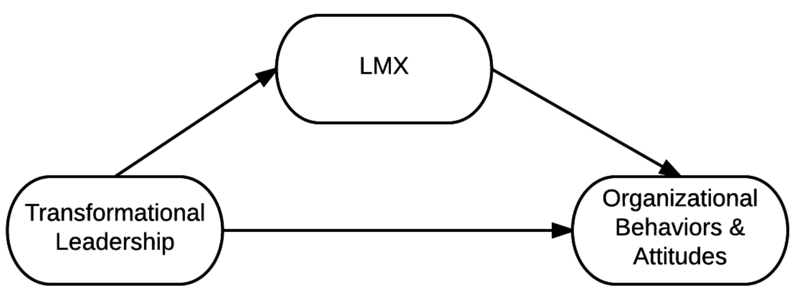

Figure 1. Basic theoretical model of transformational leadership predicting organizational behaviors and attitudes partially mediated through LMX. LMX = Leader-Member Exchange.

Creating a basic theoretical model – transformational leadership predicting organizational behaviors and attitudes and partially mediated by LMX (see Figure 1) – from these findings allows existing research to be more easily understood. For instance, it has been found that followers' trust (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990) and organizational citizenship behaviors and communication quality (Boerner, Eisenbeiss, & Griesser, 2007) mediated the relation between transformational leadership and follower performance. Because these factors are related to, or a function of, LMX quality (Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007), such findings fit nicely with the model of LMX partially mediating the transformational leadership–follower performance link.

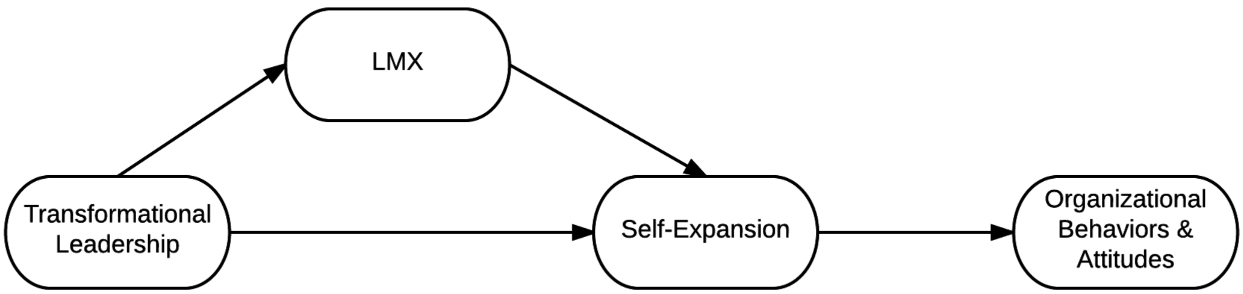

Figure 2. Theoretical path model of transformational leadership predicting follower self-expansion partially mediated through LMX, which is then predictive of organizational behaviors and attitudes. LMX = Leader-Member Exchange.

In a similar vein, follower empowerment has been found to partially mediate the relation between LMX quality and organizational behaviors (task performance and withdraw) and attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction; Aryee & Chen, 2006; Harris et al., 2009). Thus, the feeling of task efficacy along with autonomy provided by transformational leadership processes is important to influencing outcomes. This makes salient the importance of motivation, particularly through the SDT lens and innate psychological needs. To this point, self-expansion has been linked to transformational leadership, LMX, job satisfaction, affective commitment, and turnover intentions (Gray et al., 2015). Thus, it might be the case that self-expansion serves as a key *node* in a path model for organizational behaviors and outcomes (see Figure 2).

Toward an Understanding of Leader-Follower Relations

Up to this point, a key mechanism by which leaders are theorized to provide individualized consideration, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, idealized influence, as well as develop high-quality LMX relationships has been neglected – the accuracy with which leaders perceive followers. Hinting at the need to *truly* understand followers, Burns (1978, p. 4; emphasis added) noted, "the transforming leader *recognizes* and *exploits* an existing need or demand of a potential follower." Because leadership is a stage-like developmental process – from strangers to acquaintances, and finally relational partners (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991) – there is a fundamental dependence upon person perception and perspective-taking processes. That is, ones initial judgments of another serve as the basis on which further interactions will be structured (Asch, 1946; Back & Nestler, 2016), while the use of prospective-taking can reduce the amount of stereotyping in use (C. S. Wang, Ku, Tai, & Galinsky, 2014), particularly during the judgment process. Thus, based on the premise that VABEs are the most effective and long lasting means by which leaders influence followers to perform desired organizational behaviors or hold desirable attitudes (Clawson, 2002), it is imperative that judgments are *accurate.*

Interpersonal Relations

"The way you see people is the way you treat them, and the way you treat them is what they become."

~ Johann Wolfgang von Goethe

As discussed in the context of transformational leadership and LMX, interpersonal relations are key to eliciting desired organizational behaviors and attitudes from followers. Interestingly, two self-motives – self-enhancement and self-verification – are important to the interpersonal process. Leary (2007) notes that individuals are motivated to "maintain or increase the positivity (or decrease the negativity) of one's self-concept" (p. 319), but are also driven to self-verify by soliciting "information that is consistent with their existing views of themselves" (p. 324). These two seem to be in line with one another; however, issues can arise when one views his or her self less positively that others do. This holds particularly true in an organizational context, where leaders perceptions of the follower are more positive than his or her self-view. Such a situation could cause suboptimal performance to manifest – possibly due to the follower's inadequate self-efficacy. Nonetheless, when there is a balance between leaders perceptions of the follower and the follower's self-view, job performance, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction are better predicted (Cogliser, Schriesheim, Scandura, & Gardner, 2009). Such a finding suggests that accuracy in perceiving followers' self-concept may aid in resolving the disparate views, and even provide the necessary foundation for initiating change in followers' self-views to better align with the organizational vision, mission, and goals.

Indeed, it has been suggested that leaders can produce enduring changes in followers' working self-concept (Lord, Brown, & Freiberg, 1999). Building upon this notion, two components of transformational leadership – individualized consideration and inspirational motivation – are likely to be especially influential. Assuming fairly accurate perceptions of a follower's personality traits, motivations, and VABEs, the process of perspective-taking will help the leader gain insight into his or her self-concept. Then, with such information, the leaders can customize a plan of action to ensure the follower's understanding and acceptance of the organizational vision thus inspiring growth (e.g., self-expansion) through the manifestation of behaviors and attitudes imperative to the attainment of organizational goals. Ultimately, it should be the case that such a progression will promote congruence between the follower's self-concept with the way in which the leader sees him or her (Bono & Judge, 2003). Binding this argument together with the prior discussion of the three levels of influence, the focus herein will be on (1) how one goes about making judgments of others, (2) why perspective-taking is a fruitful tactic to increasing ones understanding of followers' VABEs, and (3) how a leader's accurate understanding of the *whole* follower will enhance his or her effectiveness.

Model of the Judgment Process

The process of making judgments of others is more intensive than the lay person may believe, and much research has been undertaken to illuminate the process by which it occurs (Back & Nestler, 2016). The Realistic Accuracy Model (RAM; Funder, 1995, 1999, 2012) was developed to explicate the process through which accurate judgments come to be made. Specifically, the RAM outlines four steps to attaining accuracy in the perceptual process – relevance, availability, detection, and utilization – which are related multiplicatively. Specifically, if one or more of these steps is not successfully traversed, the expected level of accuracy is nil (Funder, 1995, p. 659).

To exemplify this point, let's conceptually work through this process. First and foremost, relevant information must exist – be it behavior, attitudes, etc. If the information that exists is not relevant to the phenomena of interest, it does not inform impressions meaningfully. Second, relevant information must be available for perception by a judge. Without information being available, valid cues on which impressions can be based are absent. These two stages, relevance and availability, are attributed to the target of the impending judgments. Completion of these stages will allow the judge-centered steps to occur – detection, and subsequent utilization, of relevant and available information. To this point, if relevant information is available and the judge does not attend to it, accurate impressions, again, will not be had. Finally, even if the first three steps have, at least partially, been completed, the judge must still properly utilize that relevant information that was detected. While this seems simple enough, if one is unable to utilize, or improperly applies, that information in his or her judgments, accuracy will not be achieved (Funder, 1999).

Expanding upon the RAM framework, there are several factors that can attenuate the level of accuracy achieved. Specifically, there are four primary moderators which "makes accuracy more or less likely" by interacting with one or more stages of the RAM – good target, good judge, good information, and good trait (Funder, 1995, p. 660). Particularly important to this paper, however, is the good judge moderator. This moderator posits there to be individual differences in the ability to, on average, make accurate judgments (Funder, 1995, 1999). Indeed, a variety of personality, behavioral, and situational factors are related to making accurate personality judgments (Bernstein & Davis, 1982; Christiansen, Wolcott-Burnam, Janovics, Burns, & Quirk, 2005; Letzring, 2008; Taft, 1955). Of central importance is the relation between ones perspective-taking propensity and judgmental accuracy (Bernstein & Davis, 1982), and how perceptions, accurate or not, are utilized within the leadership process (Lord & Maher, 1993). As such, perspective-taking is reviewed in the context of improving judgmental accuracy. Ultimately, a discussion of the theoretical linkage between followers' organizational behaviors and attitudes and the leaders ability to form accurate impressions is provided.

Perspective-Taking: Grasping Another's Point-of-View

Perspective-taking is a process by which one temporarily takes a point-of-view other than his or her own in an effort to gain insight (Galinsky, Maddux, Gilin, & White, 2008). This process can occur physically by changing ones position to gain another viewpoint or cognitively by imagining the conditions that another entity is experiencing. Regardless of the form of gaining perspective, many benefits are gained from the process. For example, it has been found that the process of perspective-taking reduces stereotype use (C. S. Wang, Ku, et al., 2014), provides an advantage during negotiation (Galinsky et al., 2008), and facilitates interactions among in-group and out-group members (Galinsky & Moskowitz, 2000; C. S. Wang, Tai, Ku, & Galinsky, 2014). Furthermore, when in a position, or simply holding a feeling, of power, perspective-taking can increase the fairness of decisions through the solicitation and use of others views, and such inclusion of alternative points-of-view also promotes decision accuracy (Galinsky, Magee, Rus, Rothman, & Todd, 2014).

Bringing the discussion back to the leader-follower relationship, perspective-taking has several avenues to be impactful. For instance, recall that stereotypes are purported to help leaders attain their position (Thoms, 2004). Also note that perspective-taking has been experimentally found to reduce the use of both positive and negative stereotypes (C. S. Wang, Ku, et al., 2014), which points to this process being related to the accuracy of judgments (Bernstein & Davis, 1982). Specifically, the process of envisioning another's point-of-view should provide perspective to his or her actions. Thus, a leader applying this process to a follower's behavior should provide a contextualized glimpse of the VABEs that individual holds. In so doing, the leader would then be better prepared to provide individualized consideration, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, idealized influence, as well as develop a high-quality LMX relationship, which as mentioned previously, are related to follower organizational behaviors and attitudes.

Linking Leader Perceptual Ability and Organizational Behaviors and Attitudes

"The transforming leader looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower"

~ *James MacGregor Burns* (1978, p. 4)

Let us examine the above quote by Burns (1978) with special attention to the judgmental accuracy process. First, *"looks for potential motives"* emphasizes the idea that leaders actively attempt to detect cues that inform them about the motives behind followers' organizational behaviors and attitudes. Second, *"seeks to satisfy higher needs"* reasons that the transformational leader, once s/he has constructed a judgment of the follower's motives, will attempt to utilize those perceived motives to induce desirable organizational behaviors and attitudes. As should be understood from this example, the perceptual ability of the leader is of theoretical importance to his or her ability to influence followers (Lord & Maher, 1993; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). However, to the best of my knowledge, this proposition has not been empirically tested. Rather, it has been treated as an underlying, overlooked assumption of the leadership process. For instance, LMX theory proposes that the quality of relationships created and maintained with followers is critical to a leader's influence (Dulebohn et al., 2012; H. Wang et al., 2005). However, the development of those relationships is fundamentally dependent upon ones ability to accurately perceive the other (Asch, 1946; Back & Nestler, 2016). Therefore, without an *accurate* understanding of each individual follower, a leader's ability to provide individualized consideration, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and idealized influence is deeply compromised. For these simple yet impactful reasons, the tenability of this assumption should be tested empirically.

Following this line of inquiry, I refer to the last pages of Thoms' (2004, p. 144) book, where the declaration is made that "leaders must learn to recognize the [personality and individual differences] among people and adjust their own behavior." This recommendation comes after the assertion that leaders rise into their position due in part to processing efficiency, which may suggest overgeneralization or stereotyping when interacting with followers. While this position is strong, it is not lost on deaf ears and is captured within the purview of this paper. Broadly speaking, I posit that the accuracy with which leaders are able to judge the VABEs of followers is an important moderator of LMX and transformational leadership. Providing support for this proposition, Galinsky, Ku, and Wang (2005) recommended perspective-taking as a tactic to form and strengthen social bonds. This makes intuitive sense, as being seen accurately improves feelings of connectedness and, therefore, allows for stronger social relationships (Human, Sandstrom, Biesanz, & Dunn, 2013). By virtue of increased LMX quality, the transforming leader can provide intellectual stimulation and individualize consideration to assign tasks (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Northouse, 2010) that are considered self-expanding (Aron & Aron, 2009; Aron et al., 2001), intrinsically motivating, and/or extrinsically motivating (Ryan & Deci, 2000) by the follower, which will then facilitate greater performance (Gray et al., 2015). Figure 3 depicts an integrative path model of such processes.

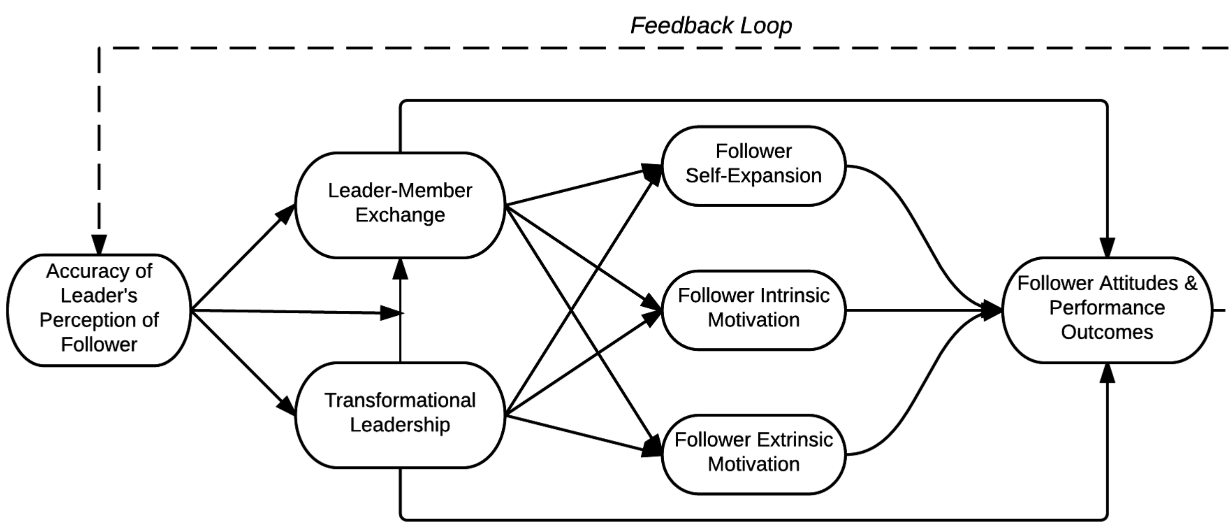

Figure 3. An integrative model conceptualized from the discussion and arguments presented in this paper. Paths represent those links found within the existing literature, as well as those of empirical and theoretical interest.

An Integrative Perspective

Culminating from this review is an integrative perspective of the linkages between follower personality, supervisor leadership style, and interpersonal processes that allow for the effective influence of organizational behaviors and attitudes. When a leader attempts to understand the *whole* follower, and does so with accuracy, the opportunities for influence are expanded. Specifically, through an understanding of followers' higher-order traits and motivational mechanisms, the leader can design work tasks, alter the operating environment, and determine appropriate levels of autonomy to increase performance (e.g., quality) and relevant attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction). Additionally, with an understanding of the VABEs operating at L3, transformational leadership will be more effective. Leaders will be primed to provide the necessary intellectual stimulation (providing challenging, but not threatening tasks), individual consideration, idealized influence, and inspirational motivation. Much of this will be accomplished through the reframing of the organizational mission, vision, and goals (Bass, 1985; Bass & Riggio, 2006) to match, or at least be compatible, with followers semi-conscious VABEs at L3 and conscious thoughts and attitudes at L2 (Clawson, 2002). Optimally, once the organizational mission, vision, and goals are embraced, followers' action at L1 should be the desirable organizational behaviors (Clawson, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2008; Schein, 2004).

Empirical Considerations and Conclusion

Individually, each of the areas presented and integrated within this paper – organizational behaviors and attitudes, personality, leadership, and interpersonal relations – have a vast research literature. However, the integration of these topics presented herein is a novel theoretical approach that is incremental in nature. While each pairing among these areas has been subject to some level of theoretical and/or empirical investigation, to my knowledge, research that incorporates all of these is absent. To this point, the integrative model presented above leaves many research propositions ripe for empirical exploration.

Beyond the utility of this integrated model as an avenue for increasing scholarly understanding of the leadership process, it should also have applied implications for practitioners. Specifically, if leader perceptual accuracy is empirically shown to reliably increase follower motivations and thus quality of performance outcomes, such an ability can be pursued as a personnel selection/promotion criterion. In a similar vein, motivating leaders to become more accurate in their perceptions of followers seems like a viable topic (Biesanz & Human, 2010). However, one might assert that such training or motivation must be on going. To this criticism, I would argue that the initial boost in accuracy should induce desired follower outputs. From that behavior, the leader will adjust their impression to be more accurate, at which time the cycle would start over again (see the *feedback loop* in Figure 3).

Ultimately, because a firm's workforce carries out the essential actions by acting as the mind (leadership), body (followership), and soul (collective purpose) of the organization, it is essential to understand how individual differences (e.g., motivation, Big Five traits), the style of leadership, and the ability to accurately assess others attenuate key organizational behaviors and attitudes. Overall, successful leadership is a highly dynamic and relational process that demands consideration of all of these variables, and, more importantly, the interactions among them. Thus, as argued herein, the ability to make, and properly utilize, judgments of others is critical to the ability to meaningfully influence organizational behaviors and attitudes that coincide with the mission, vision, and performance goals of the firm.

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