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Cultural context's influence on the relationships between leadership personality and subordinate perceptions

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CULTURAL CONTEXT'S INFLUENCE ON THE RELATIONSHIPS

BETWEEN LEADERSHIP PERSONALITY AND

SUBORDINATE PERCEPTIONS

by

Victoria J. Smoak, B.S., M.A.

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
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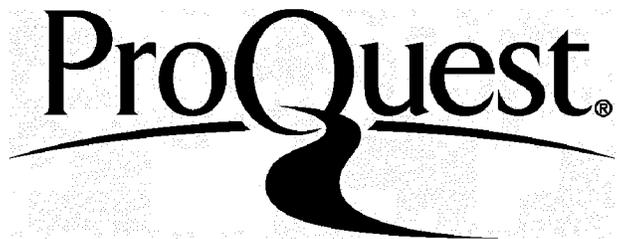
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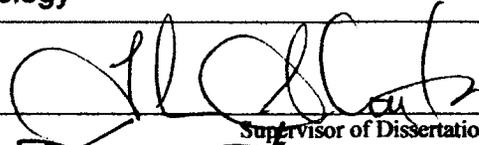
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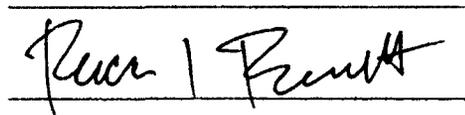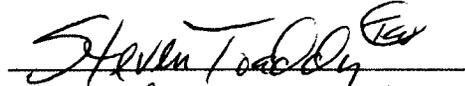
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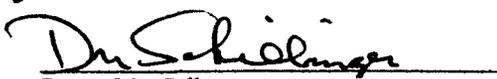
ABSTRACT

Fascination with leadership and the pursuit of its understanding have been common across disciplines throughout history (Bass & Stogdill, 1990). Studying leadership in an organization provides value in understanding its relation to outcomes such as employee attitudes (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996), individual performance (Tierney, Farmer, & Graen, 1999) and organizational performance (Day & Lord, 1988; Sully de Luque, Washburn, Waldman, & House, 2008). Leadership is suggested to be the underlying human factor key to organizational effectiveness (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005). In spite of the vast body of literature, much remains to be understood, especially understanding context (McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002). Particularly, research is needed to understand leadership in cross-cultural contexts (Leung & Peterson, 2011).

For years researchers have attempted to predict leadership success and more recently have become concerned with factors that predict leadership failure, which in some cases can be associated with higher costs (McCall & Lombardo, 1983). Personality characteristics, or specifically dark side personality traits, have been a primary focus of studying leadership derailment. Research in this topic has been primarily U.S. centric and research suggests that we do not fully understand the influence of cultural context (Bass, Burger, Dokotor, & Barrett, 1979; Griffeth, Hom, DeNisi & Kirchner, 1980).

In order to bridge the research gap, the current study was an effort to shed light on non-linear relationships between dark side personality dimensions (Bold, Cautious, and

Diligent) and performance, moderated by cultural context. The organizational data included individuals from a Fortune 50, multi-national, consumer packaged goods organization, representing all major geographic regions, various business functions and levels in the organization

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my grandfather, "Papa", who embodied true servant leadership. His investments were in people and his legacy lives on through the innumerable lives he influenced. I aspire to be a leader who leaves such a legacy. Papa's support for my education was strong and unwavering. Even though he will not be here to see me receive my doctoral degree, I feel his support and his influence in my life, strong as ever.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

After being a student for the last 23 years of my life, I have a lot of people who deserve acknowledgment. With each phase of the journey, I have encountered new challenges; but what is development without challenge? This educational journey has taught me is to embrace challenge; my greatest achievements were once my greatest challenges. With the completion of this dissertation and my doctoral degree, I give credit to the many individuals who have been on this journey with me. I am blessed by the many people who support me and a faith that guides and sustains me.

Five years ago I went to Ruston to interview for the Louisiana Tech's doctoral program, at which time I met Dr. Tilman Sheets. On interview day, the faculty and doctoral students literally left me in the Dawg House. Fortunately, I found my way back to Woodard Hall and successfully completed interview day. I felt Dr. Sheets' confidence in me from day one; his confidence carried me through the difficult days. He has served as dissertation committee chairperson; more importantly, he has been the mentor and advocate I desperately needed. I knew his harshest criticism always came from a good place and I have fared well by embracing his critiques. In the classroom he taught me theory, but outside of the classroom he helped me learn about myself. I have been told that I am overly optimistic, but he still encouraged me to have big dreams and set goals that give me room to grow. Now that this little research project is complete, I look

forward to setting new goals and continuing to work together on other projects together for years to come.

My committee has been exceptional. Each of their unique perspectives have added to the rich culmination of thought that has become my dissertation. Dr. Steven Toaddy has given timely feedback, provided intelligent criticism and always maintained spirited encouragement, all of which were essential to my progress. Dr. Rebecca Bennett has been challenging and refining my idea development for years, beginning with the term paper I wrote for her Organizational Behavior course in the old business building that no longer exists. Dr. Michael Tuller has served as an external committee member. Beyond dissertation advising, he has been an inspiring career mentor. It was truly a privilege to begin my career in I-O Psychology as an intern under his leadership.

Already in my career, I have been fortunate to work alongside some of the most talented professionals in our field who have challenged, inspired and supported me in my educational and professional endeavors. I am especially grateful that to have forged this internship and dissertation journey with my friend Dr. Nicole Ginther. It was rather serendipitous that New York connected a Californian and this Louisianan, and oh what a fun adventure it has been!

In all the ways I have benefited from my time at Louisiana Tech, I will always be appreciative of the friendships I have found. Cole Napper taught me how to be a true Tech fan. Christopher Patton was the best running buddy; Lincoln Parish Park trail runs helped to relieve a lot of stress. I have utmost admiration and appreciation for Amy Frost who made every single day of grad school better because she was there. Brandon Smoak

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

In Bass and Stogdill's (1990) Handbook of Leadership, the first chapter begins with "Leadership is one of the world's oldest preoccupations" (p. 3), and the authors go on to explain that the quest to understand the principles of leadership is evident across disciplines since the Greeks and Romans. Bass (1990) explained that the concept of leadership and *pecking order* are universal phenomena in both humans and the animal kingdom. Leadership is universal; in an anthropological review of global societies, including primitive groups, Lewis (1974) concluded that there is no known society that does not have leadership in some aspect of their social life. Organizational leadership literature has provided research supporting the relationships between leadership and various criteria, such as employee attitudes (Podsakoff, et al., 1996), individual performance (Tierney, et al., 1999) and organizational performance (Day & Lord, 1988; Sully de Luque, et al., 2008).

In terms of an exact definition, researchers may not come to agreement, but Yukl (2006) claimed the majority agree that leadership is a phenomenon of great importance and will continue to be a subject of interest. The study of leadership and application of findings has been suggested to be the single most important issue in human sciences and the key to organizational effectiveness (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005). The subject has been described as "fascinating and controversial... about which much is known and much

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remains to be learned" (Hoption, Christie, & Barling, 2012, p.183), and to that end, there are numerous journals solely dedicated to the topic (e.g. *The Leadership Quarterly, Leadership,* and *Theory and Research on Leadership in Organizations).*

In a rapidly changing, challenging world of business, people look to leadership. Albeit, specifically *what* one is looking for may vary based on each individual's ideas of what a leader should be. Whether or not those expectations are met, has the potential to influence the leader's acceptance, and in turn, influence the leader's power to influence and lead. Effective leadership has great worth and failed leadership has great cost. As we move into an increasingly global world of business, the understanding of cross-cultural context becomes a critical concern. Though leadership researchers have provided a large body of knowledge of various leadership topics, there remains a clear opportunity for new contributions to be made to further the understanding of leadership in a multinational context (Leung & Peterson, 2011).

Defining Leadership

The term *leadership* has garnered many definitions that vary in their specificity of who is influencing whom, for what purpose, the manner of influence, and the particular outcome (Yukl, 2006). Some specify that leadership involves influencing activities to lead to a shared goal (Hemphill & Coons, 1957), while others have defined leadership as influence that goes above and beyond mere compliance with directives (Katz & Kahn, 1978). In the Handbook of Leadership, Bass (1990) simplified the definition and distinguished leaders from non-leaders saying that leaders are the change agents that *influence others* more than they are *influenced by others.* Influence, as Burns (1978) asserted, can occur by means of political, psychological, or other resources; and it is by

these powers of influence that leaders have the ability to engage or satisfy motives of their followers. Smircich and Morgan (1982) introduced the idea of *sense making*, which is the process of framing and providing meaning to the current reality of the group, which they proposed is the sole role and responsibility of the leader. Schein (1992) takes sense making a step further by introducing the concept of evolutionary change leadership, which requires the ability to step outside of the current organizational culture. Whether or not the sense making is consistent with the organizational status quo, Drath and Palus (1994) suggested that leadership's underlying theme is bringing people together in commitment around a common understanding.

As Yukl and Tracey (1992) explained, leaders are assumed to influence subordinates' task and social behaviors. The various definitions of leadership are not merely semantics, or as Yukl (2006) says, "scholarly nit-picking" (p. 3); rather, these differences represent conceptual differences which elude to underlying differences in their perspective and approach in their attempt to answer specific research questions. The progression of historical leadership research can be explained in distinct phases: leadership as a *person*, including personality, competency and ability, leadership as a *process* of influence or position of power, and leadership as *action, or* the defining behaviors that are associated with leadership effectiveness. The next phase of research (Conger, 1999; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Lord & Maher, 1991) attempted to integrate the facets of leadership theory to explain leadership effectiveness and organizational outcomes as a product of the *interaction* between the person and various aspects of the situation. In addition to understanding the components that contribute to positive organizational outcomes, there has been growing interest in understanding leadership

failure (Bentz, 1967, 1985, 1990; Hogan, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2010; Hogan & Kaiser, 2005; Lombardo, Ruderman, & McCauley, 1988), and understanding how multi-faceted models function across multi-national contexts (Leung & Peterson, 2011). In order to understand an interaction, in terms of a multi-faceted model, one must first understand each component independently.

Person Aspect of Leadership

Though some argue that leaders must be managers, but managers are not necessarily leaders (Zaleznik, 1992), leadership research is generally inclusive of managers who are in a position over subordinates in an organizational setting. Most leadership research to date has been conducted with middle-level managers (Zaccaro, 2001), thus the interchangeable use of the words *managers* and *leaders*. In the early days of leadership research (i.e., 1930s and 1940s), there were claims that tireless energy and irresistible powers of persuasion, among other extraordinary abilities, were attributes of managerial success (Yukl, 2006). The following 70 years would result in a myriad of beliefs and opinions regarding the personality, temperament, motives, and values that make a leader. Early leader research was largely based on children and adolescents in a school setting; leadership ability was associated with trivial attributes such as physical attractiveness (Flemming, 1935), and having a sense of humor (Tryon, 1939). Stogdill's (1948) review of 124 trait studies from 1904 to 1948 found that relevant traits for leadership included intelligence, understanding the task and understanding the needs of others, initiative and persistence, self-confidence and the desire to accept responsibility and occupy a position of dominance or control.

A notable research group, the Center for Creative Leadership, sought to understand the differences between leaders who become effective and those who do not (McCall & Lombardo, 1983). In their initial survey research, McCall and Lombardo asked executives and human resource managers to describe qualities and characteristics of individuals who had advanced to middle and upper level management. There were two sets of these leader profiles: those who continued to lead successfully and those who advanced in leadership but consequently failed to perform successfully in their role, leading to a career plateau, dismissal or early retirement. They analyzed similarities and differences between the profiles of successful versus failed leaders. Their findings generally supported the effectiveness of the following traits: emotional stability, defensiveness, integrity, interpersonal skills and technical/cognitive skills.

Leadership trait researchers have used various methods and dimensions to explain the distal characteristics that leaders embody, such as energy level and self-confidence; both of which have been found to be positively related to leader effectiveness and leadership advancement (Bass, 1990). For example, internal locus of control was shown to be specifically related to supervisor problem solving, learning from setbacks and positive use of persuasion tactics (Goodstadt & Hjelle, 1973). Additionally, Bass (1990) found that leaders who were more emotionally stable were able to develop and maintain cooperative and mutually beneficial relationships with their subordinates, peers and supervisors. Furthermore, McCauley, Lombardo, and Usher (1989) found that healthy self-awareness and a desire for self-improvement were related to higher advancement.

Although empirical findings were significant, with leader trait-leader effectiveness correlations as high as .50, House and Aditya (1997) pointed out that these

early trait research findings were not successfully replicated and few generalizations could be made. House and Aditya (1997) suggested that problems with trait theory research were due in part to the test-measurement theory which was not well-developed at that time. A review by Bono and Judge (2004) concludes that while traits may be more linked to leadership emergence, relationships with transformational and transactional leadership behaviors is weak. . However, House and Aditya (1997) claimed that later measurement improvements to personality trait research (specifically the introduction of the five factor model) in addition to explanatory processes, has increased the viability of the trait approach to understanding leadership.

Conscientiousness is generally accepted as a trait that is positively related to job performance, across job types (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick, et al., 2001). However, the influence of Conscientiousness is more meaningful when considered concurrently with other individual differences, such as motivation (Barrick, Stewart, & Piotrowski, 2002), goal setting (Barrick, Mount, & Strauss, 1993), and other narrow traits (Dudley, Orvis, & Lebiecki, 2006). The context also changes the significance of a trait, for example, Extraversion tends to be of more importance in sales and leadership positions and can be further understood through other context variables, such as reward structure (Stewart, 1996). Agreeableness, though a socially desirable trait, has been shown as associated with less career success in terms of pay and promotion (Ng et al., 2005). Barrick and Mount's (1991) meta-analysis found mixed results for Openness to experience, depending on the job or specific type of task. Their results also found that Emotional Stability, or Neuroticism, was associated with performance across

occupations, especially when measured by subordinate ratings or non-traditional performance measures (Barrick, et al., 2001).

Regardless of one's personality strengths, or "bright side" as some would call it (Hogan & Curphy, 1994; Hogan, Raskin, & Fazzini, 1990; Judge, Piccolo & Kosalka, 2009), individual and team success is largely dependent on one's ability to effectively manage emotions (Judge & LePine, 2007). Leadership performance is greater than an individual's personal work output, but also their output through influencing others. In their meta-analytic exploration of this idea, Hurtz and Donovan (2000) compared the relationships between personality traits and personal job performance versus contextual performance. Traits that predict individual contributor performance, may not necessarily predict leadership performance. As Judge and LePine (2007) discussed, given a specific set of certain circumstances, an individual's socially desirable trait can potentially have negative implications for individual and team criteria.

In addition to personality traits, there are individual differences in competencies and abilities that set leaders apart. Interpersonal competence, according to Bass (1990), refers to the ability to socialize, fit in, avoid conflict, and to be polite and well-mannered. A leader who possesses interpersonal competence would be seen as more caring and understanding, showing authenticity, clearly communicating and building strong relationships with others. In comparison, leaders without interpersonal competence would be hard to deal with, dictatorial, overly political and unable to delegate (Kaplan, 1986). Among non-cognitive abilities, one area of recent research has been Emotional Intelligence. As Mayer and Salovey (1997) explain, this refers to an ability to process and

react to emotional information, similar to the cognitive processing relevant to mental ability.

Early researchers had difficulty in methodologically discriminating between these different types of competencies: social intelligence and cognitive intelligence (Thorndike & Stein, 1937). More recently, Riggio and colleagues developed a theoretical model of emotional and social skills, which included three components: expressiveness, sensitivity, and control (Riggio, 1986; Riggio & Carney, 2003; Riggio & Reichard, 2008). In their model, Riggio and Reichard assumed that expressivity is positively related to perceptions of leader's charisma and effectiveness, emotional expressiveness is related to positive emotional climate in followers, emotional sensitivity is positively associated with high-quality leader-member relationships and better assessment of negative moods among followers, leader emotional control is positively associated with leader impression management and effective leadership under stress, social sensitivity is related to leader career progression, and overall leadership success and social control is related to leader self-efficacy and the ability to enact the leadership role.

The Emotional Intelligence frontier, forged by Mayer and Salovey (1993), has since been led by Daniel Goleman and his colleagues (1998, 2006). Emotional Intelligence has been empirically supported as relevant to transformational leader behaviors such as idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration and contingent reward (Barling, Slater, & Kelloway, 2000; Palmer, Walls, Burgess, & Stough, 2001). Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2013) have popularized the concept and application of Emotional Intelligence (also referred to as EQ) in the workplace.

Goleman and colleagues (2013) explained a concept of "primal leadership" being at the center of the role and responsibility of a leader. Primal leadership is explained as the leader's responsibility to prime good feelings, or to bring out the best in the people they lead. This would include outcomes such as arousing passion, enthusiasm, motivation or commitment. Compared to earlier research and models of social and emotional skills in leadership, this is more advanced in that it links to research in neurology and the brain research behind emotions and influence (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2013). Goleman (1998) argued that Emotional Intelligence is a necessary requirement for effective leadership. Although researchers (Barling, Slater, & Kelloway, 2000; Gardner & Stough, 2002) found support for positive relationships between leader Emotional Intelligence and their behaviors or ratings by subordinates, some researchers (Murphy, 2006; Landy, 2006; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2008) have questioned the soundness of the concept, its measurement and practical use for selection or training purposes. Proponents of the Emotional Intelligence work, Antonakis, Ashkanasy and Dasborough (2009) argue for its validity and address measurement concerns of critics. As the construct definition and measurement has been refined, the literature shows that the concept has grown in its application, reflected by the growing number of publications using the construct. The seminal article (Salovey & Mayer, 1989) has been cited nearly 7,000 times, according to a recent Google Scholar search.

Taking a more expanded and comprehensive view, Ashkanasy and Jordan (2008) presented a five-level model of emotions and leadership in organizations: within-person, between-person, interpersonal interactions, groups, and the organization as a whole. The multi-level model of emotions in organizations, proposed by Ashkanasy (2003) outlined

the challenge or objective at each level and Ashkanasy and Jordan (2008) integrated emotion, motivation and leadership theories to explain the value of emotional intelligence at each level.

Beyond the influence of personality traits and competencies, House and Aditya (1997) suggested that leader's self-monitoring should be taken into consideration in trait research, suggesting that it may affect the degree to which individual differences predict behaviors. Additionally, researchers (Ashkanasy & Jordan, 2008) noted that one specific area of further research is in understanding cross-cultural differences that potentially exist, similar to what we know regarding differences in leader behaviors and attitudes across cultures (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman,& Gupta, 2004).

Process Aspect of Leadership

The position of leadership comes with different connotations in various contexts; the words *power* and *authority* are similarly defined and interrelated in complex ways as shown by various researchers (Yukl, 2006). Power can be explained through Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964), the process by which power can be gained or lost over time (Yukl, 2006). Dahl (1957) explained that power, by definition, is the ability for person A to get person B to do something that B would not otherwise do. Simply put, power is a useful mechanism by which one party is able to influence another party in an organization (Mintzberg, 1983). Yukl (2006) referred to these two parties as the *agent* (the one doing the influencing) and the *target* (who is being influenced by the agent).

Dahl (1957) identified five factors to consider in understanding the magnitude of one's power: the basis of their power, means of employing the basis of power, scope of the power, number of comparable respondents, and change in the probabilities. However,

power, more broadly speaking, could include responsibility or control over assets, events or other inanimate objects or processes (Yukl, 2006).

In another framework of understanding and articulating power, French and Raven's (1959) taxonomy of power outlines the different types of power based on the source of the power, and has been referred to as the most popular and widely accepted conceptualization of social power (Podsakoff & Schriesheim, 1985). *Reward power*, in French and Raven's taxonomy, refers to a situation in which the target complies in order to obtain rewards under the control of the leader (such as compensation, benefits or promotion). *Coercive power* refers to a tactic that leads to compliance in order to avoid punishments, or negative outcomes, that may result from noncompliance. *Legitimate power* involves compliance when the target believes that the leader has a justifiable right or expectation to make demands and subordinates are obligated to comply. *Expert power* is at work when the target believes that the leader has a special ability or expert knowledge that gives them authority to make decisions and demands of their followers. Regardless of actual expertise, the perception of a leader's expertise can create a perception of credibility and give a leader expert power. *Referent power* is based on relationship; the agent has power over the target because the target admires or respects the leader and wants to gain approval from the leader. Pettigrew (1972) also added *information power* to the aforementioned types of power outlined by French and Raven. He pointed out that information power involves a power that is held as a result of a leader's exclusive access to information or the distribution of information. Kotter (1982) further explained that someone with a strong network who serves as a connection point

between various information sources and can use this information to benefit their work or the work of others demonstrates information power.

Of these various sources of power, any given leader may exercise different types of power to influence different subordinates (Yukl, 2006). For example, a leader is likely to have legitimate power and reward power to influence multiple subordinates; but referent power is personal and depends on the specific subordinate-leader relationship. Yukl (2009) claimed that referent power is more commonly expected for leaders who are considered attractive, charming, friendly, and trustworthy. Leaders with referent power can influence targets without explicit intentions to do so, through role modeling, for example (Yukl, 2006). Maurer (1996) suggested that, ideally, a leader will have a combination of personal power and position power, as too much of either could be a detriment. As Kipnis (1972) found, leaders with too much reward power may use this power abusively. Despite the popularity of French and Raven's power taxonomy, and its seemingly logical ideas, this taxonomy is not without criticism. Podsakoff and Schriesheim (1985) noted serious methodological concerns regarding its measurement and questioned its validity given the mixed results of empirical studies using this taxonomy.

Similar to power, authority more specifically refers to the rights, responsibilities or duties associated with a specific position (Yukl, 2006). A leader with authority over subordinates, Barnard (1952) explained, would have the responsibility and right to make requests and expect certain behaviors from subordinates. The "range of authority" refers to the span of actions and requests seeming fitting for the given managerial role. This scope of authority varies depending on organizational need, and specific authority needed

to accomplish role requirements and objectives (Barnard, 1952). Influence can be

explained as a process or an outcome, including the resulting involvement of the target's

motives and perceptions of the target in relation to the actions of the agent (Kelman,

1958). Barnard (1952) demonstrated that effectiveness of influence can be measured by

the enforced or changed perceptions followers have of their leader, or the subordinate

behaviors that ensue. As a result of leaders using their power and acting on their

authority, Bernard described three possible resulting outcomes: commitment, compliance

or resistance.

Commitment is a reaction to leader influence that refers to an internal agreement

to the request or decision made by the leader; this being the most desirable of the three

outcomes (Barnard, 1952). A compliant response would be the case of a follower

accepting the request with agreement to follow-through, but in a more apathetic way, not

necessarily understanding or agreeing with the request or decision made by the leader

(Yukl, 2006). Lastly, resistance, according to Yukl (2006), is the result of ineffective

influence, in which case the subordinate does not accept or comply with leadership. He

asserts that this can be evident in the following ways: (a) refusal to follow-through, (b)

making excuses to why it is not possible, (c) attempt to have the leader change or

withdraw the request, (d) go above the leader to seek higher-level authority to dismiss the

request, (e) delay action in hopes that request will be dropped, or (f) give the appearance

of compliance, while working to sabotage the plan.

In addition to understanding the outcome of influence, the process by which the

outcome is achieved is equally notable. Kelman (1958) emphasized that though an

outcome may appear the same, the process by which the target arrived at that outcome

can be quite different. He differentiated these outcomes in terms of three different processes by which influence is achieved: instrumental compliance, internalization and personal identification. Influence resulting in instrumental compliance is a reflection of a transaction process between the agent and the target; the agent makes a request and the target complies in order to obtain something desirable (such as compensation or a positive performance review) or complies to avoid a negative consequence resulting from noncompliance (Kelman, 1958). Internalization, however, results when the agent influences the target to the point where they become committed to the agent's proposal and are intrinsically motivated to carry out the request, regardless of expected benefit. In this case, Kelman suggested that the target is committed to the cause, not necessarily the agent who is doing the influencing. In contrast, personal identification refers to the influence process in which the agent is influential because the target is motivated to do what he or she thinks will please the leader. The target, Kelman explained, may emulate behaviors or adopt attitudes of the leader in hopes of gaining favor, fulfilling the target's need for esteem from others. Again, this theorizing supports the notion that understanding leadership and leadership outcomes has to be a multi-factor interaction approach.

Behavioral Aspects of Leadership

In parallel with the power and influence research, interest increased in understanding leadership activities, or observable behaviors. Following nearly 30 years of focus on underlying leadership traits, shifted to studying the observable behaviors of those in leadership (House & Aditya, 1997). In an attempt to define and validate universally effective leadership behaviors, researchers studied leaders in laboratories and conducted field research by asking individuals to describe the behavior of individuals in

authority. In their review of leadership studies, House and Aditya discussed this paradigm of research, which became known as the behavioral school of leadership. They suggested this behavioral school of leadership was led by the work of three main groups: Robert Bales and associates at Harvard (Bales, 1954), Ohio State Leadership Center (Stogdill & Coons, 1957), and the Institute for Social Research at the University of Michigan (Kahn & Katz, 1953).

Perhaps the most recognized early leadership behavior research is what is commonly referred to as "The Ohio State Studies". The Ohio State Studies categorized leader behaviors as either: Initiating Structure or Consideration; the two categories represented task-focused versus people-focused behaviors. From this perspective, Fleishman (1953) introduced a two-factor scale, the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). This provided subordinate-ratings of leaders' behaviors in two categories: Initiating Structure (with items that mention defining structure, procedures and schedules), and Consideration behaviors (with items that mention mutual trust, respect and consideration of general wellbeing). This categorization of behaviors can be seen as similar to the different types of leader power or influence: position power and the tactical responsibilities of a leader's job versus person power which is more about leader personality, subordinate perceptions and the relationship between leader and followers.

Miner and Dachler (1973) concluded that many studies following the Ohio State Studies had similar concepts akin to consideration and initiating structure. Weissenberg and Kavanaugh (1972) reported that multiple studies in industrial and military settings analyzed subordinates ratings of managers, using the LBDQ, and found significant positive correlation between the two independent scales of leader behavior, suggesting

support for an earlier claim that. In summary, Bass (1990) concluded that leaders who are high on one component of the LBDQ, are apt to score high on the other scale as well.

In terms of effective leader behaviors, situational factors affect the expectations subordinates have, as well as the tendency for a leader to demonstrate different leadership styles. Situational factors such as organizational policies or culture (Stanton, 1960), , and attributes of the subordinates (Kerr, Schriesheim, Murphy, & Stogdill, 1974) all have the potential to influence the expectation of and effectiveness of a leader's consideration behaviors versus initiation of structure behaviors. Additionally, effectiveness of certain styles may be a function of the source of criteria. For example, Korman (1966) found that consideration did not make a difference in overall performance when team performance was rated by the manager's peers; however, when manager's individual performance was rated, consideration behaviors did influence overall performance scores.

Later, Yukl, Lepsinger and Lucia (1992) further developed the behavior research by focusing on conducted research on proactive influence tactics. They used a deductive approach and created new items and renamed some of the scales to develop what is now called the Influence Behavior Questionnaire (IBQ). Their scale provided multisource feedback to managers, and was mostly used for research purposes. Eventually, the questionnaire was validated with managers in a practical setting and two additional sub scales were added in the process, bringing the final IBQ questionnaire to comprise 11 sub scales in total (Yukl, Seifert, & Chavez, 2002).

The IBQ included the following 11 scales (Yukl, Seifert, & Chavez, 2002). *rational persuasion*, in which the agent uses logical arguments and presents facts to persuade to target that the request being made is feasible and relevant; *inspiration*,

appeals seek to arouse emotions in the target in order to gain buy-in and support for the leader; *consultation,* involves influence by suggesting that the target provide suggestions to improve the proposal or help with planning and developing strategies to support leader's overall goal; *collaboration,* involves the leader offering resources and assistance if the target will provide assistance in implementing proposal or request; *ingratiation,* involves flattery and compliments (insincere and sincere) before, during or after making a request; *personal appeal,* a means of influencing by asking for a favor, before stating what the proposal is; *exchange tactic,* explicitly offering something in return if target will meet agent's request; *coalition tactic,* involves agent seeking alliances to work together to persuade the target, using the support or endorsement of others as a reason the target should also support the agent; *legitimating tactic,* depends on establishing and clarifying rights and authorities of the leader's position or rules and policies that must be obeyed; *pressure* tactics include threats, micro-managing, and other intrusive and disruptive behaviors until the target has been influenced; and *apprising,* a tactic in which the agent explains how the target will benefit personally or in their career if they agree to the proposal and carry out the request.

Again, leader traits and behaviors cannot be understood in isolation. Yukl, Kim and Falbe (1996) demonstrated the effectiveness of particular influence tactics is contingent on the specific leader, subordinate, and situational characteristics. For example, they explained that rational persuasion is expected to be more effective when the leader is perceived as a credible and a trustworthy source of information; alternatively, apprising, or telling someone how their agreement to this proposal will benefit their career, is going to be more effective if the target believes that the leader has

accurate and honest information about their career. They further explained that commitment from the follower is more likely when the request is perceived as important and enjoyable to carry out. In other various circumstances, the researchers found that the use of strong referent power, consultation tactics, inspirational appeal or a strong rational approach could also be effective.

Regardless of the tactic utilized, Yukl and Tracey (1992) explained, the target is more likely to be influenced if they feel that the leader is demonstrating socially acceptable behavior, specifically appropriate based on the follower's perception of the sufficiency of the leader's position or personal power that would allow them to use that tactic. Based on Yukl's (2006) review of various types of research on this topic (field questionnaires, incident studies, laboratory experiments and scenario studies), the most consistently effective influence tactics are rational persuasion, consultation, collaboration and inspirational appeal. Yukl summarizes the research and identifies the three variables that determine effectiveness of a given influence tactic in a specific context: level of authority of the agent, the objective of the influence tactic; and the cultural norms or values relevant to the use of these tactics. The fore mentioned leader trait research, and behavior and influence taxonomies, went deep in explanation to the types of leaders and leadership styles, but recognized room for further understanding of *when, how* and *why* these variables interact and influence outcomes.

Leadership Outcomes as a Product of Interaction

With Contingency Theory, interaction theories were introduced into the leadership research, providing the perspective that leadership outcomes can only be explained and understood as an interaction between the person and the situation (Kerr,

Schriesheim, Murphy, & Stogdill, 1974). House and Aditya (1997) suggested that contingency theories were developed in effort to reconcile the differences in findings amongst leader behavior research. Yukl (2006) stated that the same leader attribute is not necessarily optimal across all situations; contingency theories explain the situation moderator variables that influence the relationship between traits or behaviors and success or effectiveness criteria. He pointed out that contingency theorists ask questions to understand *when* and *why* certain factors have an influence and what kind of influence those variables have. Furthermore, Yukl pointed out that situational research can either have a comparative approach or a moderation approach; the comparative approach looks at how an aspect of leadership differs across levels of an organization, across cultures or industries, while the moderation approach looks at aspects of the situation that moderate the leader trait-leader performance relationship. For a period of nearly 30 years in the 1960s to 1980s, several contingency theories of leadership were popular, including: Fiedler's Contingency Theory (Fiedler, 1964, 1967), the Path Goal Theory of Leadership effectiveness (House, 1971), Hersey and Blanchard's Life Cycle Theory (1969), Multiple Linkages Model (Yukl, 1981, 1989), and Cognitive Resources Theory (Fiedler, 1986; Fiedler & Garcia, 1987).

Fiedler was the first to introduce a theory explaining the interaction between situational variables, leader personality, and behavior (House & Aditya, 1997). Fiedler (1964) identified eight categories of situational control; each category in this framework indicated the degree to which the leader is able to influence the group or process. Leaders were categorized as either task-motivated or relationship-motivated and behaviors were either consideration or structuring. The leader was assessed by a measure called the Least

Preferred Coworker (LPC). Using the LPC, a leader's score is determined by asking a leader to reflect on the most difficult coworker they have worked with and asked to rate them on various bipolar adjective scales (cooperative-uncooperative, friendly-unfriendly, efficient-inefficient, etc.). In his framework, Fiedler (1964) interpreted scores as a reflection of a leader's hierarchy of motives, such that a high score would suggest that a leader is most concerned with close interpersonal relationships, while a low scoring leader may be more concerned with task-oriented activities. Fiedler included three situational variables: leader-member relations, position power, and task structure. The effectiveness of different types of leaders (high LPC versus low LPC) was determined by considering the combination of these three situational variables. For example, Fiedler (1967) proposed that a high-scoring LPC leader would be effective in a situation with poor leader-member relations, structured tasks and low position power. Conversely, a low LPC leader could be effective with weak position power and unstructured tasks, if the quality of leader-member relationship was good. In House and Aditya's (1997) review of Fiedler's work, they noted that Fiedler's overall model, with predictions for each octant, has not received substantial empirical support; however, the general hypotheses have been supported. In general, task-motivated leaders perform better in low-control and high-control situations, whereas relationship-motivated leaders perform best in moderate control situations.

Another contingency theory, Path Goal Theory (House, 1971), attempted to explain how leader behaviors influence subordinate's satisfaction and performance, based on Vroom's expectancy theory. In this model, leaders motivated followers by increasing expectancy that the task will be completed as well as the intrinsic enjoyment (valence) of

the task itself. House (1971) explained that the role of the leader is to motivate subordinates by increasing payoffs for goal attainment, clarify the path, remove obstacles, and support individual satisfaction as subordinates follow the path to reach the goal. House and Mitchell (1975) explained there are four categories of leader behavior: supportive leadership, directive leadership, participative leadership and achievement oriented leadership. A leader's behavior can influence either subordinate satisfaction or performance, and sometimes both, depending on the situation. Additionally, their model explained there are situational and follower trait moderators, five intervening variables (follower experiences and valences), and two dependent variables (follower satisfaction and performance). House (1996) later recognized the limitations of this theory, which he calls a *rationality bias*, in that it does not account for situational uncertainty and stress. Given its complexity, the model has not received adequate testing, as House and Aditya (1997) explain in their review.

Hersey and Blanchard's (1969) Life Cycle Theory was developed to represent a life-cycle, with a different leadership style being prescribed contingent upon maturity levels of the followers, such as a parent-child relationship. These four different styles included: telling, selling, participating, and delegating. Maturity was defined as the follower's willingness and readiness to take on the task. They explain that their theory is advancement from the simple understanding of structuring versus consideration types of leadership behaviors. In Life Cycle Theory, Hersey and Blanchard (1969) propose that leadership style should transition between task and consideration styles corresponding with the maturity of the follower group: less mature follower groups need high task and low consideration. Through the life cycle, leaders' style should transition to both high

task and consideration, to high consideration and low task, and, finally, to both low task and consideration. In House and Aditya's (1997) review of the Life Cycle Theory, they credit it with face validity and recognize its popularity achieved through a commercially distributed training program, but point out a lack of empirical support from science-driven research.

In terms of leader influence, researchers have questioned whether leaders should conform to the situation (their subordinates), or transform the group. Several studies have found support in favor for consistent leadership style, meaning that leaders are effective when they seem to fit the situation and fit the expectations followers hold for their leaders (Staw & Ross, 1980). Alternatively, Hollander's (1978) theory explains that if a group member is at first perceived as conforming to the group and builds up credibility, separating from the group and demonstrating new behaviors can be better received. According to Hersey and Blanchard's (1969) situational leadership model, the preferred leadership style will depend on the specific situation. The specific responsibilities of leaders and their *psychological maturity*, meaning the education and training of followers, will influence what is more important in terms of leadership style (Argyris, 1962). To support this perspective of leadership adaptability, Hersey and Blanchard (1974) developed an assessment of leader flexibility, the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD). Their assessment, however, has received mixed results in terms of its validity and practical utility (Graeff, 1983). These theories focus on adapting behavior, which some may suggest is unreasonable. Although underlying values and motives may not change, self-awareness and social intelligence may increase impression management and behavior adaptation (Schlenker, 1980).

In Yukl's Multiple-Linkage model (1981, 1989) he considered four types of

variables: managerial behaviors, intervening variables, criterion variables, and situational

variables. In this model, these variables influence (or constrain) the manager's behavior,

influence intervening variables, as well as determine the relative importance of the

intervening variables. The intervening variables interact with each other, such that one

deficiency may lower performance even if the other intervening variables are not

deficient. Additionally, other situational variables influence the intervening variables

regardless of the leader's behaviors. For example, benefits and compensation motivate

task commitment, without leader influence, and inherently interesting tasks that are

enjoyable lead to greater task commitment, without the consideration of leadership. The

model (Figure 1), which is more complex than earlier contingency theories, considers

more intervening variables and situational variables and is unique in defining these

influences at the group level.
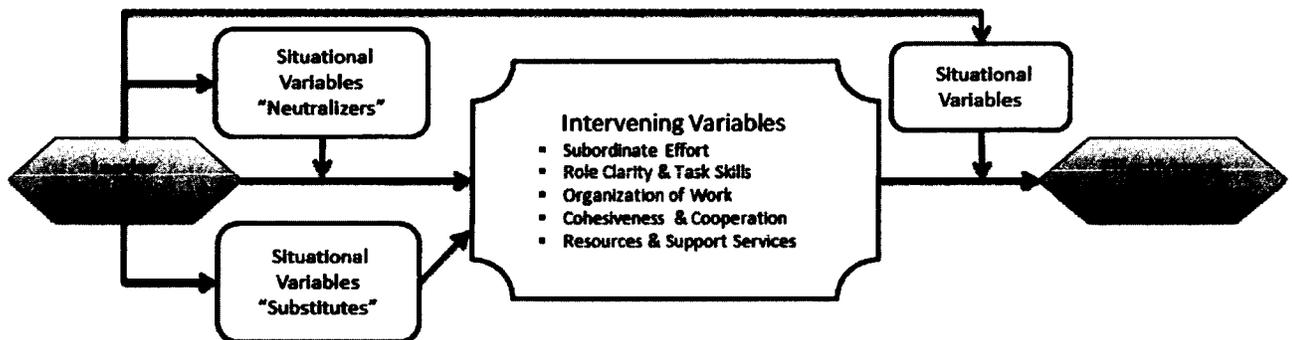
Note: Adapted from House and Aditya, 1997

Figure 1. Model of Path-Goal Leadership Theory

Cognitive Resources Theory, developed by Fiedler and Garcia (1987) focuses on

the cognitive resources, specifically intelligence and experience, and examines the

interaction between cognitive resources and situationally induced stress and the combined influence on the leadership outcomes. Their theory explained why intelligent and experienced leaders are not immune to making atrocious decisions in stressful situations. Yukl (2006) summarized by pointing out that cognitive resources theory also explains that the effectiveness, or influence of the leader's directive behaviors. According to Yukl, the importance of a leader's directive behaviors varies based on the context, specifically the subordinates' need for guidance. If the task is simple and the subordinates are capable, then the leader's level of intelligence, specific traits, or directive behaviors make no meaningful difference.

House and Aditya (1997) noted that Cognitive Resources Theory has received considerable empirical support. In their summary, they concluded that intelligence and experience interfere with each other in situations of high stress. They explained that individuals with high levels of experience and lower intelligence are more effective in high stress situations because they are relying on their experience. They further explained that this provides a greater understanding of leadership effectiveness in terms of directive versus participative leadership in times of stress. When stress is high, and relationships are good, participative leadership is effective when followers are more experienced than the leader. And when stress is low, and relationships are good, participative leadership is effective with followers who are more intelligent than the leader. Simply stated, according to Fiedler (1996) the interference between cognitive resources and situation stress is a reflection of our human inability to think logically and analytically while responding to an emergency or acute-stress situation using our previously learned experience-based knowledge. Furthermore, he continued, a team cannot think to solve

problems when a highly experienced leader does not leave room for discussion. Fiedler

concluded by explaining that stress and pressure narrow the focus of attention, increase

rigidity and authoritarian decision-making, all the while increasing the dependency on the

leader. Following the complex contingency theories, more recent researchers introduced

three new theoretical approaches to understanding different aspects of leadership:

Charismatic (and Neocharismatic) Leadership Theories (Conger & Kanungo, 1988;

House, 1971; Conger, 1999), Leader Member Exchange Theory (Graen & Uhl-Bien,

1995), and Implicit Leadership Theories (Lord, Binning, Rush, & Thomas, 1978).

According to Yukl (2006), current theories of charismatic leadership are rooted in the

earlier ideas of sociologist, Max Weber's ideas of charisma, which views leader charisma

as a *divinely inspired gift*. In years to follow, new theories branched off of this initial

conception, and are referred to as neocharismatic theories, or as some call it, *the New*

Leadership theories (Bryman, 1993). House and Aditya (1997) summarized these

theories and identified three common elements that distinguish charismatic leadership.

They explained that charismatic leaders, by definition, are able to accomplish great feats

in tumultuous circumstances, and secondly, attract devoted and motivated followers.

Their third common element is that charismatic leaders use emotional appeal, which

affects follower motives, perceptions and attitudes, in addition to typical outcomes of

satisfaction and performance.

Yukl (2006) explained that the charismatic leadership style typically occurs

during crisis situations or when followers are disenchanted with their current leader. He

explained that it is under these conditions when a leader can step forward with radical

vision, offering a solution to the crisis which attracts followers. According to House

(1977), this type of person tends to be a self-confident leader, convinced in their beliefs, with a strong need for power and motivated to influence subordinates. Yukl notes that charismatic leaders engage in self-monitoring which gives subordinates an even higher perception of their competence, and when the solution becomes initially successful, great favor is gained for the leader.

Shamir and House (1993) suggested that transformational leadership and charismatic leadership are essentially the same; both involve appealing to emotions and morals of followers to evoke motivation. As an extension of charismatic leadership theory, transformational leadership is driven by the purpose to raise awareness around an issue and motivate change or action. Value Based Leadership Theory (House, 1977) specifies that leader self-confidence and personal conviction motivates leader behaviors, and specifies that a context of stress and uncertainty calls the charismatic leader to action. Leaders motivate followers to become morally invested in the *greater good* by setting goals that cannot be easily measured and cannot be linked to extrinsic rewards for individual performance (House & Aditya, 1997).

By definition, charismatic leaders can increase social identification and group pride by articulating a vision that resonates with followers' self-concept (House & Aditya, 1997). Within this framework, charismatic leaders can influence subordinates to adopt new values, but most often their effectiveness will be the result of increasing the salience of existing subordinate values by articulating the link between those values and task objectives. Charismatic leaders have the ability to inspire followers through this sense-making process, making their work seem noble or heroic. This influence process, as House and Aditya explained, depends on the leader's ability to relate to subordinate

values, and with that, charismatic leaders must have the capability to understand, and identify with, the existing values and identities of their followers.

Though most research sheds a positive light on charismatic leadership, House and Howell (1992) point out that there is the dark side of charismatic leaders who have a personalized power orientation, seeking to influence followers to be loyal and committed to their leadership, rather than the vision itself. The authors suggest that the passion and boldness that makes a charismatic leader have such an attractive appeal can also make it difficult for the leader to critically self-examine their ideas, even rejecting evidence that does not support their ideas. According to House and Howell, followers of these leaders can become so caught up under the *spell* of the charming leader that they are unwilling to point out risks, or are blinded and unable to see the possible problems with a leader's plan. They also stated that charismatic leaders are more likely to take bold and risky actions and also tend to create enemies who make recovering from mistakes nearly impossible.

Leader Member Exchange (LMX) is unique from previous streams of research. LMX focused on the unique relationships between a leader and followers individually. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) focused on dyadic relationships, particularly the mutual influence each person has on the other. Their prescriptive model says that a high-quality supervisor-subordinate relationship is one with a high degree of mutual influence and obligation that results in increased satisfaction, commitment and performance. House and Aditya (1997) claimed that the quality of the LMX relationship is widely supported as being more predictive of positive organizational outcomes than any specific traits or behaviors of leaders. However, Dulebohn and colleagues (2012) found that leader traits

explained most of the variance in LMX quality. Their meta-analysis also found that cultural values, specifically power distance and individualism did moderate some relationships. More recently, researchers have questioned the meaningfulness of these theories given the meta-analytic results suggesting correlations between authentic leadership, ethical leadership, transformational leadership, and LMX (Theys, Scanu, & Fuller, 2014).

Another unique approach to understanding traits, behaviors and influence is considering Implicit Leadership Theory (Lord, et al., 1978). This approach addressed the conscious and subconscious mental evaluations that individuals make regarding who and what a leader should be, and the resulting perceptions of the leadership behaviors an individual may observe. This theory proposes that an individual's attributes do not make them a leader, but rather followers' perceptions that the specific person is a leader. According to Lord and Maher (1991), these perceptions are formed through controlled inferential as well as automatic recognition based processes. These implicit leadership perceptions, once formed, become the cognitive schema, or framework, for evaluating future observed leadership behaviors. House and Aditya (1997) further suggest that researchers should address the cultural universality of cognitive processes.

Focus on Failures

An alternative approach to understanding a broad and complex subject, such as leadership success, is examining the opposite- leadership failure. In doing so, a greater understanding of success is achieved. In terms of the practical utility of research, leadership failure is costly, with estimates at $500,000 and above (Lombardo, Ruderman & McCauley, 1988). Perhaps the more significant loss is in the hidden costs, including:

golden parachutes, lost intellectual and social capital, missed objectives and disengaged employees (Hogan, et al., 2010) and preventing or avoiding leadership failure is of great value. For years, Bentz (1967, 1985, 1990) has sought to answer the question regarding why leaders fail, an area of research that has more recently been led by Hogan, Hogan and Kaiser (2010). Mismanagement can cause misery for subordinates (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005). Leary and colleagues (2013) demonstrated that managers' dysfunctional dispositions are related to subordinate work engagement, satisfaction and burnout.

Bentz (1967, 1985, 1990) was the leader on some of the earliest research on managerial failure, using data from a large retailer. Bentz found that failed managers were actually bright and socially skilled but lacked business skills, were unable to deal with complexity, were reactive and tactical, unable to delegate, unable to build a team, unable to maintain relationships and network of contacts, slow learners, let emotions cloud judgment and had what the author refers to as an *overriding personality defect*. In the 1980s, the Center for Creative Leadership (McCall & Lombardo, 1983) began derailment research which produced a list of ten reasons for managerial derailment. Based on their studies which characterized the profile of failed leaders, descriptions most commonly involved having insensitivity to others (abrasiveness, intimidation and bullying.

The Center for Creative Leadership (McCall & Lombardo, 1983) interviewed 20 senior executives from three companies and asked these executives questions regarding successful and unsuccessful managers they knew. The researchers defined "successful" and "unsuccessful" and asked the executives to describe people they knew who would meet those criteria. The researchers consider managers to be successful after they had

worked 20 to 30 years and reached high goals; unsuccessful managers, on the other hand, did not reach expectations of the organization and their halted progression was involuntary. Leaders from both groups (successful and unsuccessful) managers were described as bright, high achievers with few faults. However, successful managers were described to have more diverse accomplishments than the group of unsuccessful managers. The successful managers were known to effectively manage stress and mistakes, involved others in problem solving, and had a record of getting along well with a wide range of people. Based on the interviews, failed leadership was attributed to a few business or technical skills, but predominantly associated with interpersonal failures, such as: being insensitive, aloof, betraying trust, micromanaging, unable to adapt to a boss with a different style, or overly dependent on an advocate or mentor. In their review of research regarding minorities in management, Morrison and von Glinow (1990) showed that results with a female sample supported the earlier McCall and Lombardo (1983) study, parallel evidence that insensitivity to others is seen as the most common cause of leadership failure, regardless of gender.

Hogan, Hogan and Kaiser (2010) discussed the significance of interpersonal skills, suggesting even leadership responsibilities that are task-oriented (developing strategies and delegating tasks) depend upon the interpersonal skills of the leader to communicate, collaborate and effectively influence others in order to carry out the strategy and meet objectives. Empathy, social insight, charm, diplomacy and effective communication are all characteristics that Yukl (2006) described as essentials for developing and maintaining cooperative relationship with one's immediate team, as well as peers and outsiders who can be potential facilitators or inhibitors of team success. Katz

(1955) model described social skill as interpersonal sensitivity that creates and drives mindful actions with the awareness that what a leader says or does affects those around them. In their summary of literature on the topic, Hogan, Hogan and Kaiser concluded that *overriding personality defects* is the common thread explaining leadership failure. These dysfunctional dispositions inhibit leaders' ability to fulfill their role of building, maintaining and guiding a team to outperform the competition. These personality factors, or underlying dispositions, are what separates the successful from the unsuccessful leaders. As Hogan and colleagues concluded, personality has the capability to damage the interpersonal relationships which are key to performance within a team, as well as impair judgment necessary for strong leadership.

To further the earlier research of McCall and Lombardo (1983), Lombardo et al. (1988) quantified individual differences in an attempt to identify managers who are prone to failure. Lombardo et al. (1988) conducted two studies to develop a standardized survey for evaluating behaviors that distinguish the good managers from bad managers. Their factor analysis of behavioral items reflecting positive skills, knowledge and attitudes yielded eight scales: handling business complexity, directing, motivating and developing subordinates, honor, drive for excellence, organizational savvy, composure, sensitivity, and staffing. The low scoring (unsuccessful) managers scored low on all of the eight dimensions. Based on the survey, good and bad leaders differed the most on the factors of directing, motivating and developing subordinates (Lombardo, et al., 1988). Later, McCauley and Lombardo (1989) conducted a study to develop a scale based on themes found in qualitative study of unsuccessful managers. Scales included six dimensions derived from a factor analysis of bosses' ratings on items intended to represent themes

found in the earlier study by McCall and Lombardo (1983). The six dimensions included: problems with interpersonal relationships, difficulty in molding staff, difficulty in making strategic transitions, lack of follow-through, overdependence, and strategic differences with management.

Dotlich and Cairo (2003) looked specifically at CEO failure and found 11 common characteristics, including: arrogance, melodrama, volatility, excessive caution, habitual distrust, aloofness, mischievousness, eccentricity, passive resistance, perfectionism and eagerness to please. The authors suggested, everyone has these qualities to some extent, but suggested that CEOs are more likely to have these qualities as a result of the pressure at the top. Rasch, Shen, Davies and Bono (2008) developed a similar taxonomy based on their content analysis of subordinates' descriptions of observed destructive leadership behavior. Their taxonomy included eight factors: persistent people problems, poor emotional control, over-controlling behavior, poor planning/organization and/or communication, rumor-mongering and inappropriate use of information, procrastination, failure to consider human needs, and failure to manage and nurture talent.

In terms of business application, one of the most widely used assessments of managerial derailers is the Hogan Development Survey (Hogan & Hogan, 1997). The assessment is based on 11 personality characteristics, referred to as *derailers*, all of which are aligned with one of the three dysfunctional dispositions from Karen Horney's earlier work. The Hogan Development Survey (HDS) includes: Excitable, Skeptical, Bold, Cautious, Reserved, Leisurely, Mischievous, Colorful, Imaginative, Diligent, and Dutiful. The HDS has been validated over years of research in various academic and

organizational settings (Hogan & Hogan, 2009). They go on to report that the HDS does not assume that any of the derailer qualities are seen as inherently evil; rather their extreme manifestations can become a detriment to effectiveness as a leader. Judge et al. (2009) explains that the common social perception of a personality trait determines whether it is referred to as "dark", however, there is a bright side to dark traits and a dark side to bright traits. Diligent and Dutiful characteristics seem positive, but at the extreme, high Diligent for example, may be rigorous and tend to micro-manage and high dutiful may tend to be so eager to please that they cannot work independently or make autonomous decisions. As the authors suggest, one's strength as a leader can sometimes be exhibited in its extreme, which then inhibits leadership effectiveness. Hogan and Hogan (2009) agreed with Dotlich and Cairo's (2003) explanation of context, in that dark side traits tend to show up in times of extreme stress or challenge. Hogan and Hogan also agreed with Dotlich and Cairo that self-awareness can mitigate the influence of these tendencies, but the dark side may show up again when someone has become overly comfortable in the situation and lets their guard down, so to speak.

Overview of Personality

Leadership research began with the view of leaders as a person, that their unique individual traits separate them from non-leaders. Later in the evolution of leadership theories, the value of trait research was challenged and leadership theories took a turn towards a trend of behavior-based leadership theories and contingency theories. With the introduction of new theories and more robust methodology, the last half-century of research has widely supported the value of personality traits in predicting job performance, employee satisfaction, and turnover (Judge, 2009). Furthermore, the

volume of personality research has exponentially increased since Barrick and Mount (1991) published a review of the Big Five personality factors and criterion-related validities, broadly supporting the positive relationships between conscientiousness, extraversion and job performance. In terms of understanding the relevance of personality in the context of work, Oswald and Hough (2011) explained that personality's importance rests in the fact that traits predict thoughts, motivations and behaviors related to an organization's successful goal achievement. The overarching goal of personality theory is to explain individual experiences and action, resulting from innate tendencies (Cervone, 2005).

Rather than identifying a specific trait of a specific profile of a typical leader, Bass and Stogdill (1948,1974) asserted that the importance of each trait is dependent on the situation; none of the traits being sufficient or absolutely necessary for leadership effectiveness across all situations. Although the specific personality dimension names and the outcome variable of interest will vary from one researcher to the next, Judge, Bono, Ilies and Gerhardt (2002) noted that meta-analytic support has been established for the validity of relationships between each of the Big-Five personality factors and leadership emergence and effectiveness. Furthermore, the theoretical trait perspectives that were developed help to better understand leadership, garnering substantial empirical support (House & Aditya, 1997), namely, McClelland's Achievement Motivation Theory (McClelland, 1961), House's Charismatic Leadership (House, Spangler, & Woycke, 1991), and self-monitoring and leader flexibility (Zaccaro, Foti, & Kenny, 1991). The introduction of these leadership theories provided a more complex approach to understanding the influence of leader personality as predictors of performance.

Historical Theoretical Perspectives

The study of individual differences has a long history, and in understanding this background, one can more fully appreciate the current state of leadership personality literature. Freud's (1923/1961) psychoanalytic approach suggested that understanding individual differences, in terms of the mind or personality requires investigation of the unconscious process. This approach takes into account the enduring effects of childhood behaviors or events, including the influence of sexual, aggressive, attachment, self-esteem and other desires or fears, whether or not the individual is consciously aware of the existence of such desires (Westen, Gabbard, & Ortigo, 2008). Freud's primary approach to data collection was categorizing the things patients would tell him during clinical sessions, often times using free association. Freud concluded that the discontinuity in a person's behavior, marked by seeming randomly dysfunctional behaviors for which they could not explain, must be explained by the subconscious "Self"; he referred to three aspects of this "Self" as the Id, Ego and Superego. He called this interplay between conscious and subconscious psychodynamics (see Erdelyi, 1985 for a review).

The evolutionary perspective of personality asserts that individual characteristics are a product of heredity and adaptation (Buss, 1991); through this adaptation, generations before were able to survive and reproduce. These characteristics may include status striving, parenting motivations, jealousy, and the ability to discern the motives of others in order to protect your resources, to survive, to mate, and to reproduce (Haselton & Buss, 2000). According to this theory, individual differences result from differences in genetics, environments, or a combination thereof.

Scientific diversity and pluralism promoted the creation of endless competing, yet sometimes overlapping, concepts and measures of personality (John, Naumann, & Soto, 2008). Though there was value in the diversity of thought, there became a need for a simplified and consistent taxonomy that would unify a fragmented field of researchers. Establishing a common taxonomy allowed for a common language in which empirical research could be communicated and understood among researchers from various backgrounds, each with their unique interests. However, not all personality constructs and measurement tools are created equal.

The Five Factor model was born from an empirical examination of the English lexicon, rather than psychological theory (Barrick, et al., 2001). Its development was based on ratings of adjectives taken from the dictionary, and a factor analysis of those ratings (Allport & Odbert, 1936; Goldberg, 1990, 1993; Tupes & Christal, 1992). Despite its English language foundation, supporters have argued for its cross-cultural validity. The Five Factor model has been developed and validated based on two different approaches: the lexical approach, which is rating adjectives relevant to personality (e.g., Outgoing), and the person-descriptive approach, which is based on ratings of statements (e.g., "I like to drive fast"). The two approaches have been found to yield dissimilar results, with more cross-cultural support for the person-descriptive statements (McCrae & Costa, 1997). Similar to the Five Factor model, the HEXACO model (Ashton & Lee, 2001) includes the core five personality factors, and adds a sixth, Honesty-Humility. Even though these personality constructs are valid across cultures, some traits are relatively more important depending on their cultural context, and the underlying psychometric properties may vary (Church, 2001). This suggests for future research to

explore cultural implications for personality theory and the application of personality theory in organizations.

Using a lexical approach to study personality, Cattell (1943) used a subset of 4,500 trait terms from Allport and Odbert's (1936) original dictionary list. Using factor analysis, Cattell reduced the 4,500 trait terms to 35 variables. Fiske (1949) developed simplified descriptions from 22 of Cattell's variables, which Tupes and Christal reanalyzed to find five strong and recurrent factors (see Tupes & Christal, 1992 for a review). These factors were later named by Norman (1963). These factors, which eventually became commonly known as the Big Five were explained as broad factors that summarize distinct personality characteristics, rather than completely accounting for all individual differences in terms of five all-encompassing dimensions (Goldberg, 1981).

The Current State of Personality Research

Personality research will continue to be relevant and valuable as long as organizations are able predict the return on their investment, with leaders being the investment and employee engagement and performance being the return. Noncognitive and nonability characteristics, such as personality, reflect a distal disposition that can be systematically measured and indirectly affects performance and behaviors (Rauch & Frese, 2007), and as such, personality is a strong predictor of job performance. Many researchers agree that personality is equally important to cognitive ability and other factors in predicting long-term career success and well-being (Heckman, Stixrud, & Urzua, 2006; Roberts, Kuncel, Shiner, Caspi & Goldberg, 2007). Furthermore, personality assessments have been accepted as fair measurement and selection

mechanism, generally avoidant of adverse impact across diverse ethnic groups (Hough, Oswald, & Ployhart, 2001; Foldes, Duehr, & Ones, 2008).

Until the 1990s, cross-language research was difficult, and scarce, yet cross-cultural generalization is an important aspect in evaluating the utility of personality taxonomies (John, Naumann, & Soto, 2008). In their review of the integrative Big Five taxonomy, John et al. (2008) provided a review of cross-cultural and cross language studies, which included the following languages: German, Dutch, English, Italian, Hungarian, Chinese, Czech, Greek, Hebrew, Polish, Russian, Spanish, and others. In their summary, they suggested that these cross-cultural studies in various languages generally supported the five factor structure of personality. With the translation and validation of the Big Five personality model, more cross-cultural research became possible.

Ample research has found significant relationships with Big Five personality traits predicting work outcomes. Judge and colleagues' (2009) study found that employees scoring high on Conscientiousness and Emotional Stability dimensions of personality also tended to score high on measures of goal setting, expectations, and self-efficacy. Emotional Stability also predicted motivation, higher goals and higher confidence in ability to successfully perform in a job, and was generally related to job satisfaction (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002). Agreeableness, on the other hand, was negatively related to goal-setting (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002). The positive relationship between conscientiousness and performance is generalizable across industries (Barrick, et al., 2001) and with expats (Mol, Born, Willemsen, & Van Der Molen, 2005).

The facet-level approach is an alternative perspective that takes a more narrow focus than the broad Big Five approach. Conscientiousness is often cited as a predictor of performance across jobs (Barrick & Mount, 1991), however, the facet-level traits are shown to be stronger predictors of specific aspects of job performance, as well as more predictive of the same criteria in different stages of employment (Stewart, 1999). In terms of predicting specific aspects of work behaviors, the facet of conformity is related to errors in decision making (LePine, Colquitt, & Erez, 2000) and risk-taking is related to unsafe workplace behavior (Ashton, 1998). In some cases, the facets are stronger predictors than the larger factor, for example, achievement-striving is stronger than general conscientiousness in terms of predicting long-term performance (Stewart, 1999).

However, other individual variables may influence the trait-outcome relationships with these broad and facet-level personality traits. Moderators such as self-regulation (Elliot & Church, 1997) and motivation (e.g., achievement orientation) can also be useful in understanding the relationships between traits and work outcomes (Barrick, et al., 1993; Erez & Judge, 2001; Hough, Ones, & Viswesvaran, 1998). Motivation is also predictive of transformational leadership, leader emergence and dependability (Bono & Judge, 2004; Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002). Mediators such as goal commitment can fully mediate the relationship between conscientiousness and learning (Klein & Lee, 2006). While extraversion is generally positively related to sales performance, status striving can mediate the relationship between extraversion and sales performance (Barrick, et al., 2002). In general, Oswald and Hough's (2011) review of theoretical and measurement perspectives concluded that research can benefit from a bottom-up approach, looking at individual facets that relate to specific criteria or criterion, while

examining meaningful relationships through multilevel modeling and multigroup analyses. In any case, personality research should take into consideration the specific type of sample and setting such as time-pressure and managerial support, which can influence personality-performance relationships (Baer & Oldham, 2006).

The Dark Side of Personality

Using the Five Factor Model as a basis (Goldberg, 1981), Judge et al. (2009) explained that there are *bright* and *dark* traits, categorized based on the nature of their social desirability, which are usually, but not necessarily, desirability of that trait in a leader. In their review, Hogan and Hogan (2009) explained, the dark side traits are those viewed negatively by most individuals in society, and as such, have the capacity to compromise leader effectiveness. Hogan and Hogan emphasized that these dark side traits are considered undesirable but not severe enough to be categorized as clinical personality disorders. Hogan and Hogan explained that an individual's dark side stems from maladaptive schemas, or ways of perceiving, interpreting and storing information. They explained that people frequently criticized in childhood will unconsciously expect criticism in any social interactions. Behaviors reflecting the dark side of personality may include emotional outbursts, bullying, intimidation, arrogance, and excessive deference to authority. Dark side behaviors tend to show up when an individual is not actively engaged in social monitoring. The relationship between dark side traits and leader effectiveness is not necessarily a perfect linear relationship; as Judge and colleagues (2009) pointed out, the influence of the dark side trait depends on the context and the intensity of one's trait disposition.

The problem with technically-skilled, yet interpersonally dysfunctional leadership is unfortunately, all too common. Hogan, Hogan, & Warrenfeltz (2007) estimated 75 percent of working adults believe that dealing with their direct manager is the most stressful part of their job. Hogan, Hogan and Kaiser (2009) summarized twelve published estimates of the base rate of managerial failure and found that an average of 50 percent of managers fails. Based on their summary of existing research, Hogan and colleagues suggested that approximately two thirds of these managers are insufferable and at least half will be terminated. The mere existence of dysfunctional dispositions, or scoring high on a particular dimension, is not the problem; Benson and Campbell (2007) found nonlinear relationships between HDS dimensions and leader outcomes. Hogan and Hogan (2007) explained that everyone scores high on at least one scale of the HDS assessment (the dark side of personality). In many cases, leaders also score high on self-monitoring, which allows them to keep their behavior in check.

The cause of dysfunctional behavior has been the interest of many researchers (Bentz 1967, 1985, 1990; McCall & Lombardo, 1983; Morrison, White, & Van Velsor, 1987). Researchers have found that context variables leading to dysfunctional behaviors include individual's physical fatigue or illness as well as situations of stress, which tax the mental resources needed for self-regulation, mindfulness or impulse control (Baumeister & Heatherton, 1996). McCall and Lombardo (1983) suggested that the causes of derailment are all associated with situational changes as managers ascend the organizational hierarchy. Such changes may also lead to increased responsibility, scrutiny, uncertain expectations, and political maneuvering (Zaccaro, 2001). As Fiedler and Garcia (1987) demonstrated in their meta-analysis applying cognitive resources

theory to leadership performance, intelligence was more strongly related to leadership outcomes when stress was low. Unfortunately, as Kaiser and Hogan (2007) pointed out, a high-stakes situation where there is intense pressure to perform may lead to the leader performing at his or her worst.

Measuring the Dark Side with the Hogan Development Survey

Hogan and Hogan's (2009) approach to personality research involves studying an individual in terms of their reputation. Hogan and Hogan described personality as being reflected in a person's reputation, or how that person would be described by other individuals. Specific personality descriptors, such as outgoing, charismatic, conniving or elusive are ways of explaining how that person is perceived. Practically speaking, organizations want to know what personalities to select or promote to leadership roles, what to expect from those who are in roles as leaders and how employees will react to the behaviors of those types of leaders.

Hogan and Hogan (1997, 2009) developed the (HDS) based upon the foundation of earlier research of dysfunctional personality syndromes. The three general categories of the dark side personality characteristics include: moving away from people, moving against people, and moving toward people. The category labels refer to the way in which individuals may approach dealing with inner anxieties based on their distorted beliefs about how others may treat them. According to Hogan (2009), these dark side syndromes impede the effectiveness of a leader, above and beyond the influence of their bright side personality, or their strengths, identified with the Five Factor Model. Although these traits are not inherently evil, Hogan (2009) explained that someone scoring high in one of more of these dark side traits will have the tendency to express that trait in a maladaptive

manner. In their overview of this phenomenon, the authors explained dysfunctional

dispositions as the coexistence of technical competence and interpersonal inadequacy.

They expressed that leaders with dysfunctional dispositions may have technical expertise

which allowed them to advance to a position with responsibility for leading others, but

have a deficiency in interpersonal skills, making them a risk to the business. Other

researchers have described this type of leader as destructive (Einarsen, Aasland, &

Skogstad, 2007), abusive (Tepper, 2000; Tierney, et al., 2007), or toxic (Frost, 2004;

Padilla, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2007).

According to Hogan (2009), the *moving away from people* category of the HDS

structure can be associated with intimidation. Scoring high on these dimensions means

that individuals are likely to manage their inner anxieties by maintaining their distance or

pushing others away. The *moving away from people* category includes the following

dimensions: Excitable, Skeptical, Cautious, Reserved, and Leisurely. Based on their

definition of the various derailer personality traits, Excitable people expect to be

disappointed in relationships, are alert for signs of others treating them badly, can be

volatile, unpredictable and reactive, but are genuinely sympathetic to understanding

problems of others. Skeptical people expect betrayal, expect mistreatment and retaliate,

they are prepared to defend themselves, can be argumentative and generally lack trust in

others. Cautious people fear criticism or embarrassment, are afraid to make mistakes and

resist innovation. Cautious individuals are often prudent, but may drag their feet.

Reserved people seem formal, aloof, introverted and indifferent to the opinions of others.

They communicate poorly, are difficult to work with, could be described as tactless and

are not perceptive. Leisurely people may seem overly pleasant and cooperative, but

privately expect to be mistreated and unappreciated. They are cynical about others, insist on working at their own pace, focus on their own agendas and refuse to support others.

Another category is *moving against people*, which Hogan (2009) distinguished as personality dispositions that involve a tendency for manipulation or controlling others as an offense to deal with anxiety. This category includes: the HDS dimensions of Bold, Mischievous, Colorful, and Imaginative. Bold people, according to the authors, expect admiration and obedience to come along with their success and legacy. They go on to say that bold people may have *narcissistic rage* when expectations are not met. These people are socially confident, charismatic and energetic, but can be self-deceived, alienating and unable to learn from mistakes. Mischievous people, by their definition, are usually charming, clever and are sometimes described as having an irresistible personality. They tend to expect favors, exceptions and allowances. They enjoy risk; they are bright, witty and engaging. According to Hogan and Hogan, this charismatic personality means that they are usually able to get favors, promises and resources from others relatively easily. However, they explained, these mischievous individuals can be reckless, exploitative and manipulative. Colorful people, by the HDS definition, expect others to find them attractive and entertaining. These individuals are dramatic, and enjoy being the center of attention, always performing. They are typically good at sales but are poor managers, tending to be unfocused and overcommitted. Hogan and Hogan described Colorful individuals as energetic, but impulsive and typically unproductive. Because of the self-absorbed nature of Colorful people, they tend to be poor communicators, poor leaders, and often confuse people with directions and intentions. Imaginative people are often recognized by their nature of entertaining others with their unusual ideas and enjoy

eliciting reactions of others. Hogan and Hogan explained that Imaginative types are bright and innovative, but can be self-absorbed and insensitive to feedback, only focusing on their own agendas.

The category of *moving towards people*, according to Hogan and Hogan (2009), is distinguished by ingratiation and includes two HDS derailers: Diligent and Dutiful. By their definition, Diligent people expect rigorous evaluation of their performance; they have high standards, concern for doing good work, being a good citizen and pleasing authority. They live by the rules and work hard, which all sounds positive, but they are also irritated by others who do not share this same philosophy of work. Hogan (2009) suggested that the Diligent types become good role models, typically popular with their supervisors, but can be difficult managers who micromanage and are impossible to please. They continue to explain that the downside of this type of manager is that subordinates may become frustrated and refuse to take initiative and wait for specific step-by-step directing from the manager. Dutiful individuals are eager to please with a tendency to have a martyr mentality, thinking that such loyalty and obedience is expected of them. Hogan (2009) continued on to explain that Dutiful types are polite and cordial but can be very indecisive, trying hard to do whatever they think is expected. Dutiful individuals rarely make enemies and quickly rise in the organization, but they are not decision makers, and their teams tend to drift and feel unsupported.

Development of the HDS

Content validity for the 11 dimensions was established by traditional methods of test development and validation and was also part of the longitudinal research of Goldberg's longitudinal Eugene-Springfield community Sample study (Hogan, 2009). In

their study, 699 individuals (291 males and 395 females, aged 18 to 85 years with mean

of 51.21 years) participated in self-assessments and observation reporting (respondent's

observers included significant others, spouses, friends, acquaintances and coworkers).

The participants and their observers rated 88 behavioral items based on Big Five

Mini-Marker Adjectives (based on the work of Saucier, 1994; John & Srivastava, 1999);

self-assessments and observation assessments included five point ratings of each

adjective in terms of how accurately it described the target participant (the same

questions were used for both self-assessments as well as observer ratings). The observer's

ratings were compiled and means were calculated across observers. Mean scores were

used to calculate correlations between observer ratings and HDS scales.

Additionally, correlations were examined using the Work-Oriented Descriptive

Phrases, specifically focusing on the managerial behaviors observed in the work setting.

Participants completed self-assessments and were also rated by their coworkers using a

five point scale indicating the frequency with which the manager exhibited each of the

150 specific behaviors. Participants all completed the HDS and also provided behavioral

observation data from their spouse or an executive coach. The correlation matrices

produced by these studies (Hogan, 2009) (among other similar studies) have produced

validation for the content and predictive validity of the HDS.

According to Hogan and Hogan (2009), the HDS was developed on the premise

that no one is perfect, most people will score moderately high or high on one or more of

the HDS scales. However, the behaviors associated with those scales are not consistently

exhibited, and with increased self-awareness and developmental coaching, these

dysfunctional tendencies can be managed, limiting their negative influence on

performance. Further, low scores do not indicate the absence of performance concern,

Hogan and Hogan suggested that low scores may have negative implications as well and

may also be seen as a developmental opportunity. For these reasons, the authors suggest

that raw scores be interpreted under the careful consideration of the unique context and

consequently, developmental plans based on assessment results are most effective when

implemented in consultation with a mentor or coach.

Hogan, Hogan and Warrenfeltz (2007) explained that dysfunctional dispositions

only manifest and become a performance risk when people are not actively managing

their public image. In line with cognitive resources theory, an individual has is a limited

amount of cognitive resources and impression management requires cognitive resources

(Baumeister, Hutton, & Tice, 1989). When situations or tasks demand cognitive

resources, there are less available cognitive resources to support self-monitoring, which is

therefore impaired, as shown in the quasi-experimental study of Pontari and Schlenker

(2000). Situations of high cognitive demand include times of stress, organizational

change, multi-tasking, or task saturation. Alternatively, Hogan et al. (2007) explained that

dysfunctional dimensions can also show up when an individual does not feel the need for

self-monitoring, in cases when one has a feeling of over accomplishment and

overconfidence. Self-awareness is key to being effective at work, regardless of

personality strengths or dark side tendencies (Hogan & Warrenfeltz, 2003; Kaiser &

Kaplan, 2006; Mintzberg, 2004).

Self-awareness can be developed, as demonstrated in Kluger and DeNisi's (1996)

meta-analysis, when managers have the opportunity to receive feedback and understand

what others think of them, including specific examples of how derailers are exhibited,

this can enhance self-awareness and can promote desirable behavior change. However, raising awareness of dark-side tendencies is less common, perhaps because these traits are more difficult to assess than other personality traits. Most psychometric tests for dysfunctional personalities are not workplace-appropriate. The Hogan Development Survey (Hogan, 2009) and Questionnaire of Personality Styles (Moscoso & Salgado, 2004) are two exceptions which measure dark-side traits.

Fitting Multi-National Contexts in a Multi-Faceted Model

Following the contingency theories from 1960s-1980s, leadership research has taken the approach of understanding leadership based on context variables and interaction relationships (Yukl, 1981, 1989). From both perspectives, personality and leadership, more research is needed to fully grasp how these concepts hold across a global population. Leadership and dark side research intersect with the variable of context; both leadership and dark side personality can be better-understood by considering the cultural context.

Historically, leadership research and business practices have been very Western-centric, with empirical research predominantly referring to a sample representing a culture of individualism, which is action oriented (rather than contemplative) and pragmatic. Until the early 1990s, human resources practices in multinational organizations tended to be consistent with U.S. norms, rather than consistent with local culture norms (Rosenzweig & Nohria, 1994). The historical literature does not take into account the *histories and institutional peculiarities* (Bass, 1990) of other cultures, which has meaningful influence on the relationships between antecedents and effects. For example, Bass et al. (1979) found that manager nationality

accounts for differences in managers' goals, risk taking preferences, pragmatism, interpersonal competence, intelligence, emotional stability and leadership style. In addition, Griffeth, et al. (1980) found that nationality (categorized into cultural clusters) accounted for 52 percent of variance in managers' attitudes. Studies like these show how little we know about the interaction between leader traits and cultural context

The work of Van Velsor and Leslie's (1995) was among the early research that compared a multicultural population regarding characteristics of successful leadership and found very similar factors. Van Velsor and Leslie's study with the Center for Creative Leadership included interviews with 20 senior executives from U.S. based Fortune 500 companies, as well as 42 English-speaking executives from 24 companies in Belgium, Germany, France, Italy, the U.K. and Spain. Participants were asked to describe characteristics of both successful and unsuccessful leaders they had observed over time. Van Velsor and Leslie's analysis suggested that derailment is an individual development issue, not a values issue; the most important thing is interpersonal skills and the ability to adapt in order to lead to high performing teams. The authors suggest that interpersonal skills and the ability to adapt are universally important across environments. Their conclusions further suggested the demise of a leader's effectiveness in a new environment is not the result of any specific aspect of the environment, but rather the failure to adapt.

McCall and Hollenbeck (2002) found support for Van Velsor and Leslie's (1995) findings in their study of expatriate managers whose derailment seemed paradoxical. Finkelstein (2003) identified seven common habits of unsuccessful people, which largely dealt with the inability to adapt; unsuccessful people were known for being bold at the

cost of making reckless decisions and not open to ideas that challenged their own, while relying on outdated practices. Versatility may be more important now than in the past when one considers the prevalence of expatriate assignments, mergers and acquisitions, increased technology, and more sophisticated markets. Gentry and Chappelow (2009) found that others' ratings of manager's self-awareness was related to the manager's ability to adapt and keep up with the changing pace and challenges of their position, and the market, which becomes more stressful and difficult to manage relationships. Few leadership studies include both leader traits and measures of leader behavior which is guided by theory to explain leadership effectiveness (Yukl, 2006). This type of research is needed in order to interpret the relevance of specific traits by giving explanations of how these traits are expressed in terms of leader behavior.

Cultural Contingencies

Culture, as House et al. (2004) define it, as the culmination of shared motives, values, belief systems and ways of interpreting life experiences. These concepts are shared with other members of the same societal group and held consistent across generations. They go on to explain the origin of these deeply rooted and somewhat subconscious cultural values as resulting from shared environmental experiences or influence. Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) explained that the value of cultural research is the enlightenment it can provide by giving us a greater understanding of underlying patterns of functioning within a society; culture explains individuals' relation to authority, conception of the self and dilemmas of conflict. House, Javidan, Hanges and Dorfman (2002) suggested that the increased connectedness between cultures and societies has created an appetite for understanding cultural implications across

disciplines. Based on their synopsis of the relevant literature, researchers in psychology, sociology, economics and management are all striving to answer two questions; *what* aspects of human communities are different and, secondly, *why*.

Triandis (1993) suggested that cultural research is specifically needed to shed light on the cultural contingencies of leadership and organizational theories. Expectations of leaders, the behaviors they may exhibit, and the status that is assumed with leadership roles can all vary immensely, according to House, Wright and Aditya (1997), who suggested an effect of the cultural forces in the specific countries or regions. Dorfman (1996) also advocated for a more holistic approach to understanding leadership, specifically suggesting consideration of religion, language, ethnic background, history and political systems. Over the last few decades, as globalization of business has become more widespread, the study of international business has grown (Brewer & Venaik, 2010) and the understanding of global leadership and organizational practices is becoming increasingly important (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2010). In order to support research in this area, Triandis (1989), Hofstede (2001), and the GLOBE research collaboration (House et al., 2004) have provided models and frameworks to serve as a system of understanding culture in terms of various components or dimensions. Based on the research of Hofstede (1980) and the extensive GLOBE studies (House, et al., 2002), there are validated cultural value norm rating scores for countries and culture clusters on specific dimensions, allowing for researchers to code and group participants based on their country.

Comparison of Hofstede and GLOBE Research

While there is some conceptual overlap between Hofstede's Model and the GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness) Model in terms of dimensions and definitions, Javidan, House, Dorfman, Hanges and De Luque, (2006) outlined and articulated the vastly different methodology and development of these two prominent works in cross-cultural research. Following the publication of the GLOBE book (House, et al., 2004), which describes the GLOBE objectives and methods in detail, there has been a stream of debate surrounding the strengths and weaknesses in methodology of both Hofstede and GLOBE (Hofstede, 2006; Javidan et al., 2006; Chhokar, Brodbeck & House, 2007). Some of this debate has been in an effort to determine which is more accurate or valuable for research and practice (Hofstede, 2006). On the other hand, Javidan et al. (2006) takes a more diplomatic approach and recognized the pioneering work of Geert Hofstede, which began in 1968, and emphasizing that the GLOBE team's perspective is that no single researcher or research team should stake ownership of the cross-cultural research field. In one of GLOBE's (2007) more recently published books, the authors pointed out that Hofstede's work, despite its criticisms, has championed the campaign to bring cross-cultural research to the forefront of international business research. Based on a comparison review, Chhokar, et al. (2007) suggested that GLOBE built on the theoretical foundation of Hofstede and others to develop a new and improved model which they believe is a more updated approach to cross-cultural research and understanding organizational values and societies.

According to a review by Shi and Wang (2011), the work of Geert Hofstede began during his work in a large multi-national organization, initially including a sample

population representing 40 countries. Hofstede's method involved a paper and pencil cultural values questionnaire that was administered twice around 1968 and 1972. Shi and Wang further reported that Hofstede later extended his sample to include airline pilots, students, civil service managers, consumers and "elites" from additional countries, bringing the total survey data collection to around 116,000 questionnaires, with participants representing 74 countries and regions. Their review explained that Hofstede developed dimensions to assist in differentiating between cultures. The four dimensions originally developed in 1972 include: Power Distance (PDI), Individualism (IDV), Masculinity (MAS), and Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI). The addition of the fifth dimension, Shi and Wang (2011) assert, was a result of later use of the instrument with Chinese managers and employees, which suggested the need for a new dimension, Long-Term Orientation (LTO), based on Confucian dynamism.

Based on Hofstede's (2006) review and comparison of his research with the GLOBE research, there are seven primary differences: new data versus existing data, team versus single researcher, managers versus employees, theory-driven versus action-driven, US inspired versus decentered, organizational culture as similar of different in nature to/from societal culture, and national wealth as a part or as an antecedent of culture. Shi and Wang (2011) agreed that while there are obvious overlapping concepts, the methodology of the two approaches were quite different and Shi and Wang suggested that GLOBE appears to be an update or extension to the work done by Hofstede. Regardless of the preferred method, Shi and Wang encouraged future research that is less focused on value dimensions and more focused on linkage with perceptions, actions, and organizational structures, with emphasis on quantitative

methods to verify which cultural dimensions are most practical in understanding cross-cultural relationships.

GLOBE extended the work done by Hofstede in the way GLOBE defined culture (House, et al., 2004). Unlike Hofstede's previous cross-cultural research, the GLOBE considered within country differences and distinguished between sub-cultures within a single country in order to more accurately capture cultural nuances and reduce inaccuracies of generalization (such as East and West Germany). In some cases, the country population was divided based on the language spoken (House et al., 2004), which was suggested by Tang and Koveos (2008) to be an important characteristic in defining cultural clusters. Each division of culture was referred to as a *society*, as some countries were represented by more than one culture, thus multiple societies within the same country (House, et al., 2004).

GLOBE Overview

In addition to the need for practical knowledge and applied cross-cultural research, Dorfman (1996) identified a research gap from a scientific and theoretical perspective and the need to develop universally valid theories that would take into consideration the importance of religion, language, ethnic background, history and political systems. House et al. (1999, 2002, 2004, 2007) has furthered leadership research by means of understanding cultural implications and fine-tuning parameters of existing theories by incorporating cultural variables as antecedents or moderators as suggested by Triandis (1993). The GLOBE team was founded in 1991 by Robert House, the Principle Investigator, who received grant funding in 1993 which lead to recruitment of Country Co-Investigators, including 170 social scientists and management scholars from 61

cultures representing all major regions of the world (House et al., 1999). Based on their firm belief that effective cultural research required expert knowledge of all countries under investigation, House et al. (1999) developed a large network of what they termed Country Co-Investigators (CCIs). This collaborative research effort aimed at developing theory and practical ideas for effective operation and leadership in an increasingly globalized economy (House, et al., 2004). House, et al. explain that their research over the last decade has been an effort to close this knowledge gap and develop practical knowledge and advice to assist international operations in adapting to cultural constraints, especially the challenges of leadership.

In the initial GLOBE work, 17,000 managers from 951 organizations from various industries were included, representing 62 societies (House, et al., 2004). In their comparative review of the different models, Shi and Wang (2011) explained the uniqueness of the GLOBE sample, which included Egypt, Namibia, Nigeria, Zambia and Zimbabwe, and that inclusion was based on recent economic growth in these countries. In Europe, Estonia, Luxembourg, Malta, Norway and Romania were excluded. In Asia, Kazakhstan, Kuwait and Qatar were included, though the Arab World (Egypt, Iraq, Kuwait, Lebanon. Libya, Saudi Arabia and United Arab Emirates), Bangladesh, Pakistan, and Vietnam were excluded. Overall, Hofstede represented more of the Asian regions, while GLOBE more adequately captured a variety of European data-driven diversity within countries (Shi & Wang, 2011).

In the overview of their research methods, House et al. (2004) explained that Country Co-Investigators took the lead for the work done in specific countries where they were the named expert. Their work within their country of expertise may include writing

items, collecting quantitative or qualitative data, ensuring accurate translation, interpreting results and providing perspective based on expertise. Expertise was usually determined by two criteria: being a native of that culture and residing in that country; but in some cases one investigator may be a designated expert for multiple cultures. As a collective group, the research team is referred to as the GLOBE community and the continuing research, both quantitative and qualitative, over the course of many years is all considered GLOBE research and part of the overall multi-phased project (House, et al., 2004).

House, Javidan, Hanges and Dorfman (2002) explained that the meta-goal of the GLOBE research program is to describe, understand, and predict the impact of specific cultural variables on leadership and organizational processes and the effectiveness of these processes based on empirically theory. They go on to report that in 1994 the first GLOBE conference was held, bringing together researchers representing 38 countries. It was at this meeting when the research team developed operational definitions to reflect the diverse viewpoints. As a result of these deliberations, House et al. focused on organizational leadership rather than leadership in general and operationally defined leadership as "the ability of an individual to influence, motivate and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organizations of which they are members" (p. 5). They defined culture as "shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives and are transmitted across age generations" (p. 5). GLOBE researchers explained that measures reflect two kinds of cultural manifestations: commonalities among members of groups with respect to psychological attributes and

commonality of observed and reported practices of groups and organizations (House, et al., 2002). The team's overarching questions covered the following topics: what behaviors, attributes and organizational practices are universally or differentially accepted or effective; how does culture affect behaviors that are accepted or effective; what is the effect of violating norms relative to leadership; and what are the cultural differences that are most important for consideration.

According to House et al. (1999), GLOBE research goals are twofold: etic (explaining and comparing what is similar or different between cultures) and emic (explaining why there are differences and their relationship with leader and organizational effectiveness). House et al. (2004) stated that GLOBE methods include: qualitative research, providing insightful narrative around cultural influences and organizational processes, and quantitative methods as a rigorous scientifically grounded way to measure societal culture, organizational culture, leadership attributes and behaviors. They claim that their robust methodology, including multiple methods and multiple sources, is an advantage in that it reduces common method variance and adds to the strength of the overall findings and implications. In their introductory article, House, et al. (2002) explained that the multi-phase approach was designed to build upon each previous phase, meaning that each phase would inform and provide a foundation for the next phase, beginning with phase one: development of research instruments.

House et al. (1999) explained that the initial phase was aimed at developing measures of culture and leader attributes that are appropriate to use across all cultures. GLOBE focuses on *sharedness* among members of the collective, specifically the "shared motives, values, beliefs, identities and interpretations or meanings of significant events"

(House et al., 2002, p. 5). The psychological attributes are applied at both the societal and organizational levels. According to House et al. (2004), societal culture includes the following characteristics: common language, belief system (usually tied to religious and political belief systems), heritage and history. Distinct from societal culture, organizational culture, by their definition, refers to the shared values, history and norms within that organization. In this context, they believe that culture refers to cultural manifestations of two kinds: (a) commonality among members of collective in regards to psychological attributes of motives, values, beliefs, identities and interpretations of events and (b) commonality of observable practices or behaviors of groups (e.g., families, schools, work organizations, economic/legal systems or political groups).

For many years Hofstede's (1980) five cultural dimensions have been the standard of defining cultural consistencies or differences. GLOBE developed items based on the foundational work of Hofstede (1980), Schwartz (1994), and others, as well as taking into consideration the criticisms of Hofstede's dimensions. Based on existing culture theory and data from the research of others, nine dimensions were developed. The nine GLOBE cultural dimensions overlap with Hofstede's (1980) dimensions, but as House et al. (1999) explain, the GLOBE dimensions differ in the definition and measurement of a few particular dimensions. As House and colleagues explained, Hofstede's dimension of Masculinity/Femininity was deconstructed and separated into three components: Gender Egalitarianism, Humane Orientation, and Assertiveness. Hofstede's dimension of Individualism/Collectivism was divided into Collectivism I and Collectivism II, which House et al. distinguished as the differences between the institutional practices of rewarding collective action, versus the pride, loyalty and

cohesiveness of individuals within a family or organization. Their broader, more comprehensive perspective also takes into account David McClelland's theories of national economic development and human motivation. Future Orientation focuses on the temporal mode of society and is derived from earlier research on human nature, civic society and the affiliation motive.

After extensive literature review and interviews and focus groups in multiple countries, items were written by the team based on these nine dimensions (House et al., 2004). Items were developed in a quartet fashion; House et al. (1999) explained that each value statement was presented in four ways based on frame of reference (either societal or organizational) and in terms of reality or ideals. Questionnaire participants responded to questionnaire items in terms of *What Should Be* as well as *What is*, or *What Are*. House et al. (1999) explained that their research combined both an anthropological and psychological approach to evaluating culture by assessing culture based on values and practices. They also considered their research to have an advantage in that they measured both organizational and societal group levels.

In their pool of 753 items; this included 382 leadership items and 371 societal and organizational culture items (House, et al. 1999). Items were screened using a Q-sort method, item evaluation and translation/back translation. Their item sorters included Ph.D. students from the University of Maryland as well as CCIs representing 38 countries. The authors reported that there was 80% agreement for the majority of items for each dimension, which suggested these items were judged to have the same meaning across raters and across cultures. Items were also evaluated based on any problematic wording, translation issues or culturally sensitive language; problematic items were either

removed or rewritten. To avoid bias that may exist when participants complete a survey that is not in their native language, the questionnaires went through translation/back translation process. Participants included 17,000 middle managers from across the globe, representing three industries: food services, financial services and telecommunications services. Two pilots were conducted to replicate the findings from the first administration with a different sample. Psychometric analysis of these items and responses justified the resulted in the establishment of nine dimensions of organizational/societal culture (see Table 1).

Table 1

GLOBE Cultural Dimensions and Definitions

Power Distance	The degree to which members of a collective expect power to be distributed equally.
Uncertainty Avoidance	The extent to which a society, organization, or group relies on social norms, rules and procedures to alleviate unpredictability of future events.
Humane Orientation	The degree to which a collective encourages and rewards individuals for being fair, altruistic, generous, caring and kind to others.
Collectivism I (Institutional)	The degree to which organizational and societal institutional practices encourage and reward collective distribution of resources and collective action.
Collectivism II (In-Group)	The degree to which individuals are assertive, confrontational, and aggressive in their relationships with others.
Assertiveness	The degree to which individuals are assertive in their relationships with others.
Gender Egalitarianism	The degree to which a collective minimizes gender inequality
Future Orientation	The extent to which individuals engage in future-oriented behaviors such as delaying gratification, planning, and investing in the future.
Performance Orientation	The degree to which a collective encourages and rewards group members for performance improvement and excellence.

Note: Adapted from House et al., 2004

After developing the nine dimensions, House et al. (2004) reported that GLOBE researchers grouped 61 societies into ten cultural clusters based on similar response patterns on the questionnaire, indicating similarities in values. House et al. (2004) visually represented the cultural clusters in a pie graph with each piece of the pie representing a distinct cultural cluster. Countries categorized within the same cluster are considered to hold very similar cultural values; adjacent clusters have somewhat similar cultural values, cultural differences increase the further clusters are apart. For example, the Anglo cluster (of which the United States of America is a part) would be most different from the Middle Eastern cluster (which includes the countries of Turkey, Kuwait, Egypt, Morocco and Qatar).

According to House et al. (2004), GLOBE focused on societies rather than countries, as their data showed that there are distinct cultural differences within some countries, therefore some countries may be included in more than one cluster with a distinction based on subset of country sample. For example, Switzerland is divided based on French- or German-Speaking and South Africa is split based on White and Black ethnicity. These ten cultural clusters provided a framework for the next phase which investigated similarities and dissimilarities between societies and their perceptions of qualities of effective leaders, based on cultural-level implicit theories of leadership. As Leadership Categorization Theory (Lord & Maher, 1991) explains, everyone has an implicit idea of what leaders are or should be. These ideas are shaped by one's culture and upbringing which includes early experiences and exposure to examples of leaders which creates a standard of what constitutes a good or effective leader.

GLOBE analyzed responses of more than 17,000 middle managers who rated 112 leader characteristics in terms of their desirableness as a quality associated with an outstanding leader (House, et al., 2007). The theoretical framework for understanding cultural differences in the endorsement of leadership behaviors is grounded in implicit leadership theory (Lord & Maher, 1991), value theory of culture (Hofstede, 1980) implicit motivation theory (McClelland, 1985) and structural contingency theory of organizational form and effectiveness (Donaldson, 1993; Hickson, Hinings, McMillan, & Schwitter, 1974).

Lord and Maher's (1991) work on implicit leadership theory explains that individuals have beliefs, convictions and assumptions about the attributes and behaviors that distinguish leaders from non-leaders and differentiate the good leaders from the bad leaders. As Hofstede (1980) explained, one's internal values and beliefs influence the degree to which behaviors are enacted, accepted and effective. Lord and Maher (1991) clarified that these implicit theories can both consciously and subconsciously shapes how individuals understand and evaluate qualities, motives and behaviors of a particular leader. Acceptance of a leader is based on the congruence or fit between the individual's implicit theories and the exhibited behaviors or characteristics of the leader. Implicit leadership theories then influence the leader's ability to influence and be effective in general (Lord & Maher, 1991; Hanges, Lord, Day, Sipe, Smith, & Brown, 1997; Sipe & Hanges, 1997). McClelland et al. stated that implicit motives predict motive-arousal in the absence of stimuli and predict long-term individual behavior patterns. Similar to implicit motivation theory, GLOBE proposed that non-conscious motivations, resulting

from cultural forces, influence one's behaviors and perception of others (House, et al., 1999).

Based on the integration of these aforementioned theories, GLOBE proposed a theoretical model that shows the qualities that make a culture unique are predictive of organizational practices, in addition to characteristics and behaviors of leaders; and these cultural qualities influence the extent to which those characteristics or behaviors are exhibited, accepted and effective (House, et al., 1999). Based on this integration of theory, GLOBE presented 13 specific propositions (see Appendix H). Essentially, House et al. asserted that societal cultural values influence leader behaviors as well as organizational norms and practices. At the same time, leadership affects organizational norms and practices. Additionally, they stated that strategic organizational contingencies influence organizational norms and the type of leaders who are selected, or self-selected into the organization. Societal culture moderates these relationships as well. House and colleagues pointed out that the effectiveness of a leader is partially dependent on organizational contingencies, but also influenced by the acceptance of the leader, both of which are influenced by societal culture.

Items for GLOBE research were written at the organizational and societal level and reflected two manifestations of culture: the "as is" and the "should be". Questions asked about actual current practices as well as values or ideals. Psychometric analysis from the two pilot studies generated 16-dimension factor structure, however findings from later interviews and focus group research led to the addition of additional items not originally included, resulting in five additional subscales (House, et al., 2004). This provided the total 21 leadership scales which used in the hypotheses testing in Phase two

(House, et al., 2004). Within their original item pool of 753 items; 382 were leadership items. GLOBE (2004) developed this pool of leadership items based on attributes described in existing leadership theories, including behavioral and attitude descriptors. Participants in their study rated each of the given attitudes or behavior descriptors on a seven point Likert-scale, with one being "This behavior or characteristic greatly inhibits a person from being an outstanding leader", to seven being "This behavior or characteristic contributes greatly to a person being an outstanding leader". Their highest scoring items (indicating the most desirable leadership traits) included integrity, inspirational, visionary and performance-oriented (House, et al., 2004). Conversely, malevolent, self-centered, autocratic and non-participative were all considered undesirable traits for leaders to possess. While these highest and lowest scoring items may seem intuitive, the mid-range scoring items are more interesting in terms of differences in perceived importance of attributes, which include conflict inducer, procedural, autonomous and face saver (see Table 2 for a complete listing).

Table 2

Leadership Descriptors and Average Ratings from GLOBE

Integrity (6.07)	Humane (4.78)
Inspirational (6.07)	Status conscious (4.34)
Visionary (6.02)	Conflict inducer (3.97)
Performance-oriented (6.02)	Procedural (3.87)
Team-integrator (5.88)	Autonomous (3.85)
Decisive (5.80)	Face saver (2.92)
Administratively competent (5.76)	Non-participative (2.66)
Diplomatic (5.49)	Autocratic (2.65)
Collaborative team orientation (5.46)	Self-centered (2.17)
Self-sacrificial (5.0)	Malevolent (1.80)
Modesty (4.98)	

Note. Ratings are based on a 7-point scale (1= least desirable, 7= most desirable).

Interrelation between the 21 factors created a need for a second-order structure. The 21 leadership scales were statistically and conceptually reduced to six leadership styles including: performance-oriented, team-oriented, participative, humane, autonomous and self-protective (and group-protective). These second-order factors are referred to as *global cluster leadership types* or *styles* as they are representative of a group of behaviors rather than discrete behaviors.

GLOBE (2004) grouped culture clusters into high/medium/low preference for each of the six leadership styles based on statistically significant differences in preferences. The order of listing within each segment is relevant in terms of the degree of importance of that leadership style for that cluster group. For example, performance oriented is the most important style for countries in the Anglo cluster. Deeper analysis of the 65 leader traits that make up these six leader styles indicates that there are universally desirable characteristics, universally undesirable traits, as well as 35 *culturally contingent* characteristics (see Table 3). The culturally contingent traits are the particular area of interest for further exploration in this proposed study.

Table 3

Culturally Contingent Leadership Characteristics from GLOBE

Anticipatory	Habitual	Risk taker
Ambitious	Independent	Ruler
Autonomous	Indirect	Self-effacing
Cautious	Individualistic	Self-sacrificial
Class conscious	Intra-group competitor	Sensitive
Compassionate	Intra-group conflict avoider	Sincere
Cunning	Intuitive	Status conscious
Domineering	Logical	Subdued
Elitist	Micro-manager	Unique
Enthusiastic	Orderly	Willful
Evasive	Procedural	Worldly
Formal	Provocateur	

In the next phase, GLOBE tested hypotheses regarding; (a) relationships between

societal culture dimensions, organizational culture dimensions and CLTs, (b)

relationships specified by structural contingency theory of organizational form and

effectiveness, and (c) the moderating effects of societal culture dimensions on

relationships specified by structural contingency theory and (d) the moderating effects of

societal cultural dimensions on relationships specified by structural contingency theory.

The culturally contingent leadership items leave room for further explanation of

the cultural values and preferences for leader traits. Understanding these nuances

provides a basis for selecting and developing more effective leaders in specific contexts.

Perhaps more importantly, investigating these Culturally Contingent Characteristics may

bring understanding of the differential antecedents of leadership failure, based on cultural

values. Research supports the relationship between culture and behaviors perceived as

effective or desirable (Gerstner & Day, 1994). Specifically, Japanese favor a leader who

is fair, flexible, a good listener, outgoing and responsible; Americans favor leaders who

embody honesty, show intelligence and understanding, verbal skills and determination

(O'Connel, Lord & O'Connel, 1990). GLOBE (2004) hypothesizes that the effectiveness

of the following leadership styles will be influenced by specific cultural dimensions (See

Table 4).

Table 4

GLOBE's Proposed Mapping of Leadership Styles to Related Cultural Dimensions

Leadership Style	Cultural Dimension
Charismatic/Value Based	• Performance Orientation • Future Orientation • Humane Orientation
Team Oriented	• Collectivism I • Collectivism II • Humane Orientation • Assertiveness • Uncertainty Avoidance
Participative	• Assertiveness • Power Distance • Humane Orientation • Power Distance
Humane Orientation	• Humane Orientation • Gender Egalitarianism
Autonomous	• Collectivism I • Collectivism II
Self-Protective	• Humane Orientation • Power Distance • Uncertainty Avoidance

While the previously mentioned literature explains the research supporting the

influence of personality on leadership style, GLOBE (2004) hypothesized that cultural

dimensions also influence the effectiveness of leadership styles. With this in mind, one

might also hypothesize that cultural dimensions may influence the effectiveness of

certain leader personality traits. For example, in the United States where there is an

individualistic, assertive, performance driven culture, leaders tend to have high scores on

Bold, Mischievous and Colorful (Hogan, Hogan, & Warrenfeltz, 2007); however, these personality traits may not be seen as favorably in other contexts. Based on cultural values, leader personality traits of Cautious, Reserved and Skeptical may be acceptable and advantageous to leaders in cultures with high uncertainty avoidance and high power distance; whereas dutiful may be more common in collectivistic cultures.

Before the prevalence of the GLOBE studies, leadership researchers Van Velsor and Leslie (1995) continued the work of the Center for Creative Leadership and interviewed senior executives in the United States and Europe to compare their descriptions of failing managers who they have observed. There were some overarching themes among their descriptions across cultures, such as problems with interpersonal relationships, failure to meet business objectives, failure to build and lead a team, and inability to change or adapt during a transition. However, Van Velsor and Leslie did not assess subordinates' perception of managers and did not evaluate any objective measure of performance. The summary of their findings suggested that derailment may result from a general inability to adapt in a new culture, but not specific features or ways of being associated with a specific environment.

Integrating Culture and Personality into Contingency Leadership Model

Without dismissing the influence of leader traits and understanding leadership behaviors, some contingency theorists believe that it is naïve to assume that any given individual quality would produce the same exact effect across all situations with any given group of subordinates. Jordan, Ashton-James and Ashkanasy (2006) suggest that researchers should consider traits and skills of leaders in the broader context of the group

and the organization. For further consideration, there are *strong* and *weak* situations, which either increase or decrease the strength of a trait's influence on specific criteria (Mischel, 1973). Benson and Campbell (2007) demonstrated that personality dimensions do not always have linear relationships with supervisor and subordinate ratings of leadership performance, further suggesting researchers that utilize more advanced methods in hypotheses testing.

In their review of leadership trait theories, Judge et al. (2009) identified three underlying perspectives for building the theoretical linkage for a new model that explain why leadership traits are not universally effective and why traits may not necessarily have linear relationships with performance. They point out that evolutionary psychology explains why certain leader traits are more effective and why traits that predict leader emergence do not necessarily predict leader effectiveness. Again, they emphasized that it is the context weeds out the weak from the strong. In the absence of conflict and challenges, when resources are abundant, leadership success does not depend on the leader so much. However, the authors continue, the strength of leadership is really tested when there is a high pressure, challenging situation, which prompts a survival of the fittest. They also explain that *fittest* is not universally defined; what is an advantage in one context could be a detriment in another context.

As Judge, et al. (2009) explain, multiple factors influence which traits are expressed, which behaviors are advantageous, and how different outcomes can result. Their model explains that effectiveness of a leader (e.g., their individual and unit level performance and survival) is based on leader traits as well as influenced by several potential moderators: implicit leadership theories, subordinate traits, availability or

scarcity of resources, internal or external situational stress or threats and the broader culture. The relative advantage of a particular trait in a particular context can be explained in terms of context *fit*. When two parties share similar ideas, values, personal interests, needs and aspirations there is considered good *fit* (Markman & Baron, 2003). Congruence between personal and organizational characteristics, and has been shown to increase group cohesion, employee satisfaction, group productivity and employee retention (Verquer, Beehr, & Wagner, 2003). Based on the function of attraction-selection-attrition (ASA), there tends to be a great deal of similarity of leader personality characteristics within a given organization, and across organizations, within the same industry (Schneider, Smith, Taylor, & Fleenor, 1998). On a smaller scale, person-group fit refers congruence or harmony within a specific group of coworkers or subordinates. Compatibility between values of superiors and their subordinates is associated with and favorable subordinate ratings of managers' performance (Pulakos & Wexley, 1983).Whether it be organization, occupation, culture, class, or ethnicity, followers are more likely to accept leaders of the group that they identify themselves with and when they feel that the leader embodies the values of that group (Hogg, 2001) and similarity makes a leader more favorable to their followers.

In terms of fitting in the context and being an accepted and effective leader, one may need to take into consideration the individual identity of the subordinates. One key aspect of identity is values, which is defined as "desirable states, objects, goals, or behaviors transcending specific situations and applied as normative standards to judge and to choose among alternative modes of behavior" (Schwartz, 1994, p. 2). Values are understood to be enduring internal criteria used to generate and evaluate behaviors,

cognitions and affect; this internal criteria transcends situations and provides a sense of purpose or reason for an individual's behavior (Lord & Brown, 2001). Brewer and Gardner (1996) explained that the value system Schwartz (1992) defined is linked to two basic levels of self-concept, the independent self and social self. These levels of self-concepts are part of the self-regulation mechanism, based on goals and motivations (Brewer & Gardner, 1996). They explained that the independent level of self refers to how the self is understood in terms of its separation of difference from others, while the social self refers to connection, or bond, with other people. These two levels of self-concept are related to the values of power and self-direction, versus tradition, benevolence, security and conformity (Oishi, Schmmack, Diener & Suh, 1998). The self-concept regulates behavior, cognition and affect, with different parts of the self-concept salient, depending on the situation (Brewer & Gardner, 1996). The working self-concept affects intrapersonal and interpersonal processes, including the internal processing of information, affect and motivations as well as the social interactions and judgment of others (Markus & Wurf, 1987), and this influence occurs without the individual's complete awareness.

Subordinates in different contexts may also vary in terms of cognitive structures. Lord and Brown (2001) explained, leaders can either reinforce a behavior by priming a structure that already exists, making it more readily available, or a leader may develop a new cognitive structure for subordinates by repeated priming of a new valued behavior. However, when value congruence is not present between leaders and their subordinates, there can be ambiguity or conflict. These value differences have been further investigated in terms of cultural embeddedness and the contrast between countries (Triandis, 1989),

and disparities between genders (Gabriel & Gardner, 1999). Priming cognitive structures and having effective leadership influence becomes a challenge when the leader and subordinates represent different cultures with incongruent values (Lord & Brown, 2001).

Implicit leadership theories are similar to values and cognitive structures, in that they are an internal mechanism that (sometimes sub-consciously) influences one's perceptions, behaviors and reactions to the behaviors of others. These are personally held beliefs and assumptions about what characteristics make an effective leader (Eden & Leviatan, 1975) and, similar to cultural values, are developed over time as a result of experiences, exposures and social, political and cultural influences (Lord, Brown, Harvey, & Hall, 2001). Given the nature of implicit leadership theory and the way in which cultural values are developed, these are typically shared among societal groups. Specific expectations may vary based on the specific leadership position or level of position, the organizational context as well as the leader attributes (e.g., gender). As Yulk (2006) explains, implicit leadership theories interact with perceived leader competence and satisfaction with the leader to influence subordinate ratings of leader effectiveness. These subconscious expectations around leadership influence how a subordinate perceives observed behaviors, and how they recall these observations to report or provide ratings.

Based on Leader-Member Exchange research, we know the importance of perceived likability when it comes to a leader influencing a subordinate's career opportunities and development (Yukl, 2006). The research gap seems to be in understanding the reverse: subordinates' perceptions of the leader and how conscious or subconscious preferences influence the effectiveness of the leader (Yukl, 2006). In an

exploratory research of the developmental aspect of leader-follower interactions, Valcea, Hamdani, Buckley, & Novicevic (2011) reiterated the important role of followers in the development of leaders, explaining that both leaders and followers influence the development of sense-making of their counterparts in the leader-follower dyad.

Social Exchange Theory explains that this reciprocal relationship involves more than just material benefits; psychological components of the exchange include approval, respect, affection and esteem (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). The perceived competence and evaluated potential of a leader will determine the status and expert power afforded to them by subordinates (French & Raven, 1959). Position power, or legitimate power, may come with the role, but French and Raven explained that referent power and expert power can be gained or lost based on subordinate perceptions and leadership performance. The success or failure of leadership depends on the leader's ability to influence and lead the performance of their team.

In Eastern cultures influenced by Confucianism and Buddhism, individuals are guided by shame rather than guilt and are more accepting of paternalistic authority (Bedford & Hwang, 2003). Goals and challenges, as well as successes or failures, are shared by the group (Metzger, 1977). In collectivistic cultures it is more important to work and fulfil a duty than to have leisure time or personal enjoyment. Following guidelines and complying with authority is more desired than personal achievement. There is a greater sense of loyalty to family, community, society or organization and top-down leadership is more accepted. At the same time, the leader is expected to seek harmony and achieve group consensus in decision making. Bedford and Hwang (2003) described this strong value for harmony as core to the culture; "No person ever has just

cause to disrupt group harmony, as disruption impacts everyone's identity." (p. 131).. A high Dutiful and Diligent leader may be preferred in a culture with high values of In Group Collectivism and Uncertainty Avoidance. In a study of individuals in a high Power Distance culture, subordinates reported to be less open in their interactions with their supervisor and described the supervision style as being task-oriented (Bochner & Hesketh, 1994) which may suggest an advantage for high Diligent leaders. This would also suggest that a leader with a Bold personality may not be as favorable in these contexts of high Power Distance and high Collectivism values, where leaders tend to be reserved and conservative.

In some Latin-American countries there is a common pattern of leadership and decision making that is characterized by rapid decision making and the authority given to leaders to make rapid decisions where Anglo-American leaders are reportedly more apt to gather more information before coming to a decision (Heller & Yukl, 1969). There is a tendency towards action, with less regard for meticulous planning. Individuals in collectivistic culture are more interested in prevention of loss and keeping promises, while individualistic cultures are more concerned with pursuing aspirations and ideals (Lee, Aaker & Gardner, 2000). Additionally, North American managers are considered more aggressive risk takers than leaders outside of North America (Ronen, 1986). Hofstede (1980) referred to this aspect of culture as avoidance of uncertainty, which at high levels would suggest that individuals are uncomfortable with unpredictable, ambiguous situations. In terms of GLOBE dimensions, Uncertainty Avoidance involves avoiding risks and valuing sure plans. A high Bold leader may be effective in a low

Uncertainty Avoidance context, but a high Cautious leader may be preferred in a high Uncertainty Avoidance cultural context.

The existing culture research primarily looks at differences between individualistic and collectivistic culture, but as Kirkman, Lowe and Gibson (2006) explain, there is a great opportunity to explore the significance of other aspects of culture and the variance they account for, particularly Power Distance. What remains to be explored is the unique aspects of cultural context that and the culture-personality interaction effect with aspects of the leader's personality to create a model of leadership effectiveness (House & Aditya, 1997). GLOBE provided data which suggested that a great deal of leader characteristics are culturally-contingent (House, et al., 2007), leaving room to question in what cultural contexts *dark side* traits may indeed be not-so-dark. Furthermore, while the GLOBE provided a valuable theoretical foundation for cultural studies, its practical utility is limited. In a practical sense, research using a personality assessment that is already widely used in organizations could provide significant practical utility in understanding cultural differences in leadership effectiveness.

The current study took a contingency theory approach in an attempt to provide further understanding of the unique leader personality-performance relationships in various cultural contexts. Specifically, this study attempted to extend the personality literature by increasing contextual understanding of dark side personality traits of leadership. Additionally, the current study purposed toadd to the practical utility of the GLOBE cultural values framework by identifying relationships between GLOBE value dimensions and Hogan personality dimensions, based on the Hogan assessments, the most widely used personality assessment for organizational applied settings. Based on the

body of global leadership research, certain personality traits are suggested to be more conducive to leader effectiveness in certain cultural conditions.

Hypotheses

The three major hypotheses groups propose a curvilinear trait-performance relationship moderated by a specific aspect of cultural context. The three major hypotheses groups involve the three culturally contingent HDS dimensions pre-selected by an expert panel. For each of the three personality dimensions in the analysis, GLOBE cultural values were tested as potential moderators based on what the existing culture literature would suggest to be relevant (as described above). There are eight minor hypotheses to test GLOBE's cultural dimensions as moderators; each minor hypothesis specifies a particular dimension of cultural context as a moderator in the relationship between personality and performance.

Hypothesis 1: There is a curvilinear relationship between managers' Bold personality and subordinate's feedback regarding managers performance, with higher feedback ratings associated with manager's who have moderate levels of Bold scores.

Hypothesis 1a: Assertiveness cultural values moderate and increase the linear relationship between managers' Bold personality and manager feedback, such that in a high Assertiveness context Bold manager personality is positively related to manager feedback.

Hypothesis 1b: In-Group Collectivism cultural values moderate the curvilinear relationship between managers' Bold personality and manager feedback, such that

in a high In-Group Collectivism context Bold manager personality is negatively related to manager feedback.

Hypothesis 1c: Uncertainty Avoidance cultural values moderate the curvilinear relationship between managers' Bold personality and manager feedback, such that in a high Uncertainty Avoidance context Bold manager personality is negatively related to manager feedback.

Hypothesis 2: There is a curvilinear relationship between managers' Cautious personality and subordinate feedback regarding manager performance, with higher manager feedback ratings at moderate levels of Cautious scores.

Hypothesis 2a: Assertiveness cultural values moderate and flatten the curvilinear relationship between managers' Cautious personality and manager feedback, such that in a high Assertiveness context Cautious manager personality is negatively related to manager feedback.

Hypotheses 2b: Uncertainty Avoidance cultural values moderate and flatten the curvilinear relationship between managers' Cautious personality and manager feedback, such that in a high Uncertainty Avoidance context Cautious personality is positively related to manager feedback.

Hypothesis 3: There is a curvilinear relationship between managers' Diligent personality and subordinate feedback regarding manager performance, with higher performance ratings at moderate levels of Bold scores.

Hypothesis 3a: In-Group Collectivism cultural values moderate the curvilinear relationship between Diligent personality and subordinate feedback, such that in a

high Collectivism context, Diligent personality is positively related to manager feedback.

Hypotheses 3b: Uncertainty Avoidance cultural values moderate the curvilinear relationship between Diligent personality and manager feedback, such that in a high Uncertainty Avoidance context Diligent personality is positively related manager feedback.

Hypotheses 3c: Power Distance cultural values moderate the curvilinear relationship between Diligent personality and manager feedback, such that in a high Power Distance context Diligent personality is positively related to manager feedback.

CHAPTER TWO

ANALYSIS

The archival data used for testing hypotheses were provided by a multinational, Fortune 50-organization in the consumer packaged goods industry. Archival personnel records included demographic data, manager personality assessment data, as well manager feedback from subordinates. In addition to variables provided by the organizational data, cultural context was an added variable for each manager.

Panel Survey

The current literature provides links between leader characteristics and cultural context but does not provide evidence that suggests relationships between specific HDS dimensions and GLOBE culture dimensions. An expert panel was used to narrow the focus of the study to three HDS dimensions through a two-step process of rating and elimination. Six subject matter experts were recruited to allow for three SMEs in each of the two survey groups. Each SME went through only one survey process which prevented overburdening and dropout of SME volunteers. Qualifications of selection of SMEs included their depth of knowledge and professional experience with the Hogan personality instruments. All of the SMEs were trained and certified by Hogan to interpret assessment reports and provide feedback and coaching based on the Hogan personality assessments.

In order to understand which HDS dimensions may be *dark* or *not-so-dark* depending on cultural context, a content validation process was used which involved two steps: selection of relevant HDS dimensions and rating of the extent of their relevance. In the initial step, an online survey was sent out to the three experts who were asked to draw from their expert knowledge of the HDS to determine which leadership characteristics (from GLOBE's list of culturally-contingent leadership characteristics) could potentially relate to HDS dimensions, based on the conceptual definition of each dimension. The panelists were subject matter experts in Hogan personality assessments but were not aware that the characteristics in the survey were predetermined to be culturally contingent, based on GLOBE studies. The panel was not under the assumption that they were determining culturally-relevant HDS dimensions. The instructions only asked for experts to match leader characteristics with HDS dimensions on the basis of conceptual similarity. If the expert felt that the leader characteristic was conceptually associated with an HDS dimension then the expert would endorse the HDS dimension that was relevant to that leader characteristic.

After the three experts had completed the first survey, the results were scored (see Appendix B for survey results). Rater agreement was established when at least two of the three expert panelists agreed that a given characteristic matched with a specific HDS dimension. Rater agreement established the reason for the characteristic to remain assigned to that dimension. After confirming assigned characteristics, based on rater agreement, the frequency of endorsement was counted as the number of characteristics assigned to each HDS dimension. The five most frequently endorsed dimensions were Bold, Reserved, Cautious, Dutiful and Diligent (see appendix A).

The five HDS dimensions selected in step one were carried to the next phase in the SME panel process with the second group of SMEs in order to avoid participant burnout of the SME volunteers. In the second step of the expert survey process, another survey was created and sent to the three new SMEs based on the first group's endorsements in step one. In this second phase, SMEs were presented with each dimension (i.e., Bold, Reserved, Cautious, Diligent and Dutiful) and given a list of the characteristics that were endorsed and received rater agreement from the previous step. For each of the characteristics assigned to each dimension, panelists were asked to score each characteristic in terms of the extent of its relevance or similarity to the HDS dimension. Characteristics were rated on a bipolar seven-point scale ranging from negative three to positive three. Positive associations were rated from one to three, negative associations were rated from negative one to negative three (no relevance was rated at the midpoint of zero). The absolute value of the independent relevance ratings of the each expert panelist were summed across raters. The sums of ratings for all characteristics assigned to a dimension were then summed to determine an overall relevance score (See Table 5). The three highest-scoring HDS dimensions were Bold, Cautious and Diligent; there were considered to be most relevant to GLOBE's culturally-contingent leader characteristics and therefore chosen as the focus of the hypotheses.

Table 5

SMEs Ratings of Cultural Relevance

HDS (dimension and rating from Step 1)	Bold (15)	Cautious (10)	Diligent (10)	Dutiful (10)	Reserved (10)
Overall relevance score	99	45	52	42	38

Participants

The archival dataset included managers as well as their subordinates. The managers represented mid-level and executive management roles, specializing in various functions within the organization. The dataset included 29,531 matched pairs of manager personality and subordinate ratings of manager performance. The manager group was comprised of 71.5 percent males and 27.6 percent females and 0.9 percent of cases with gender data unavailable. The group of subordinate raters represented a gender division of 58.8 percent males and 36.7 percent females and 4.5 percent of cases with gender data unavailable. In terms of job level, the sample was representative of the organization's population at the specific levels eligible for the Hogan process, given that this particular development process is targeted for certain levels in the organization. The largest groups were in the lower executive levels, which is when employees are generally nominated to participate in the Hogan assessment and development process. The job level distribution shows only a small portion of the sample at the highest executive job level, which is representative of the organization's employee population. Diversity of job function was represented with participants included from Sales (26.9%), Operations (18.5%), Finance (12.8%) and Marketing (8.5%); participant dispersion representative of the organization's workforce at large. Overall, the participants included in the dataset represented 39 countries, with the largest groups of employees located in the United States (52.6%), Mexico (8%), Canada (5%), India (3.5%), Russia (3.7%), the United Kingdom (2.8%) and China (2.4%). Again, this geographical dispersion is representative of the organization's workforce at large. Based on the GLOBE cultural dimensions, the

countries included in this study represented a diverse sample with a range of scores on each of the nine dimensions (see Table 6).

Table 6

GLOBE Value Dimensions for Sample

GLOBE Value Dimension	Sample Minimum	Sample Maximum
Assertiveness	2.68	5.52
Institution Collectivism	3.84	5.57
In Group Collectivism	5.11	6.54
Future Orientation	4.70	6.26
Gender Egalitarianism	3.34	5.20
Humane Orientation	4.85	5.91
Performance Orientation	5.34	6.41
Power Distance	2.21	3.56
Uncertainty Avoidance	3.34	5.71

Procedure

The archived personality data come from personality assessments previously administered by the organization as part of a regular leadership-development process. Data collection for the manager performance data spanned from 2011 through 2013. The personality assessments were administered during that time, but in some cases an individual's personality data predates the performance data. The exact time of each manager's personality assessment was based on the timing of individual manager involvement with the particular leadership-program. However, personality data for each participant in this sample was collected only once. Individuals were nominated by their local human resources department to participate in the leadership-development program which includes personality assessment, followed by developmental coaching based upon assessment reports, integrated with performance ratings and feedback from the individual's supervisor, subordinates, and peers. Personality assessments were

administered by an external agency. Personality assessment summary reports, along with results debriefing, and development coaching were provided to all participants. The raw data for all participants are maintained by the organization for internal research purposes.

The manager feedback data was collected as part of the annual performance management process for all managers in the organization with three or more direct reports. The organization sent out invitations for employees to complete confidential manager feedback surveys. All managers within certain levels, with three or more direct reports, are included in this annual feedback process. Subordinates voluntarily rated their manager's performance and the feedback was given to the manager as part of the annual performance review. The identity of the raters was not disclosed to the manager who is receiving the ratings. Confidentiality was strictly protected for all raters.

The archived data for this study included matched data that was previously deidentified by the organization. Employee name, email address, employee identification numbers, and other identifiers were removed from the data to protect the identity and confidentiality of participants. Participants were assigned participant codes. The dataset included subordinate demographics matched with subordinate ratings of manager performance and their manager's personality data.

Measures

Personality

Participants completed the suite of Hogan personality assessments (1997, 2009),

which including the Hogan Development Survey (HDS). The suite of Hogan personality

assessments was specifically purposed for organizational use. Hogan assessments are

among the most widespread instruments used in organizations across the globe for

employee selection and development purposes (Hogan & Hogan, 2009). The HDS (see

Table 6) was the specific measurement tool used for the current study (the dimensions

and their measurement are described in detail above). In total, the HDS includes 168

items in the form of statements to which respondents indicate agreement using a

dichotomous "agree" or "disagree" forced-choice response set (0 = disagree, 1 = agree).

For each of the 11 HDS dimension, there are 14 items; scale scores range from zero to

fourteen, such that higher scores represent dysfunctional levels of specific personality

traits. Generally speaking, percentile scores are given to provide a basis of comparison

when interpreting each of the HDS dimensions; low scores are considered to be those

below 39 percent, moderately low is 40 percent to 69 percent, moderately high is 70

percent to 89 percent, and high is 90 percent to 100 percent. Through the standard

translation and measurement invariance analyses, the HDS has been made available in

numerous languages (Hogan & Hogan, 1997). Individuals in this study were able to

choose their preferred language from the translated versions available at the time of

assessment (See Table 7).

Table 7

HDS Dimensions and Example Items

		Excitable	My mood can change quickly
Moving Away from People		Skeptical	There are few people I can really trust
		Cautious	It is difficult for me to be assertive
		Reserved	I prefer spending time by myself
		Leisurely	I ignore people who don't show respect
Moving Against People		Bold	I do most things well
		Mischievous	I have few regrets
		Colorful	Other people pay attention to me
		Imaginative	I am creative about my appearance
Moving Toward People		Diligent	I take pride in organizing my work
		Dutiful	I leave the big decisions up to others

Manager Feedback

Manager Feedback was measured by subordinate ratings of leadership

performance. Given the premise that leadership failure frequently results from a leader's

inability to manage relationships and build a team, it is expected that subordinates'

feedback on leader performance will be suitable for understanding the manifestation of

leadership derailers. The performance rating instrument was developed internally by the

organization and was used as an upward feedback assessment of skill and capability in

line with the organization's leadership model. This measurement tool includes 12

independent behavioral statements (see Appendix G) related to the expected managerial

activities supporting individual and organizational outcomes (Church, Tuller &

Desrosiers, 2013). These expected outcomes include: managing annual performance

goals and expectations, employee development and talent management efforts,

reinforcing a culture of inclusion, empowerment and recognition, and acting in a

professional manner. The "extent" scale is designed to measure demonstrated and

observable behaviors, rather than the subordinates' attitude towards their manager

(Church & Waclawski, 1998, 2001). Items are rated on a five-point extent scale (1= to no

extent; 5= to a very great extent). In the current study, the sum of the 12 items was used

as a composite. The scale development involved standard translation procedures to

develop translated versions in 29 different languages, based on the organizational need

(Church, Tuller & Desrosiers, 2013).

Subordinate raters included managers' direct report employees who have worked

with that manager for at least four months. This includes interns and part-time

employees. Managers self-select their raters based on guidance provided by the

organization; managers' selected raters are approved by a higher level supervisor and

human resources.

Cultural Context

In order to understand the influence of cultural context, cultural value scores for

the nine GLOBE dimensions were the assigned to the paired personality-performance

data. Cultural values were assigned following a process similar to Geletkanycz (1997).

The assigned cultural value scores were based on the manager's country location of work

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and the GLOBE norm score for that country (see Appendix C). Cultural value norms are on a seven point scale where seven indicates the strongest level of agreement.

Data Analytic Approach

Missing manager feedback ratings were replaced with the mean for each of the 12 items in the manager feedback survey, an acceptable method for dealing with missing data (Roth, Switzer & Switzer, 1999). Across the 12 manager feedback items there were 348,065 ratings and 6,307 missing values; the missing values were replaced with the mean for the specific item. The overall manager feedback score was based on the sum of ratings for the 12 items, rather than the average of the 12 items, in an effort to reduce the problem of criterion range restriction. In order to evaluate whether cultural values and personality significantly predict performance, a series of regression analyses were performed, entering quadratic terms to test for a curvilinear relationship and entering an interaction term to test for a moderated effect. The sample size required to detect a large interaction effect with 90% power is 137-154 cases, therefore the current dataset (29,531 matched cases) exceeds the requirements for this analysis (Dawson, 2014).

The independent and moderator variables were standardized using a z-standardization command in SPSS which centers the variables by subtracting the mean of the variable from the original value and dividing it by the standard deviation. Following the procedure outlined by Dawson (2014), the independent and moderator variables were standardized prior to computing the interaction term and the dependent variable (performance) was not standardized.

Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) suggested that conceptualizations, measures, and analytical approaches make fit research an ambiguous challenge. Polynomial regression

is an advanced approach to understanding P-E fit by looking at separate measures of the person and the environment, and examines the interaction between the two in order to understand its effect (Edwards & Parry, 1993). As Dawson (2014) explains, quadratic terms should be added to a regression in cases where there is theoretical rationale or previous research that supports a curvilinear relationship. In this case, HDS personality dimensions are expected to have a curvilinear relationship with performance based on a Hogan theory (Hogan, et al., 2010), and the relationships tested in previous research using the Hogan (Benson & Campbell, 2007). Polynomial regressions can lessen or avoid potential methodological problems of difference scores by using higher-order terms to represent relationships (Edwards, 2001).

Dichotomizing or trichotomizing the cultural context variable would result in a loss of information and reduce explained variance (Edwards, 2001); therefore all variables were analyzed as continuous scale variables. Quadratic regression is a comprehensive test to capture a curvilinear relationship between the predictor variable (personality) and the outcome variable (performance) (Dawson, 2014). Hypotheses were tested by a series of moderated quadratic regression analyses to test for culture as a moderator in the curvilinear relationship between HDS dimensions and performance. A hierarchical regression was computed for each of the three HDS dimensions, entering specific culture dimensions as potential moderators each of the regression analyses. Based on the current trend in management and psychology research, hypotheses specified the form of the interaction effect in regards to the moderator's effect in increasing or decreasing the association between the HDS dimension and performance and the direction of the main effect (Dawson, 2014).

In order to draw more conservative conclusions, the regression terms were evaluated against an adjusted alpha value based on the Holm-Bonferonni method (Holm, 1979). In terms of evaluating significance based on number of analyses, the Holm-Bonferonni sequential method was followed with three separate test families. The analyses are grouped by test family for each hypothesis group. Significant support is determined based on the adjusted target alpha, which is specified in each test reported below. The three hypotheses families are related to three dimensions: Bold, Cautious and Diligent.

CHAPTER THREE

RESULTS

Manager feedback ranged from 13.0 to 59.240, with a mean of 48.328 (SD= 7.83). Bold personality scores ranged from 0 to 100, with a mean of 57.401 (SD= 29.080). Cautious personality scores ranged from 11 to 100, with a mean of 57.810 (SD= 26.058). Diligent personality scores ranged from 0 to 100, with a mean of 47.733 (SD= 30.207).

Assertiveness value scores ranged from 2.680 to 5.520, with a mean of 4.075 (SD= .535). Uncertainty Avoidance value scores ranged from 3.340 to 5.710, with a mean of 4.330 (SD= .558). In-Group Collectivism value scores ranged from 5.110 to 6.540, with a mean of 5.718 (SD= .213). Power distance value scores ranged from 2.210 to 3.560, with a mean of 2.803 (SD= .169).

All variables included in the regression were standardized using a z transformation. Interaction terms were created, pairing the personality variable and cultural value variable for each hypothesis. For each of hypotheses tested, the personality variable, cultural value variable and personality-cultural value interaction term were entered as control variables. The (personality^2)x(cultural value) term was included in each regression to test for the hypothesized moderated curvilinear relationship.

To assess whether Bold personality and Assertiveness cultural values predict manager feedback ratings, a hierarchical regression was performed to test Hypothesis 1a. The results of this regression analysis indicated that the overall regression model was nostatistically significant based on the Holm-Bonferonni adjusted alpha target of $p = .05$ ($R = .073$, $R^2 = .005$, adjusted $R^2 = .005$, $F(4, 29,153) = 31.357$, $p = .99$. The quadratic term, $Bold^2$, was not a statistically-significant predictor based on the Holm-Bonferonni adjusted alpha of $p = .01$ ($t (29,153) = 1.064$, $p = .28$) indicating there was no curvilinear relationship between Bold and manager feedback. Additionally, the quadratic interaction term was not statistically significant, indicating the hypothesized curvilinear relationship between Bold and performance, moderated by Assertiveness, was not supported, therefore Hypothesis 1a was not supported. However, the individual predictor variable Assertiveness ($t(29,153) = 7.910$, $p < .001$) was statistically significant based on the Holm-Bonferonni adjusted alpha target of $p = .004$ (Figure 2).
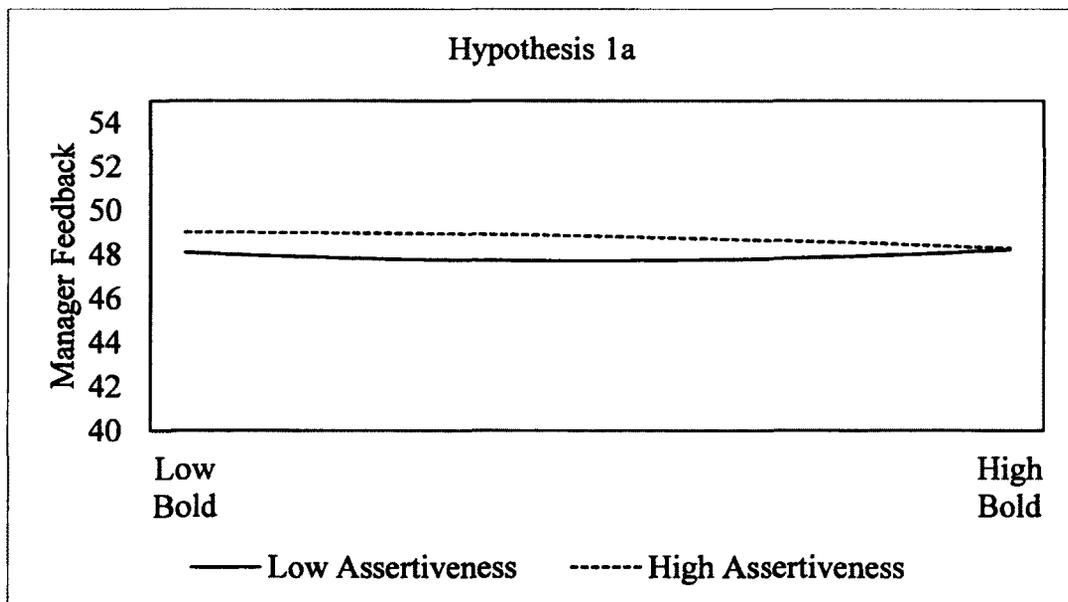
Figure 2. Hypothesis 1a

To assess whether Bold personality and In-Group Collectivism cultural values predict performance, a hierarchical regression was performed to test Hypothesis 1b. The results of this regression analysis indicated that the overall regression model was statistically significant based (R= .048, R^2 =.002, adjusted R^2 = 002, $F(4, 29,153)$ = 13.568, $p < .034$). The quadratic term, Bold^2, was not significant. Controlling for the effect of Bold, In-Group Collectivism was a statistically significant predictor of performance based on the adjusted alpha target of $p = .005$, $t(29153) = 2.854$, $p = .004$. The quadratic interaction term was not statistically significant, based on the adjusted target alpha of $p = .007$, $t(29153) = 2.122$, $p = .034$. The non-significance of the quadratic interaction term shows that the hypothesized curvilinear relationship between Bold and manager feedback, moderated by In-Group Collectivism, is not supported, therefore Hypothesis 1b is not supported (Figure 3).
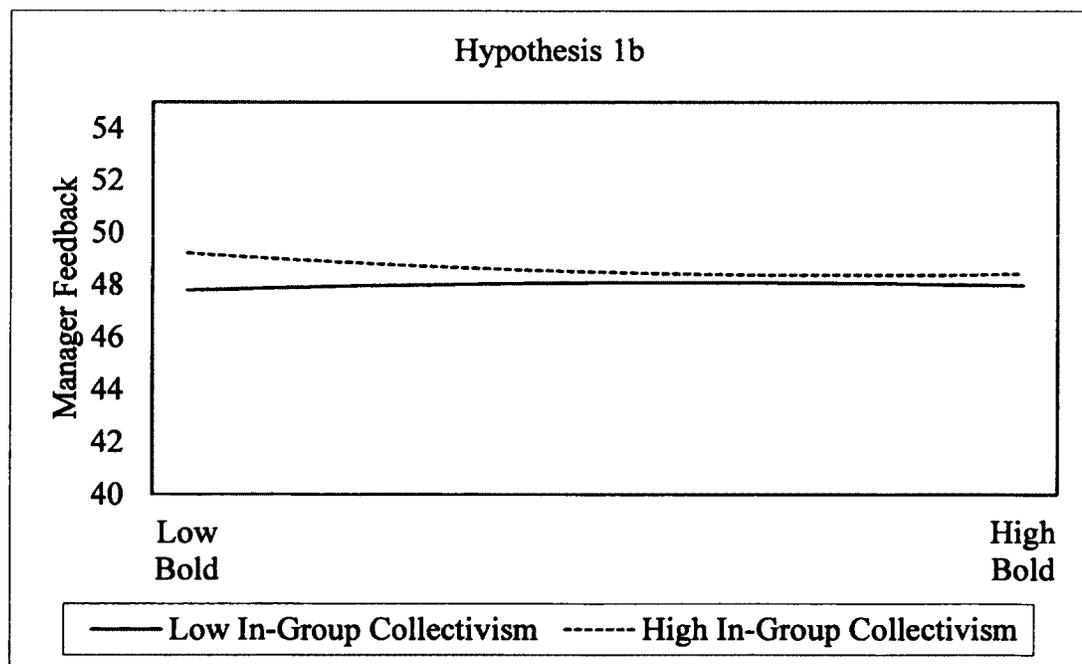
Figure 3. Hypothesis 1b

To assess whether Bold personality and Uncertainty Avoidance cultural values predict manager feedback, a hierarchical regression was performed to test Hypothesis 1c. The results of this regression analysis indicated that the overall regression model was statistically significant; $R = .077$, $R^2 = .006$, adjusted $R^2 = 006$, $F(4, 29153) = 34.378$, $p < .001$. The quadratic term, $Bold^2$, $t(29153) = 2.197$, $p = .028$, was not significant based on the adjusted alpha target of $p = .006$, which does not support the proposed curvilinear relationship. Controlling for the effect of Bold, Uncertainty Avoidance was a predictor of manager feedback based on the adjusted alpha target of $p = .003$, $t(29153) = -8.875$, $p < .001$. However, the quadratic interaction term was not statistically significant, which does not support the hypothesized curvilinear relationship between Bold and manager feedback, moderated by Uncertainty Avoidance. Therefore, Hypothesis 1c is not supported (Figure 4).
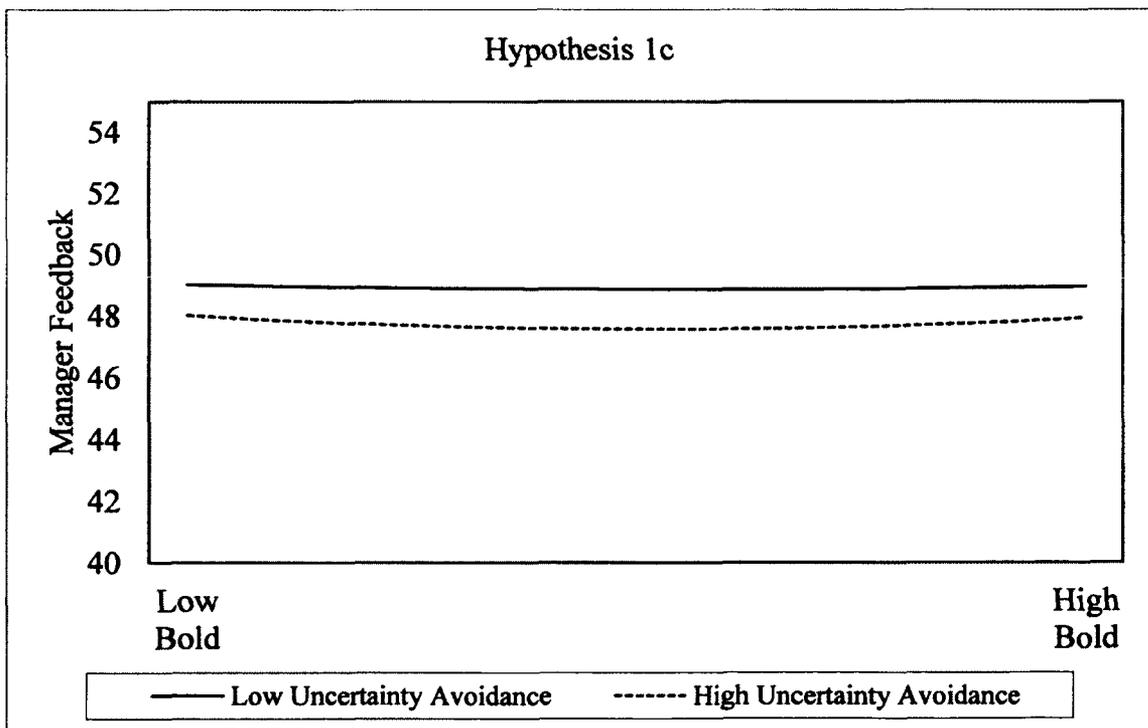
Figure 4. Hypothesis 1c

To assess whether Cautious personality and Assertiveness cultural values predict manager feedback, a hierarchical regression was performed to test Hypothesis 2a. The results of this regression analysis indicated that the overall regression model was statistically significant; $R = .072$, $R^2 = .005$, adjusted $R^2 = .005$, $F(4, 29153) = 30.665$, $p < .001$. However, the quadratic term, Cautious^2, was not a predictor; which does not support the hypothesized curvilinear relationship between Cautious personality and manager feedback. Controlling for the effect of Cautious, Assertiveness was a statistically significant predictor of performance based on the adjusted target alpha of $p = .005$, $t(29153) = 9.699$, $p < .001$. However, the quadratic interaction term, $t(29153) = -2.2021$, $p = .043$ was not significant based on the adjusted target alpha of $p = .008$. Hypothesis 2a is not supported because the quadratic interaction term is not significant, indicating we do not have statistically significant support for the hypothesized curvilinear relationship between Cautious and manager feedback, moderated by Assertiveness values (Figure 5).
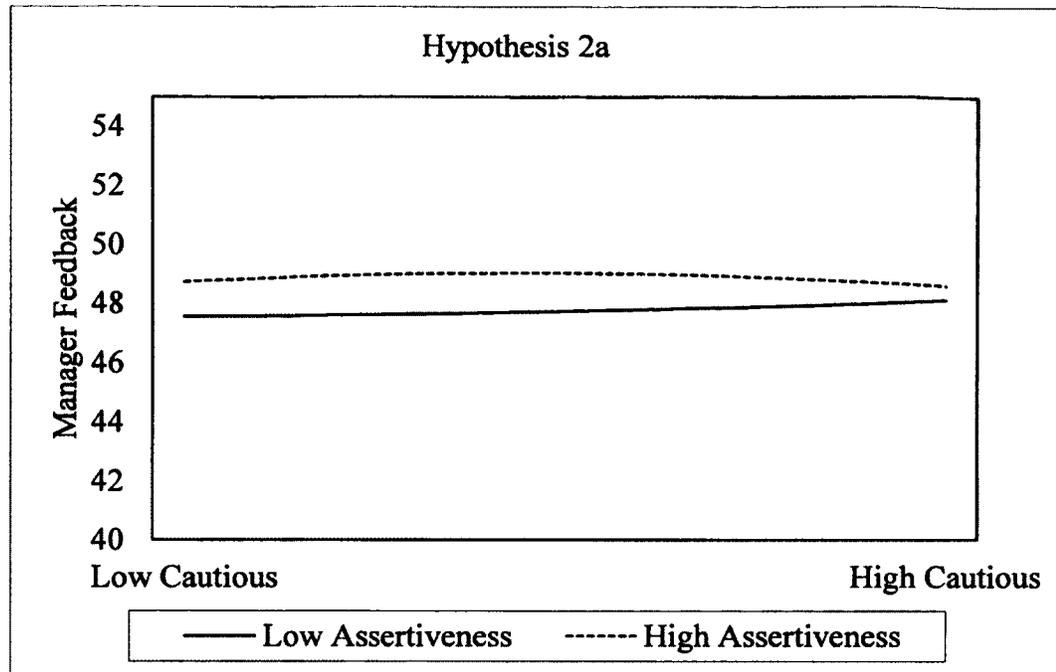
Figure 5. Hypothesis 2a

To assess whether Cautious personality and Uncertainty Avoidance cultural

values predict manager feedback, a hierarchical regression was performed to test

Hypothesis 2b. The results of this regression analysis indicated that the overall regression

model was statistically significant; $R = .078$, $R^2 = .006$, adjusted $R^2 = .006$, $F(4, 29153) =$

35.588, $p < .001$. However, the quadratic term, Cautious^2, was not a predictor; indicating

there is no curvilinear relationship between Cautious and manager feedback. Controlling

for effect of Cautious, Uncertainty Avoidance was a statistically significant predictor of

manager feedback based on the adjusted target alpha of .006, $t(29153) = -8.850$, $p < .001$.

However, the quadratic interaction term was not a statistically significant predictor,

$t(29153) = -.124$, $p > .05$. Hypothesis 2b is not supported because the quadratic interaction

term is not a predictor, which does not support the hypothesized curvilinear relationship between Cautious and manager feedback, moderated by Uncertainty Avoidance (Figure 6).
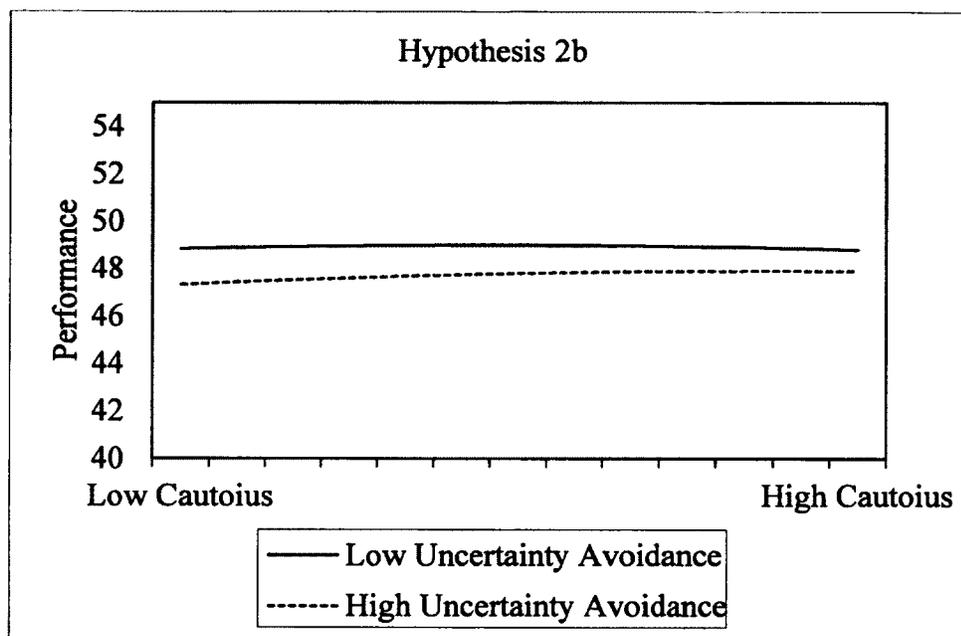
Figure 6. Hypothesis 2b

To assess whether Diligent personality and In-Group Collectivism cultural values predict manager feedback, a hierarchical regression was performed to test Hypothesis 3a. The results of this regression analysis indicated that the overall regression model was statistically significant; $R = .051$, $R^2 = .003$, adjusted $R^2 = .002$, $F(5, 29153) = 14.909$, $p < .001$. The quadratic term, Diligent^2, was not a statistically significant predictor based on the adjusted target alpha of $p = .008$, $t(29153) = -2.909$, $p = .010$. Controlling for the effect of Diligent, In-Group Collectivism, $t(29153) = 2.242$, $p = .025$, was not statistically significant based on the adjusted target alpha of $p = .013$. However, the quadratic interaction term indicating a moderated curvilinear relationship was statistically

significant, $t(29153) = 2.844$, $p = .004$, based on the adjusted target alpha of $p = .006$.

Hypothesis 3a is supported; the quadratic interaction term is significant, even with the

conservative Holm-Bonferonni adjustment, indicating a curvilinear relationship between

Diligent and manager feedback that is moderated by In-Group Collectivism values. As

shown below in Figure 7, in a high In-Group Collectivism context, there is a positive

relationship between Diligent personality and manager feedback.
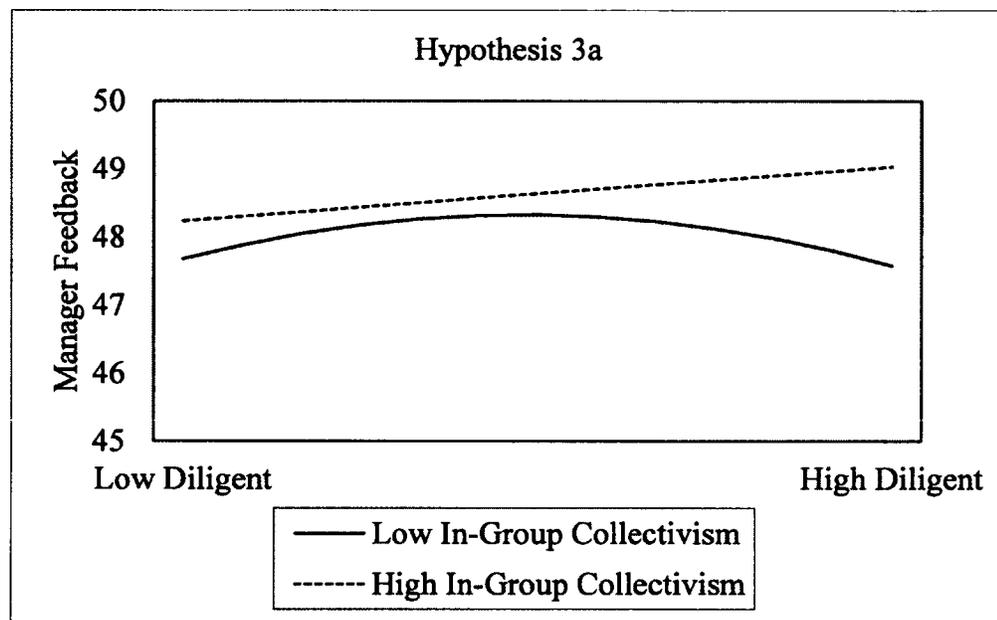
Figure 7. Hypothesis 3a

To assess whether Diligent personality and Uncertainty Avoidance cultural values

predict manager feedback, a hierarchical regression was performed to test Hypothesis 3b.

The results of this regression analysis indicated that the overall regression model was

statistically significant; $R = .082$, $R^2 = .007$, adjusted $R^2 = .007$ $F(5, 29153) = 39.946$, $p <$

.001. The quadratic term, Diligent^2, was a statistically significant predictor based on the

adjusted alpha of $p = .006$; indicating a curvilinear relationship between Diligent and

manager feedback $t(29153) = -2.898, p = .004$. Controlling for the effect of Diligent,

Uncertainty Avoidance was a statistically significant predictor of manager feedback,

$t(29153) = -9.591, p < .001$, with the adjusted target alpha of $p = .003$. However, the

quadratic interaction term was not statistically significant, $t(29153) = 1.720, p = .085$.

Hypothesis 3b is partially supported; the quadratic term is significant, but the quadratic

interaction term is not statistically significant, indicating a curvilinear relationship but no

moderation effect (Figure 8).
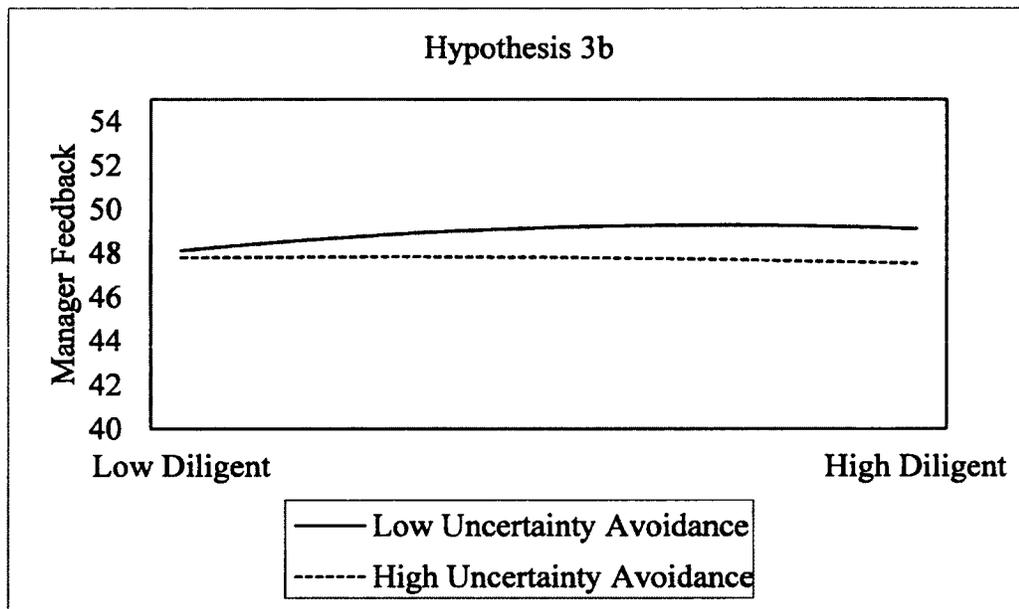
Figure 8. Hypothesis 3b

To assess whether Diligent personality and Power Distance cultural values predict

manager feedback, a hierarchical regression was performed to test Hypothesis 3c. The

results of this regression analysis indicated that the overall regression model was

statistically significant; $R = .061$, $R^2 = .004$, adjusted $R^2 = .004$, $F(4, 29153) = 22.982, p <$

$.001$. The quadratic term, Diligent^2, was not a statistically significant predictor based on

the adjusted target alpha of $p = .008$; indicating no significant curvilinear relationship

between Diligent and manager feedback $t(29153) = -2.593$, $p = .01$. Controlling for the

effect of Diligent, Power Distance was a statistically significant predictor of manager

feedback, $t(29153) = 8.694$, $p < .001$, with an adjusted target alpha of $p = .003$.

Additionally, the quadratic interaction term was statistically significant, $t(29153) = 3.647$,

$p < .001$, with an adjusted target alpha of $p = .004$. Hypothesis 3c is supported; the

quadratic interaction term is significant. As shown in Figure 9, there is a curvilinear

relationship between Diligent and manager feedback that is moderated by Power

Distance values, such that the curvilinear relationship is flattened at low levels of Power

Distance.
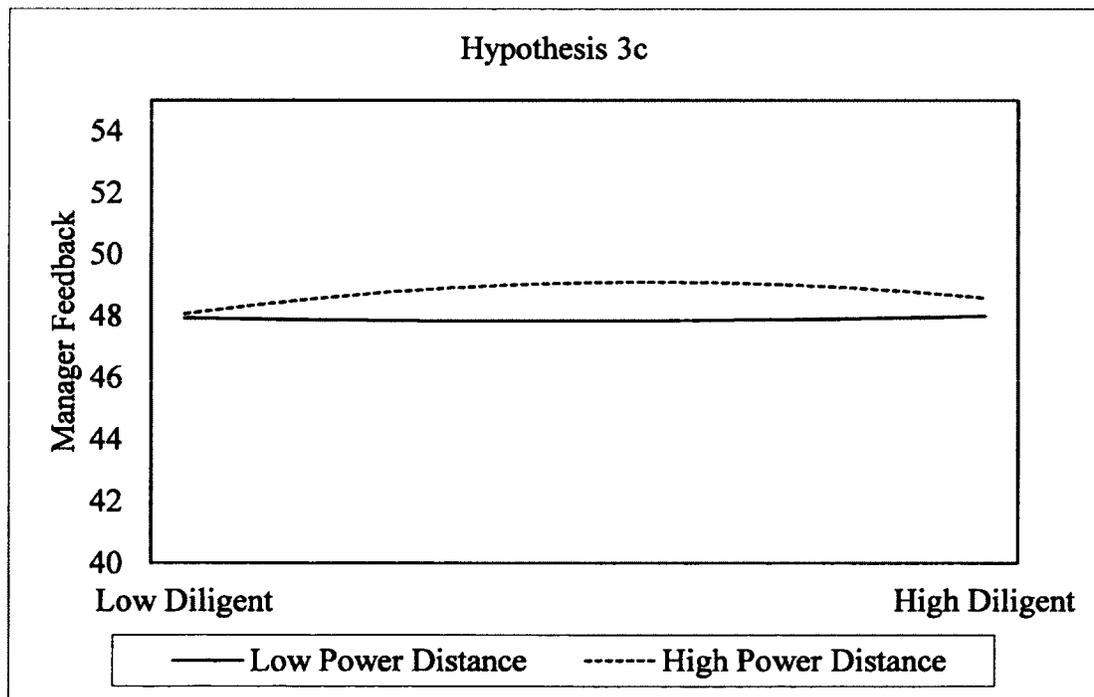
Figure 9. Hypothesis 3c

CHAPTER FOUR

DISCUSSION

As anticipated, specific aspects of a manager's cultural context can have an impact on subordinate feedback ratings. However, the interaction between leader personality and manager's cultural context is not clear. In essence, our current hypotheses suggesting moderated curvilinear relationships were, for the most part, not supported, though the data suggests that cultural context does matter. Research meets application when we discuss the how and why; results are not an end point, but rather a starting point for asking new questions. In cases where support for the hypothesis was not found, we should perhaps consider other aspects of the culture that influence subordinates' approach to providing feedback or responding to surveys. Research provides new knowledge through the significant as well as the non-significant findings; both outcomes provide the reader with something from which to learn.

In general, we understand that HDS dimensions only represent part of an individual's unique attributes and cultural values only represent part of the overall context. When interpreting statistical significance and practical utility, findings must be considered within the broader context and any generalizations should be made judiciously. Given the large sample size, the Holm-Bonferonni test was used as a more conservative test of significance which reduces the risk of false positives. With that in mind, what can we glean from the results of the current study?

In summary, the results supported one of the three hypotheses regarding the HDS dimensions included in the study (i.e., Diligent); the sub-hypotheses for Bold and Cautious were not supported. Even where there were differences in the managers' feedback scores based on cultural value dimensions, Bold and Cautious manager personality traits were not meaningful in the quadratic interaction model predicting subordinate feedback of manager performance. Results suggest that Bold and Cautious scores may influence subordinate perceptions and ratings of leadership performance, but these manager traits do not interact with the cultural values. This means that Bold and Cautious HDS dimensions influence, but are not contingent upon, subordinate feedback independent of cultural context. Likewise, the influence of cultural context and the cultural values associated with a certain context is not contingent upon how a manager scores on Bold or Cautious personality dimensions.

Hypotheses were supported for two of the three sub-hypotheses tied to Diligent manager personality; Uncertainty Avoidance (Hypothesis 3b), however, was not a significant moderator. The results support a statistically-significant curvilinear relationship between Diligent and leader performance feedback that is moderated by In-Group Collectivism values (Hypothesis 3a) as well as Power Distance values (Hypothesis 3c). As depicted in Figure 9, in a high Power Distance culture there is a curvilinear relationship between Diligent and leader performance feedback ratings that becomes linear in a low Power Distance culture. The opposite effect is seen when looking at the interaction between Diligent and In-Group Collectivism (see Figure 7). In a low In-Group Collectivism context the relationship is curvilinear but becomes linear in a high

In-Group Collectivism context, suggesting a positive relationship between Diligent personality and leader's performance feedback.

In the first hypothesis group, which was tied to manager Bold personality, there were no statically significant results to support the hypothesis. There was no evidence of a curvilinear relationship between Bold and leader performance feedback and there was not an interaction effect with any of the moderators. Assertiveness, In-Group Collectivism, and Uncertainty Avoidance, were not statistically significant moderators in the models tested with Bold. In this case it is important to consider the bigger picture, including the organizational context of the research. It is possible that the strength of the organization's corporate culture diminished the potential influence of the societal cultural value difference. Corporate culture in this organization is characterized by an entrepreneurial spirit of individual "heroes," where assertive and independently successful individuals are recognized and rewarded. The influence of organizational culture is further discussed below.

In terms of leader personality, high Bold, assertive leaders are not unique to this sample; leaders in general have a tendency to score high on this particular HDS dimension. As Judge, et al. (2009) explained, there is a positive side of these dark side traits; self-confident leaders with inflated self-esteem have the tendency to project authority, confidence and commitment when faced with challenge, leading to positive outcomes. In their review of dark side traits, Judge and colleagues (2009) explained that narcissistic leaders maintain exaggerated views of their self-worth, which has been shown to be positively associated with charismatic leadership and executive performance. Likewise, hubris leads to enhancing one's reputation through self-promotion and

influencing more attractive and likable perceptions. While the negative implications of dark side traits (Conger, 1999) are not to be ignored, it may be reasonable to say that some darkness is a necessary evil.

Cautious, as a desirable leader personality dimension, was also deemed culturally contingent, as indicated by the selection and rating through the SME panel. Given the literature on cultural differences in perceptions of risk and risk-taking behaviors (March & Shapira, 1987), it was expected that Cautious personality would be more advantageous in some cultures, while more negatively related to subordinates' feedback on a leader's performance in other cultures. Contrary to the hypothesis, there was no support for a curvilinear relationship between Cautious and performance. In the models tested, cultural values were statistically significant in explaining the variance in leader performance feedback. Assertiveness and Uncertainty Avoidance values were both significant predictors in the regression; Cautious personality was not. Hypothesis, 2a and 2b, were not supported because the interaction terms were not significant. This suggests that, Cautious personality is not culturally contingent in terms of these two specific dimensions of Cultural values, although Cautious personality may be of more relevance in other cultural value contexts.

While Bold and Cautious seemed to have logical reasons for cultural dependency, the cultural relevance of Diligence seemed unlikely. Given that Diligence is akin to conscientiousness, which is perceived as a desirable trait and is empirically supported as a universal positive predictor of job performance across job types (Barrick & Mount, 1991), it was not logical for the influence of Diligence to vary by cultural context. The research design allowed SME ratings to be based on HDS association with predetermined

culturally relevant leadership characteristics. This eliminated the rater bias that may have occurred if SMEs were rating HDS dimensions based on their perception of the cultural relevance. If the SME panel was overtly asked to rate cultural relevance of HDS dimensions, Diligence may not have been among the highest rated dimensions. Based on curvilinear relationships introduced by Benson and Campbell (2007), the curvilinear relationship that we hypothesized was supported; there was a significant curvilinear relationship between Diligent personality and subordinate feedback of leader performance.

In-Group Collectivism and Power Distance were both found to have a significant moderation effect on the curvilinear relationship between Diligent leader personality and subordinate ratings of leadership performance. The curvilinear relationship between Diligent and subordinate feedback was flattened in both the high In-Group Collectivism context and the low Power Distance context. This means that a high Diligent leader is perceived more favorably by subordinates in a high In-Group collectivism context where the wellbeing or promotion of the group is more important than is individual promotion. In terms of Power Distance values, the curvilinear relationship becomes linear in a context where Power Distance values are low. This finding may seem counter-intuitive based on our understanding of cultural values. For example, China is a typical example of a high Collectivism and high Power Distance culture, so we assumed that in most countries where values are high on one dimension, values should be high on both dimensions. If this is the case, why is the curvilinear relationship moderated in a low Power Distance and a high In-Group Collectivism value context when those two value dimensions were expected to pair together?

After further examination of GLOBE cultural value scores of the largest countries represented by this sample (the U.S., Mexico, India, China, and the U.K), it became apparent that In-Group Collectivism scores were generally higher for our sample population (China the lowest at 5.12, the U.S. the highest at 5.79). Surprisingly, Power Distance scores were lower than expected for some of the sample population (India 2.58 as the lowest and China at 3.01 as the highest). GLOBE culture research included a measure of cultural values in terms of "as is" and "should be," meaning that when assessing the culture values of a country, participants were asked to respond to statements in terms of what was normal practice in their society as well as what was the ideal or aspirational values. In the current study, we used the value norm scores, based on ideal values, which is more aspirational and less literal. Collectivism and Power Distance both have a certain element of social desirability (or undesirability) about them, which may explain why the aspirational value norm scores are high in one case (Collectivism) and low in the other (Power Distance).

The explanation of the differences between "as is" value scores and "should be" practice norm scores provides meaning to these seemingly conflicting results for hypothesis three, but this also brings up another question: how do cultural practice norm scores change the model? Are practice norm scores a stronger moderator, compared to cultural value scores that are aspirational? Are subordinate expectations of managers more influenced by what they believe in (the aspirational values) or what they get accustomed to seeing every day around them (practice norms)? In the current study, culture value norms were used, given the values influence implicit leadership theories (House, et al., 2002). Likewise, observed practices also influence one's concepts and

expectations of leaders; this is explained through Social Learning Theory (Manz & Sims, 1980). Subordinate expectations are influenced by values and what they learn vicariously from the observed leadership practices and consequences, which explains the cognitive aspect of implicit leadership theories (Phillips & Lord, 1981; Winkler, 2009). As an extension of the above study, future research should look at comparing the differences of variance explained, and determining relative importance of values verses context norms, comparing the two measures of on each dimension of culture. Answering this question would provide support for shaping the design leadership development and organizational change initiatives.

In addition to societal practice norms, another important contextual component that the current study did not consider is organizational culture. The organizational culture involves values, norms, customs, and beliefs that are shared by individuals within an organization (Schein, 1990) and provide commonality that spans country boundaries. Organizational culture is learned and ingrained over time through this process of observation and internalization through reinforcement (Schein, 1990, 2006). Arguably, this organization's culture may have been influencing employee's implicit leadership theories, an effect potentially strong enough to supersede the effects of societal culture. Likewise, the effect of societal culture could be inflated based on organization culture in cases where the organization values are similar to the societal values. Future research may explore the question of when and how organizational culture has a superseding effect over the influence of societal culture, as previously discussed in terms of the current study's findings. Future research could explore the potentially diminishing influence of societal culture, considering the gaining influence organizational culture that

potentially increases with an individual's organizational tenure, among other things. Lastly, as is the case with most organizational research, the findings would be more generalizable if more diversity of organizations are represented in the sample.

Another consideration of an organizational culture is its origin; this organization is a U.S.- based company with a large proportion of the employee population being U.S.- based. Given the makeup of the research sample, there is an overrepresentation of Western cultural values, which could have two different potential effects. First, the large portion of the organization being from the same country means that a large portion of the sample shares the same Western values, thus skewing the cultural value data. Secondly, the organization's history and culture may have significant influence on employees' implicit leadership theories, regardless of their geographic location. Considering that the organization was founded in the U.S. and is headquartered in the U.S., with a strong influence of U.S. leaders, it is likely that U.S. cultural values, norms, and expectations of leaders have become part of the organizational culture.

Beyond the influence of organizational culture, other aspects of the global economy may affect the importance and practical utility of culture research and implications in years to come. Though some may suggest that there will never be such thing as a global culture (Smith, 1990), others support the idea of a converging universal culture (Featherstone, 1990) and is something that should be tested in the future. The future of culture research should utilize longitudinal studies to analyze the potential disintegration of cultural diversity. Among other things, the most powerful influence in this supposed development of this universal culture is the prevalence of technology. The post-technology era generations are experiencing a level of global interconnectedness that

potentially changes the way that individuals within a society develop their values, norms and beliefs (Cohen, Kennedy, & Perrier, 2000), an idea that is currently explored more in the realm of sociology rather than psychology literature.

Future Research Considerations

In addition to expanding to look at broader aspects of culture, future research should also consider the cultural relevance of other individual difference variables. Another instrument often administered in conjunction with the Hogan personality assessments is the Motives Values and Preferences Inventory (MVPI). While GLOBE cultural values represent values shared among a group of individuals from a shared societal group and organizational values are shared within an organization, there are certainly individual differences in personal motives, values and preferences. Future research should explore expanding the above research by building a model to include individual motivation, personal values and preferences, in addition to societal level cultural values and organizational cultural values in a multi-level model as proposed by Erez and Gati (2004). For example, individual differences represented by MVPI scores may explain additional variance in the above models. Additionally, MVPI scores may be a way to assess the relative importance of cultural context or individual values in understanding the subordinate perceptions and expectations of leadership.

The current research focused on a few of the specific cultural values that were determined most relevant in existing leadership literature, as explained in the methods. Although the SMEs were presented with the same stimulus, including a definition of the HDS dimension in order to provide a consistent frame of reference for each SMES, there could be a risk of cultural response bias. The six SMEs were all U.S.- based, which is not

representative of the employee population under study. Future research could improve the SME process by including a more diverse SME panel. Furthermore, in an effort to reduce the number of comparisons the current study was limited by the reduction of HDS dimensions examined, based on decisions made by the expert panel, but this provides an opportunity for future research looking at potential significance of other HDS dimensions.

Another possible consideration is focusing on different aspects of leader performance, possibly separating the hard business outcomes from the team leadership and development behaviors. As Weber, Hsee and Sokolowska (1998) have shown, there are differences in risk aversion when it comes to financial risks versus social risk, suggesting that social risk may come at a higher cost to leaders in collectivistic cultures who place greater importance on maintaining one's social network. The current leader performance feedback measure used was comprised of the initiating structure part of management, as well as the relational aspect of leadership. Different results may have been produced if financial and social risk-taking aspects of performance were measured separately.

Derailers have the ability to inhibit leader effectiveness, typically in times of stress or pressure when an individual is not actively self-monitoring (Hogan, et al., 2010). Through development coaching and development programs, self-awareness can be increased and individuals can more effectively manage their tendencies. Along these lines, an effective coaching and development engagement should result in an individual's increased self-awareness and social monitoring, resulting in more positive performance outcomes (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005), in which case personality-performance relationships

would be suppressed. Other potential moderators including development initiatives and interventions would be among other considerations for future research. Additionally, a more comprehensive model should consider other individual variables such as emotional intelligence, which has been shown to explain incremental variance in job performance, beyond cognitive intelligence and personality (see O'Boyle, Humphrey, Pollack, Hawver, & Story, 2011 for a meta-analytic review). Given the available organizational data, there was no means to control for emotional intelligence or social monitoring, either of which may be acting as moderators in the personality-performance model.

Limitations

In terms of methodological limitations, a common problem with organizational research is a restricted range in leader performance feedback data, given the researcher's access to a population somewhat limited by means of pre-selection (Sackett & Yang, 2000). In this case we can assume that through a simple process of attraction, selection and attrition (ASA) (Schneider, 1987), our range restriction in job performance may be attributed to the process of high performers being selected into the organization and the poor performers failing to get promoted to higher levels of leadership, therefore not included in the Hogan leadership development process.

Range restriction issue may also apply to personality as a predictor variable. Although personality assessments in the case of this organization are used for development purposes and personality is not a criterion for selection, per se, it is still likely that through ASA there would be some similarity of personalities among individuals who are selected and promoted within the organization. In both cases, it becomes more difficult to find significant relationships. For example, in an organization

where bold leadership is valued and rewarded, there may be less variability in Bold

personality scores based on the ASA process at work in that environment.

Another methodological limitation, which cross-cultural research frequently has

to face, is the potential for cultural response bias on the subordinate ratings of job

performance. Cultural response bias does not reflect actual differences in the perceptions

or attitudes a subordinate may have towards their manager or manager's performance,

rather, the cultural response bias is based on tendencies to respond to questions in a

certain way, regardless of the question (Harzing, 2006). For example, a cultural response

bias may mean that a certain cultural group may lean towards inflated ratings, deflated

ratings or have a tendency to prefer the mid-point or avoid the mid-point of a rating scale.

Cultural differences in response patterns have been widely established in past research

(Harzing, 2006) and there are various methods for adjusting for these cultural differences

in response patterns (see Fischer, 2004 for a review). In the case of the current research,

while the Hogan personality data and GLOBE culture data are standardized to account

for cultural response bias, the job performance measure is not standardized across

cultures. Future research should attempt to test models of cultural values moderating

personality-performance relationships predicting a standardized measure of job

performance, free from cultural response bias.

Given the vastness of personality and leadership research, studies examining the

paradoxical nature dark side leadership traits and the non-linear relationships between

personality and job performance, are relatively few (Judge, et al., 2009). This research

was not an attempt to introduce new theory to fill that void, but rather an endeavor to

enrich and build upon existing theories by focusing on the intersection of implicit

leadership theory, dark side personality traits, and cultural values. The current study adds value to the existing literature by drawing the connection between HDS dimensions and previously defined culturally contingent leadership characteristics. In a practical sense, the HDS is one of the most widely used personality assessments in organizations and the current study provides researchers with a rationale to explore cultural differences, leveraging existing organizational data. For GLOBE researchers, the current study links their work with one of the most widely recognized and globally administered personality assessments. This linkage could provide potential future research opportunities for testing GLOBE research questions with a large body of existing data. In a practical-application sense, the significant and non-significant results suggest that cultural context is a valid concern in selecting and developing a leader for effective performance in a specific situation. At the same time, some dark side traits, such as Bold, may be generally accepted as part of the leader profile, regardless of cultural context. For researchers and practitioners alike, this research should prompt interest in the further investigation of linking personality and culture to deepen our understanding of the dynamic complexities of leadership performance in organizations.

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APPENDIX A

EXAMPLE OF ONLINE SURVEY FORMAT FOR SME

PANEL PART 1

Example of online survey format for SME panel- Part 1

Online Survey Software | (×

🔒 https://az1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_b9qzmSuc2AYCRfL&Preview=Surv Q ☆ ☰

o You have been selected as a participant for an expert panel based on your knowledge of Hogan assessments, scientific research using these assessments, and your expertise in interpreting Hogan Development Survey (HDS) scores and providing individual feedback.

o The purpose of this expert panel is to determine which leader characteristics (provided below) are conceptually related to personality dimensions of the HDS. For each HDS dimension, please select HDS dimensions, which by definition, are associated with the attribute listed to the left. Check all the HDS dimensions that apply. You should select an HDS dimension if it is positively or negatively associated with that attribute.

Check the boxes for the HDS dimensions that are relevant to each of the listed leader attributes. Check all that apply.

	Excitable	Skeptical	Cautious	Reserved	Leisurely	Bold	Mischievous	Colorful	Imaginative	Diligent	Dutiful
Able to anticipate	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Autonomous	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Class conscious	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Domineering	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Enthusiastic	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Formal	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Independent	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Individualistic	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Intra-group conflict avoider	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Logical	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Procedural	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Risk taker	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Self-effacing	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sensitive	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Example of online survey format for SME panel- Part 2

You have been selected as a participant for an expert panel based on your knowledge of Hogan assessments, scientific research using these assessments, and your expertise in interpreting Hogan Development Survey (HDS) scores and providing individual feedback.

The purpose of this expert panel is to determine the relevance of the given leader characteristics (provided below) in terms of the conceptual association to personality dimensions of the HDS. For each HDS dimension, there will be specific leader characteristics listed below. Rate the relevance of each characteristic, in terms of how strongly that characteristic is associated with the definition of that HDS dimension. This association could be positive (completely similar) or negative (completely dissimilar). If there is no association whatsoever, you should leave the rating at zero.

Survey Powered By Qualtrics

Rate the relevance of the following characteristics in terms of their association with CAUTIOUS

Rate the relevance of each characteristic, in terms of how strongly that characteristic is associated with the definition of that HDS dimension. This association could be positive (completely similar) or negative (completely dissimilar). If there is no association whatsoever, you should leave the rating at zero.

	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
Able to anticipate	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Autonomous	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Logical	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Procedural	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Risk-taker	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Ambitious	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Cautious	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Evasive	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Habitual	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Micro-manager	O	O	O	O	O	O	O

APPENDIX B

RESULTS FROM SME SURVEY 1

Results from SME- Survey 1

Table provides a summary of rater endorsements in associating leadership characteristics with HDS personality dimensions. Values indicate number of endorsements and agreement within SME raters in Survey 1. HDS dimensions with the most agreed endorsements were carried forward to Survey 2.

	Excitable		Skeptical		Cautious		Reserved		Leisurely		Bold		Mischievous		Colorful		Imaginative		Diligent		Dutiful	
	Agreed	Total	Agreed	Total	Agreed	Total	Agreed	Total	Agreed	Total	Agreed	Total	Agreed	Total	Agreed	Total	Agreed	Total	Agreed	Total	Agreed	Total
Able to anticipate	0	0	1	3	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	2	0	0
Autonomous	0	0	0	1	1	3	1	3	1	2	1	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	3
Class conscious	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Domineering	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	1	1	2	0	0	0	1	1	2
Enthusiastic	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	2	0	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
Formal	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	2	0	1
Independent	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	3	1	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	2
Individualistic	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	1	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	1
Intra-group conflict avoider	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	3	1	3	1	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2

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	Dutiful Total	Dutiful Agreed	Diligent Total	Diligent Agreed	Imaginative Total	Imaginative Agreed	Colorful Total	Colorful Agreed	Mischievous Total	Mischievous Agreed	Bold Total	Bold Agreed	Leisurely Total	Leisurely Agreed	Reserved Total	Reserved Agreed	Cautious Total	Cautious Agreed	Skeptical Total	Skeptical Agreed	Excitable Total	Excitable Agreed
Logical	0	0	2	1	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	2	1	0	0
Procedural	1	0	3	1	0	0	1	0	3	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	3	1	1	0	0	0
Risk taker	1	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	0	0	0	0
Self-effacing	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	3	1	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
Sensitive	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	2	1	2	0
Status-conscious	2	1	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Unique	2	1	0	0	3	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Willful	2	1	2	1	1	0	2	1	3	1	3	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
Ambitious	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	3	1	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0
Cautious	2	1	3	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	0	0	0	0
Cunning	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	3	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0
Elitist	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	3	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Evasive	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	2	1	3	1	2	1	1	0	0	0
Habitual	0	0	3	1	2	1	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	1	0	0	0
Indirect	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	3	1	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Intra-group competiton	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0
Intuitive	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0

	Dutiful		Diligent		Imaginative		Colorful		Mischievous		Bold		Leisurely		Reserved		Cautious		Skeptical		Excitable	
	Total	Agreed	Total	Agreed	Total	Agreed	Total	Agreed	Total	Agreed	Total	Agreed	Total	Agreed	Total	Agreed	Total	Agreed	Total	Agreed	Total	Agreed
Micro-manger	1	0	3	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	2	1	0	0
Orderly	0	0	3	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Provocateur	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	1	3	1	3	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
Ruler	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Self-sacrificial	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Sincere	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	3	1	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Subdued	0	0	0	0	1	0	3	1	1	0	2	1	0	0	2	1	1	0	0	0	2	0
Unique	0	0	0	0	3	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Worldly	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total		10		10		7		8		8		15		8		10		10		5		3

APPENDIX C

RESULTS FROM EXPERT PANEL SURVEY 2P

Results from Expert Panel Survey 2

Cautious, Reserved, Bold, Diligent and Dutiful received the greatest endorsement from Survey 1 and were carried to Survey 2 where the strength of association between HDS and specific leadership characteristics was rated based on SMEs judgment of conceptual correlation of the characteristic and HDS dimension. Relevance ratings ranged from -3 (opposite) to 3 (very similar), with 0 being neutral, or no association at all. The HDS dimensions receiving the highest total relevance scores were included in the models tested

Cautious

number of ratings per anchor on a 7-point scale

	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	absolute value sum
Able to anticipate	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	3
Autonomous	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	4
Logical	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0
Procedural	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	4
Risk-taker	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	9
Ambitious	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	4
Cautious	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	9
Evasive	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	2
Habitual	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	4
Micro-manager	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	6
								total= 45

Reserved

number of ratings per anchor on a 7-point scale

	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	absolute value sum
Autonomous	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	3
Independent	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	4
Individualistic	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	6
Intra-group conflict avoider	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	3
Self-effacing	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	2
Sensitive	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	9
Evasive	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	3
Indirect	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	2
Sincere	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	4
Subdued	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	2
								total= 38

Bold

	'-3	'-2	'-1	0	1	2	3	absolute value sum
Autonomous	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	6
Domineering	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	7
Enthusiastic	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	3
Intra-group conflict avoider	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	5
Self-effacing	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	5
Status conscious	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	7
Willful	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	6
Ambitious	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	8
Elitist	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	8
Indirect	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	7
Intra-group competitor	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	8
Provocative	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	7
Ruler	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	8
Self-sacrificing	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	8
Subdued	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	6

number of ratings per anchor on a 7-point scale

total= 99

Diligent

	'-3	'-2	'-1	0	1	2	3	absolute value sum
Formal	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	6
Logical	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	3
Procedural	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	6
Risk-taker	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	6
Willful	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	4
Cautious	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	5
Habitual	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	5
Able to anticipate	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	1
Micro-manager	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	7
Orderly	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	9

number of ratings per anchor on a 7-point scale

total= 52

158

Dutiful

number of ratings per anchor on a 7-point scale

	'-3	'-2	'-1	0	1	2	3	absolute value sum
Autonomous	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	6
Domineering	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	5
Independent	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	5
Intra-group conflict avoider	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	4
Status conscious	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	3
Unique	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	3
Cautious	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	6
Willful	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	5
Evasive	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	2
Indirect	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	3

total= 42

APPENDIX D

HUMAN USE APPROVAL LETTER

LOUISIANA TECH
U N I V E R S I T Y

MEMORANDUM

OFFICE OF UNIVERSITY RESEARCH

TO: Ms. Victoria Smoak and Dr. Tilman Sheets

FROM: Dr. Stan Napper, Vice President Research & Development

SUBJECT: HUMAN USE COMMITTEE REVIEW

DATE: May 21, 2014

In order to facilitate your project, an EXPEDITED REVIEW has been done for your proposed study entitled:

**"Leader Personality and Performance:
Understanding Cross-Cultural Differences"**

HUC 1219

The proposed study's revised procedures were found to provide reasonable and adequate safeguards against possible risks involving human subjects. The information to be collected may be personal in nature or implication. Therefore, diligent care needs to be taken to protect the privacy of the participants and to assure that the data are kept confidential. Informed consent is a critical part of the research process. The subjects must be informed that their participation is voluntary. It is important that consent materials be presented in a language understandable to every participant. If you have participants in your study whose first language is not English, be sure that informed consent materials are adequately explained or translated. Since your reviewed project appears to do no damage to the participants, the Human Use Committee grants approval of the involvement of human subjects as outlined.

Projects should be renewed annually. *This approval was finalized on May 21, 2014 and this project will need to receive a continuation review by the IRB if the project, including data analysis, continues beyond May 21, 2015.* Any discrepancies in procedure or changes that have been made including approved changes should be noted in the review application. Projects involving NIH funds require annual education training to be documented. For more information regarding this, contact the Office of University Research.

You are requested to maintain written records of your procedures, data collected, and subjects involved. These records will need to be available upon request during the conduct of the study and retained by the university for three years after the conclusion of the study. If changes occur in recruiting of subjects, informed consent process or in your research protocol, or if unanticipated problems should arise it is the Researchers responsibility to notify the Office of Research or IRB in writing. The project should be discontinued until modifications can be reviewed and approved.

If you have any questions, please contact Dr. Mary Livingston at 257-2292 or 257-5066.

HUC 1219

Title: "Leader Personality and Performance: Understanding Cross-Cultural Differences"

Date Study Expired: May 21, 2014

Please select/initial one course of action:

1) _____ I do not wish to renew my study. All data collection and analysis are complete. The study has been completed.

OR

2) _____ Future use is only analysis of de-identified data and paper preparation. All data has been collected and completely de-identified such that all information that appears alone or in combination with other information would not reveal anyone's identity and anonymity is assured. All links to the identities of the subjects have been completely removed. For example: There are no names, no addresses, no phone numbers, no email addresses, no Web Universal Resource Locators (URLS), no Internet protocol (IP) addresses, no fax numbers, no school identification numbers, no employee numbers, no social security numbers, no birth dates, or other identifiable information that could possibly connect the data to an individual.

If a medical chart or record is involved, the De-identification and Confidentiality Forms are required for submission to the Louisiana Tech IRB. Data should not include biometric identifiers, including finger and voice prints or photographs. No biologic specimens, whether "de-identified" or not, are involved. For guidance on biologic specimens see the following URL: http://www.hhs.gov/ohrp/policy/cdebiol.html. Information not required in or approved for the approved study has been expunged.

3) The only continuation of research is analysis of de-identified data and article preparation as previously approved.

Data that is to be reanalyzed for a purpose other than that originally approved should be resubmitted for expedited review or exemption. Any use of data is subject to the approval of all of the original investigators. Note: Consent forms will be required to be kept on file for a minimum of 3 YEARS after data usage is complete.

My signature certifies data has been de-identified and will only be used for previously approved purposes.
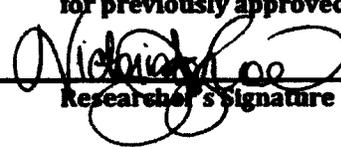
_____   5/29/15
Researcher's Signature   Date

Or

4) _____ I wish to renew the research.   (Continued on Page 2)

Page 1