

# **Leading and Following Day by Day**

The Effects of Words, Behaviors and their Alignment  
on Well-being and Effectiveness

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## **Abstract**

This dissertation deals with daily leader-follower interactions, alignment of words and actions, well-being and effectiveness. The first part of the dissertation shows the impact of leader behavior on follower well-being in the context of transformational leadership. The second part goes beyond single leader behaviors and investigates the value-based alignment of two behaviors, namely vision communication and goal setting, and their effects on trust and leaders' effectiveness. Turning the lens, the final part sheds light on the relationship of follower behavior and leader well-being.

A focus on concrete and visible behaviors of leaders and followers advances the event-based perspective on leadership and followership in the organizational behavior literature. The insights contribute to the integration of well-established theories, such as transformational leadership, vision communication and goal setting. Practical implications for interventions including the whole workforce are derived.

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**List of Abbreviations**

AET	Affective Events Theory
BI	Behavioral Integrity
CWB	Counterproductive Work Behavior
LMX	Leader-Member-Exchange
MLQ	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behavior
TALB	Taxonomy of Affective Leader Behavior
TFL	Transformational Leadership
WLB	Work-Life-Balance

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## 1. Introduction

### 1.1. The happy productive workplace

“Google has people whose sole job is to keep employees happy and maintain productivity.” (Zach Bulygo, 2013). With such an intense care for its employees this world-changing organization gained several best-employer awards in the US (Fortune, 2016). One who might dislike Google’s playful work design has to consider: Happiness or well-being of the workforce is a key ingredient for a successful organization. Research has therefore dedicated a lot of attention towards the relationship of happiness and productivity throughout the last decades, crediting it as the “Holy Grail” of organizational research (Landy, 1985).

Happy workers<sup>1</sup> have been shown to be more productive (Zelenski, Murphy, & Jenkins, 2008). Not having to worry whether their happiness is about to drop below a critical level, they can confidently invest their energy in seeking opportunities and helping others (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001; Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 1998). That way they build social (e.g., friends) and personal (e.g., resilience) resources which enhance productivity and buffer effects of future negative experiences (Fredrickson, 2001; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2012). Furthermore, in times of “the war for talents”, young professionals do not remain in organizations where they are unhappy (Wright & Bonett, 2007). When they quit, it means a loss of competences for the organization and further costs for new hiring. Finally, the rapid changes in the work environment and digitalization accelerate many aspects of work, in turn challenging the individual. Such challenges might endanger the well-being, as reflected in increasing numbers of work days lost to psychological health issues, such as burnout, depression or anxiety (e.g., Knieps & Reiners, 2015; Montano, Reeske, Franke, & Hüffmeier, 2017). Therefore, the

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<sup>1</sup> *Workers* is used in this dissertation when both, leaders and followers are explicitly included

identification of protective factors that foster well-being is an important endeavor for practitioners and organizational research.

Before doing so, it is important to establish an understanding of what exactly well-being is. First, well-being, seen as subjective perception of pleasure and happiness (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999; Warr, 2007), is addressed as affective well-being and is a desirable state for most individuals (Sonnentag, 2015). Affective well-being is the most appropriate conceptualization of happiness when it comes to predict productivity (Wright & Cropanzano, 2007; Zelenski, et al., 2008). Importantly, well-being is not stable but changes in the course of months and years (e.g., job satisfaction) or fluctuates during a work week, daily or more frequently as reaction to different events (e.g., affective reaction) (Ilies, Aw, & Pluut, 2015; Sonnentag, 2015; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Both components are interrelated: Affect has been shown to predict job satisfaction (Diener et al., 1999; Ilies & Judge, 2004). Additionally, it predicts productivity (Beal & Ghandour, 2011). In the following chapters, the fluctuating component of well-being is addressed as “affect” and the slowly changing component is addressed as “job satisfaction”.

## **1.2. The role of leadership and followership for the happy productive workplace**

Social relationships at the workplace, especially between leaders and followers, play an important role for the well-being and productivity of the workforce (e.g., Bono, Foldes, Vinson, & Muros, 2007; Dimotakis, Scott, & Koopman, 2011; Gooty, Connelly, Griffith, & Gupta 2010; Halbesleben, 2006; Nielsen, Yarker, Randall, & Munir, 2009; Schermuly & Meyer, 2015; van Dierendonck, Haynes, Borrill, & Stride, 2004). Beside other relevant job factors related to the task, the personality or the organization (see Sonnentag, 2015, for an overview on relevant antecedents of well-being at work), social relationships can enhance well-being through perceived social support, less interpersonal conflict or positive work climate (Sonnentag, 2015). Beneficial social relationships are characterized by high levels of trust and become manifest in

supportive behaviors, such as providing help, empowering or giving feedback (van Dierendonck et al., 2004). While leaders' influence on well-being is an uprising field in organizational research nowadays (Montano, et al., 2017), less attention has been paid to the opposite direction: Followers' influence on their leaders' well-being. Hence, the question arises which follower behaviors might be relevant for happy and productive leaders?

Importantly, such beneficial behavior in work-related social interactions can be learned. At least for leader behavior (e.g., charismatic leadership), trainability has been supported in prior research (Antonakis, Fenley, & Liechti, 2011; Avolio, Reichard, Hannah, Walumbwa, & Chan, 2009; Felfe, 2009). This is why, apart from providing creative workplaces and personal benefits, Google – as well as many other organizations – invests in trainings of their workforce (Ho, 2016). Over decades, leadership trainings in particular have been shown to be effective (Burke & Day, 1986; Collins & Holton, 2004; Taylor, Russ-Eft, & Taylor, 2009). Thus, insights on distinct learnable behaviors of leaders and followers, which boost well-being and productivity, can advance interventions at the workplace.

In summary, positive social relationships of leaders and followers are crucial for a happy productive workplace. Not only do they facilitate performance by increasing trust and general job satisfaction, they also promote positive affect as a result of leader and follower behaviors during the daily work. This dissertation aims to provide a deeper insight into this relationship, contributing to recent requests to explore affective mechanisms in leadership more intensively (Gooty et al., 2010; Hernandez, Eberly, Avolio, & Johnson, 2011). In addition, the active role of followers (Hernandez et al., 2011; Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe, & Carsten, 2014) is taken into account advancing practical implications for the whole workforce.

### **1.2.1. What we already know**

Leadership is the social process of exerting influence over the thoughts, feelings, and actions of others (Yukl, 2010). Followership refers to the nature and impact of followers' characteristics and behaviors in the leadership process (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). As evident in the definitions, both are inseparably intertwined and both are inherently important for a happy productive workplace (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001; Cropanzano & Wright, 2007; Judge et al., 1998; Zelenski et al., 2008). With regard to the definitions of leadership and followership the question arises what leaders and followers do when exerting influences on each other and how that results in a happy productive workplace. Subsequently, numerous studies on effective behaviors aimed to answer this question. Several taxonomies with a high variety of different behavioral categories, generated by different methodological approaches, emerged and keep emerging until now (Yukl, 2012). At last, the decision of how to conceptualize leading and following depends on the focus of the research question. The concepts useful for this dissertation shall be introduced in the next paragraphs.

“The agenda for theory and research in the field of leadership studies has evolved over the last 100 years from focuses on the internal dispositions associated with effective leaders evolved to broader inquiries that include emphases on the cognitions, attributes, behaviors, and contexts in which leaders and followers are dynamically embedded and interact over time” (Avolio, 2007, p.25). This quote accurately depicts that leadership is a complex process and that summing up or integrating the 100 years of accumulated knowledge is a challenging endeavor (for some overviews, see Behrendt, Matz, & Göritz, 2016; Dinh & Lord, 2012; Fischer, Dietz, & Antonakis, 2017; Hernandez et al., 2011). When taking followers into account and recognizing that they constitute leadership (Avolio, 2007; Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2015; Carsten, Uhl-Bien, West, Patera, & McGregor, 2010; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014), the leadership process becomes even

more complex. Yet, followers' active ways to follow explain an important part of what leadership is and what makes it salient (Howell & Shamir, 2005). Research on followership started late with the first work worth mentioning by Kelly (1988). As a result, less differentiated concepts exist to date. No meta-analytic reviews or integrative approaches are known so far (for a review and first attempt of integration, see Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). Marrying this undeservedly separated couple is challenging, regarding their different level of theoretical and empirical maturity. This dissertation will provide some ideas how to arrange this alliance on a behavioral level to advance research in leading and following as a joint process.

Concerning the role of leader behavior in the securing of a happy productive workplace, most research was focused on leader behaviors predicting the productivity part, namely performance (e.g., Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004; Wang, Oh, Courtright, & Colbert, 2011; Yukl, 2012). Nevertheless, the detour through happiness was not completely neglected. In particular, for the relationship between leadership and the rather stable (slowly changing) component of well-being (job satisfaction), research has uncovered several favorable behaviors (Kuoppala, Lamminpää, Liira, & Vainio, 2008), including ethical leadership (Tu, Lu, & Yu, 2017), empowering leadership (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2015) and above all transformational leadership (TFL) (Kovjanic, Schuh, Jonas, Quaquebeke, & Dick, 2012; Liu, Siu, & Shi, 2010; Nielsen et al., 2009; Piccolo, Bono, Heinitz, Rowold, Duehr, & Judge, 2012; Rowold, Borgmann, & Bormann, 2014). Additionally, TFL buffers the affective reaction to daily negative experiences at work (e.g., Bono et al., 2007). These studies primarily focus on followers' perceptions of leadership (Meyer et al., 2016; Yukl, 1999) and how they influence overall job satisfaction (e.g., by increasing self-efficacy beliefs). What we learned from that is that followers, on average, are more satisfied with their job when they perceive a leader as transformational (or ethical etc.). Why is it difficult to interpret such results? For the

interpretation, it is problematic that positive perceptions of leadership and high job satisfaction tend to confound when measured together, e.g., in one questionnaire (Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013; Yukl, 2012). Confounding measures make it hard to determine the true cause of the effects.

An important factor for leader behaviors as a social resource at work is its association with values, such as honesty, altruism, compassion and many more, as explicated in the authentic leadership theory (Avolio et al., 2004). When leader behaviors are guided by internal values, they will most likely be perceived as trustworthy by the followers. One important behavior in this context is vision communication, as visions convey values and give a meaning to the followers' work. Consequently, visions can enhance trust in the leader. Hence, visions are a central part of various leadership paradigms, such as TFL (Bass, 1985b; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). Leader behaviors which are aligned with internalized values can enhance trust (Simons, Leroy, Collewaert, & Masschelein, 2015). Subsequently, trust in leaders serves as protective factor for well-being (Braun, Peus, Weisweiler, & Frey, 2013; Dirks, & Ferrin, 2002) and enhances the willingness to perform (Braun, et al., 2013; Burke, Sims, Lazzara, & Salas, 2007; Dirks, & Ferrin, 2002). In sum, followers who trust their leaders are happier and more productive.

### **1.2.2. What are the recent areas of concern and possible solutions**

Recently, the urge for more research on leaders' influence on the fluctuating component of well-being (affect) arose (Bono et al., 2007; Gooty et al., 2010; Hernandez et al., 2011; Scott, Colquitt, Paddock, & Judge, 2010; Tepper et al., 2017). In general, interactions with leaders seem to increase negative affect (Dasborough, 2006; Fisher, 2002; Miner, Glomb, & Hulin, 2005). For example, although only 20% of the interactions with the supervisor were negative, the effect these interactions had on followers' mood was five times stronger compared to positive interactions (Miner et al., 2005). Nevertheless, leader behavior, such as monitoring the progress and recognizing achievements, can foster positive affect, too (Amabile, Schatzel, Moneta, &

Kramer, 2004). Overall “strong affective reactions to leader behaviors, and explicit mentions of such reactions were more common than explicit mentions of perceptions of the leader” (Amabile et al., 2004, p.26). Yet, one might wonder, what leaders actually do to exert such affective reactions? In particular, what do effective leaders, such as transformational leaders, do day by day in contrast to less transformational leaders?

One important behavior, especially for transformational leaders, is communicating visions. Despite the ability of vision communication to convey values, the question arises if it is enough to increase trust? To yield the beneficial effects on trust, the communicated values have to be enacted at the workplace (Palanski & Yammarino, 2011; Prottas, 2008; Prottas, 2013; Simons 2008; Simons & McLean Parks 2000). By means of a first integrative approach I aim to illustrate the importance of value-based alignment of behaviors, specifically goal setting, for trust. Only when capturing concrete leader behaviors and their alignment it is possible to determine their strength in influencing followers’ affect, job satisfaction and trust appropriately.

As to followers’ influence on leaders’ well-being, even less is known. Most studies focus on what kind of followers are better evaluated by their leaders (Kelley, 2008), or how followers imagine a typical leader (Carsten et al., 2010; Sy, 2010). Apart from the impact of displayed followers’ affect in an emotional contagion process (Hannah, Avolio, Luthans, & Harms, 2008; Hsee, Hatfield, Carlson, & Chemtob, 1990; Tee, Paulsen, & Ashkanasy, 2013), no study with a direct link to leaders’ well-being could be found. Hence, the question arises: What are other ways followers influence leaders’ well-being beyond emotional contagion?

To gain insight into leaders’ and followers’ distinct behaviors, in contrast to most research, I conceptualized behavior as distinct, visible conduct and interaction (Bonito & Sanders, 2011), that is, as something specific or observable. This perspective also mitigates typical methodological issues in leadership research which are discussed in the following chapter.



### **1.3. An event-based approach to leadership and followership**

For the conceptualization of leader and follower behavior as visible conduct and interaction it might be beneficial to speak of them in terms of events. For a long time, organizational (leadership) research, focused on features such as leadership traits which predict desired outcomes steadily. Yet, organizational phenomena are not solely limited to features but can emerge, fade or change due to events. Therefore, theoretical models increasingly rely on event-based approaches. “Events differ from features in many ways, but perhaps the greatest difference lies in the fact that events are discrete and bounded in space and time.” (Morgeson, Mitchell, & Liu, 2015, p.516). For instance, a follower voicing an idea to a supervisor might be such an event. Such an event might change the leader’s mood or performance immediately.

Event-based approaches focus on variability within persons across time or events (Hoffman & Lord, 2013; Morgeson et al., 2015; Roe, 2008). Whereas a traditional between-subject approach might investigate questions, such as “Do followers with empowering leaders feel better than followers with less empowering leaders? “, a typical event-based research question is “Do followers feel better when they are empowered by their leaders, in contrast to when they are not empowered by their leaders?”. While the first question refers to variability between individuals due to an antecedent (empowering leadership), the latter focuses on variability within an individual across time and events (empowering). Such an event-based approach allows to capture dynamic concepts and relationships from several perspectives linked to events at work. Specifically, when investigating affect as a fluctuating state, the advantages of an event-based approach are obvious: Leader-follower interactions conceptualized as events might be triggers for affect. Thus, within-person variation in affect due to events (i.e. leader-follower interactions) can be uncovered.

As illustrated in Figure 1, leading and following are the two behaviors occurring during an interaction which represents the leadership process. In order to understand this process in its entirety, both perspectives – the leader's and the follower's – on leading and following need to be considered.

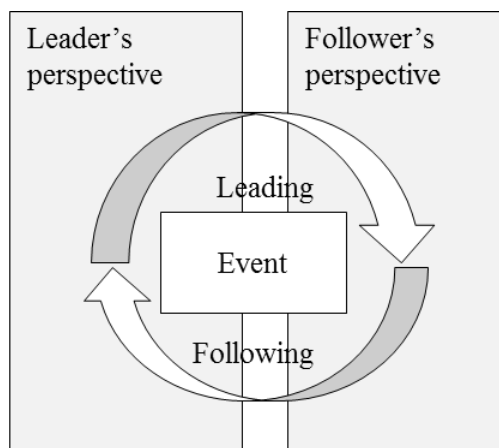


Figure 1. Leading and following seen as an event from two perspectives.

Research on leadership (e.g., TFL) and followership focused on between-person variation, suggesting that leaders who are transformational are more effective than leaders who are not. As mentioned in chapter 1.1, such designs are problematic (Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013; Yukl, 2012) because they tend to confound behavior with its effects. These issues arise because the workers' behaviors and their association with their outcomes vary from one event to the other (Fisher, 2008; Morgeson, 2005). Such variability makes it difficult for raters to aggregate these constructs to the individual level (i.e., in a questionnaire) without misrepresenting some aspects of the behavior or its effects (Dinh & Lord, 2012; Shondrick, Dinh, & Lord, 2010). Furthermore, leaders' and follower behaviors and perceptions are not independent, but rather part of a social process. How followers perceive and evaluate their leaders is the outcome of a mixture of various

social interactions (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). Hence, to understand what really goes on between leaders and followers, both perspectives on behaviors and reactions need to be taken into account.

Due to such a complex linkage between behaviors and outcomes, raters who evaluate the effectiveness of leadership or followership have to rely on cognitive schemas or heuristics, e.g., implicit theories (Dinh & Lord, 2012) or affective information such as “liking” (Brown & Keeping, 2005), rather than on a memorized sample of behaviors (Hansbrough, Lord, & Schyns, 2015). For instance, in cross-sectional studies using questionnaire data, the common source bias can inflate (or induce) the relationship of favorable leader’s evaluation (e.g., highly transformational) and followers’ job satisfaction. In other words, followers who like their leader are more satisfied with their job, and at the same time are more willing to evaluate their leader as more transformational. As a result, effects, for example of leadership on well-being and performance, might be overestimated and it remains unclear why and how these effects arise and evolve.

In light of these limitations, researchers started to advocate explanatory behavior-based research (Gooty et al., 2010), such as event-based approaches, as promising alternatives (Morgeson et al., 2015, Hoffman & Lord, 2013). An event-based approach facilitates causal assessment due to the observability and relatively short duration of specific behaviors and reactions. Thus, there is no need to use the facilitating heuristics mentioned above. Assessing events allows to infer perceived leader and follower behavior from observations of reactive outcomes. This way, actual behavior and the perception of the behavior can be differentiated (Dinh & Lord, 2012). Moreover, relying on events allows a better observation of situational or personal factors influencing outcomes and might help to extend or modify existing leadership theories by introducing behavior-based mechanisms (Hoffman & Lord, 2013). “In short, a better understanding of the causal dynamics associated with leadership requires more precise theorizing

and measurement, which we maintain can be developed at an event level.” (Hoffman & Lord, 2013, p. 559). Such knowledge allows building effective leadership interventions, emphasizing “the critical role dynamic intrapersonal structures have in shaping informational processing and social influence processes” (Dinh & Lord, 2012).

Finally, accurate behavioral measurement is a cornerstone of scientific theories of leadership, which we suggest will be enhanced by event-level measurement methods (Shondrick, et al., 2010). Diary studies provide the optimal method to capture event-level data of leader and follower behaviors which vary throughout the day (Dóci, Stouten, & Hofmans, 2015; Johnson, Venus, Lanaj, Mao, & Chang, 2012; Nielsen & Cleal, 2011). In a diary study, concrete behaviors as well as the fluctuating nature of thoughts and feelings can be assessed (Beal & Ghandour, 2011; Hoffmann & Lord, 2013; Morgeson et al., 2015; Ohly, Sonnentag, Niessen, & Zapf, 2010). Another method to get clear causal implications is a traditional experiment where leader and follower behaviors are manipulated. The price for the causal claims is a decrease of external validity. Nevertheless, it is most useful to clarify the causality of relationships found in the naturalistic work-setting.

#### **1.4. The model of this dissertation**

The main goal of this dissertation is to examine the role of distinct leader and follower behaviors for well-being and performance of leaders and followers. The presented studies contribute to leader and followership research fostering event-based approaches, showing the role of leadership events for well-being and taking follower behaviors into account.

Based on the affective events theory (AET, Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), events at the workplace can explain the variation in well-being and performance of the workforce. On the one hand, they elicit affect as short-term well-being. On the other hand, they allow to build trust – an important component of social relationships. According to AET, a higher level of positive affect

results in job satisfaction and leads to behaviors like engaged task execution. Thus, the AET fundamentally explains the happy productive worker hypothesis relying on events (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001).

The overall model of this dissertation is displayed in Figure 2. The core of the model is the event consisting of leader and follower behaviors and the reactions of the respective other (bold frames). The behaviors are promoted by the characteristics of the actor. This model

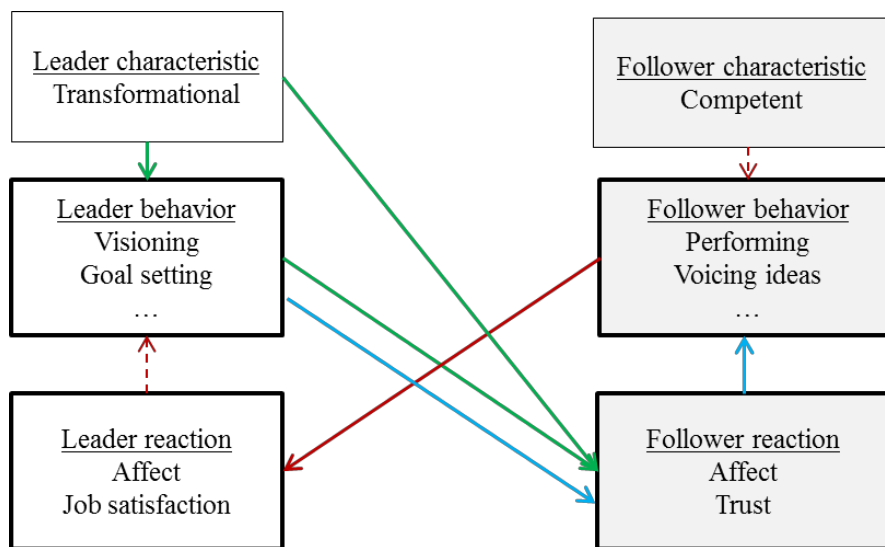


Figure 2. The model of the dissertation.

Green = study 1; Blue = study 2; Red = study 3. Dashed lines stand for paths that are theoretically argued but not investigated.

represents an attempt to capture the leadership event as an intertwined leader-follower interaction where leaders and followers influence each other. The single studies of this dissertation investigate different paths in the model, answering the following research questions:

**Study 1** is represented by the green path. This study focuses on the role of leaders for followers' fluctuating affect. Thereby, the role of general characteristic (TFL) and actual behaviors of leaders are considered. The main questions are: *What do leaders do at work on a*

*daily basis? How do stable perceptions of leadership, namely TFL, and daily behaviors influence followers' well-being?*

**Study 2** is represented by the blue path. This study considers two specific leader behaviors, namely vision communication and goal setting, and their alignment. The study emphasizes the causal relationship of alignment and trust as an important predictor of followers' performance. The main questions are: *How do the leader's vision communication and goal setting interact to predict trust and performance of the follower? Which impact does the alignment of these behaviors have in terms of communicated or enacted values?*

**Study 3** is represented by the red path. This study focuses on the role of followers for affect and job satisfaction of their leaders. The main questions are: *What do followers do at work on a daily basis? How does follower behavior and the nature of their behavior influence leaders' proximal and distal well-being?*

In sum, these three studies provide a first insight into what takes place in daily leader-follower interactions and lay the ground for future studies in event-based leadership research.

## **1.5. Summary of the research papers compiled in the dissertation**

### **1.5.1. Study 1: What's Going On? An Event Perspective Of Daily Leader-Follower Interactions**

The aim of the first study was to explain how leaders influence followers' affect at work. Currently, the mechanisms for their influence on daily fluctuating affect are unclear. There is support for an explanation via emotional contagion and the perception of one's leader as transformational. Yet, we assumed daily behaviors of the leader play a role as well. Thus, to close the gap, we explored a behavioral mechanism explaining leaders' impact on followers' affect, specifically that of transformational leaders.

We conceptualized leader behavior as affective events based on the AET. Affective events were assessed in four diary studies and linked to followers' affective reactions. 995 events reported in response to an open question by 206 individuals were categorized. In a multi-level model we examined the relationship between TFL, daily leader behaviors and followers' affect. This event-based approach compares effects within instead of between individuals. Our study contributes to leadership research by providing a validated event taxonomy of leaders' affective behaviors. This can be used in further event-based studies. In regard to the research questions addressed in this study, we showed that the perception of one's leader as transformational was indeed associated with higher positive affect. On top of that, transformational leaders set clear goals, gave positive feedback and let their follower participate in decision making. Only the latter two were related with high positive affect.

### **1.5.2. Study 2: When Visions And Goals Go Hand In Hand – Investigating The Effects Of Vision-Goal Alignment On Leaders' Effectiveness**

In the second study we investigated two distinct leader behaviors, namely vision communication and goal setting. The aim was to show that the alignment in terms of values of distinct behaviors is crucial for a good social relationship as indicated by trust towards the leader. Trust, in turn, increases perceived leaders' effectiveness and is reflected in followers' performance.

Visions enhance the motivation of the followers by conveying values and providing a deeper meaning for one's job. Apart from vision communication leaders also engage frequently in task-related communication such as goal setting which has also been shown to boost motivation. In practice both messaging techniques are used simultaneously: Goals are communicated while a vision is at work. Yet, precious little work investigates how goal and vision communication affect one another. Thus, we aimed to integrate the two fields by

investigating the interactive effect of visions and goals in two studies. Higher leaders' effectiveness in stimulating followers' performance was assumed when visions and goals are aligned in terms of their content. The first study with 123 students of a Dutch university showed the suggested positive effect of vision-goal alignment on student's performance. We found support for the mediation via behavioral integrity and trust in the second study with 227 participants of the same University in a vignette experiment. To the current state of research it can be concluded that vision-goal-alignment can be an important tool for effective leadership.

### **1.5.3. Study 3: How Do Leaders Experience The Acts Of Their Followers? Two Diary Studies On Follower Behavior And Affect**

The aim of the third study is to switch perspective and have a close look at followers' influence on the leader. For the sake of creating a happy productive workplace, leaders' well-being is not negligible. In particular, affect influences behaviors, such as decision making, which in turn might concern the majority of the workforce.

Notably, followers have a significant impact on leaders' affect, for example through affective exchange. Much effort has been invested in research on leader behaviors and followers' affective outcomes, neglecting these reverse effects. Inspired by recent research on active followership, I investigated followers' impact on leaders and assumed that follower behaviors influence their leaders' affect and job satisfaction. The studies are theoretically based on the AET and literature on the constructive view of followership.

Starting from a literature review on distinct follower behaviors, I first conducted an explorative qualitative diary study. It allowed adding typical follower behaviors to establish a more complete categorization. Building on these results, followers' impact on leaders' daily affect was tested in a second quantitative diary study. The study revealed that followers mostly execute tasks, plan and organize, receive information and express their opinion or voice an idea.



Only the rarely performed organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) had a direct effect on positive affect. The other relationships were moderated by the nature of the behaviors, namely their effectiveness and activeness. Findings of this study contribute to advance the understanding of followers' role in leadership and affect at work.

In sum, the three studies contribute to a better understanding of leading and following on a daily basis. Importantly, parts of this dissertation were conducted in close collaboration with coauthors (see Conference Contributions and Scope of Responsibility). In order to avoid inconsistencies in style due to different personal pronouns, the plural will be used throughout the next parts of this dissertation.

## **2. Study 1: What's Going On? An Event Perspective of Daily Leader-Follower Interactions**

### **2.1. Introduction**

Daily affect at the workplace matters for well-being and performance. Just imagine arriving at your office good-humoredly, meeting your amiable boss and – out of the blue – getting a harsh rebuke. You might get annoyed or hurt. Such strong feelings can lead to lower motivation and performance that day and, in the long term, result in doubting your boss' amiability and change your general perception of the workplace. It is easy to imagine such a scenario and its consequences.

In general, diary studies empirically supported some of the effects described in this scenario. They showed that leaders have an important impact on followers' daily affect at work (e.g., Bono et al., 2007; Scott, et al., 2010; Tepper et al., 2017). Most prominently, transformational leadership (TFL) functions as a protective factor for affect (e.g., Bono et al., 2007). Daily affect, in turn, results in outcomes relevant to organizations, such as job satisfaction (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Weiss, Nicholas, & Daus, 1999), OCB (Tepper et al., 2017) or creativity (Amabile et al., 2004). Despite these findings, it is less clear *how* leaders influence daily affect. Of several plausible explanations, emotional contagion is empirically well established (Sy, Côté, & Saaverda, 2005). According to emotional contagion, followers reflect the affect displayed by their leader (Van Knippenberg & Van Kleef, 2016). However, it is conceivable that also non-affective behaviors, that is, behaviors which are not accompanied by leaders' display of affect, influence follower affect (Van Knippenberg & Van Kleef, 2016). Emotional contagion cannot account for these effects. Consequently, the question arises in what additional way leader behaviors, in general, and transformational leaders, in particular, influence followers' affect.

To date, leader interactions appear to increase negative affect in the workplace (Dasborough, 2006; Fisher, 2002; Miner et al., 2005) on daily level. In these studies, leader interactions were treated as a unity, and compared to interactions with other people (coworker, customer) or to the absence of interactions. However, it seems necessary to differentiate the effects of distinct behaviors because distinct behaviors like contract breach (Conway & Briner, 2002), humor (Wijewardena, Härtel, & Samaratunge, 2017) or feedback (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2009) are presumably associated with different affective reactions. Studies on distinct behaviors showed that some leader behaviors enhance positive affect, while others enhance negative affect (e.g., Conway & Briner, 2002, Amabile et al., 2004, Belschak & Den Hartog, 2009). Although these studies provide important insights in distinct behaviors, they do not allow for the comparison between the effects of behaviors within one individual because of their study design. Typically, only one type of behavior was examined. For example, it was shown that contract breach has a negative impact on affect in comparison to no contract breach (Conway & Briner, 2002). Yet, it remains an open question if – for a follower's affect – contract breach is worse than negative feedback. In this study we will provided a first notion on what really happens in leader-follower interaction, demonstrating which behaviors seem to be more relevant for affect in daily work from a follower's perspective. Additionally, we examined if transformational leaders engage in any specific behaviors explaining their extraordinary role for followers' affect on a daily basis.

To link leader behaviors to affective reactions of followers in work-related interactions, we rely on the Affective Events Theory (AET, Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). In the AET the authors suggest that the occurrence of affective events influences important work-related outcomes. However, AET does not address concrete events, making it challenging to test these propositions empirically. In order to apply the AET for our research question, we aimed at

conceptualizing leader behaviors as affective events. Therefore, we identified what leaders actually do when interacting with their followers. We referred to followers' typical experience on a daily basis and not to leaders' most effective behaviors. Generally, although there is research on leader behavior in the laboratory considering very specific micro-level behaviors (Lehmann-Willenbrock, Meinecke, Rowold, & Kauffeld, 2015; Meyer et al., 2016), there is not enough insight in the kind of leader behaviors frequently occurring in the actual workplace (e.g., Beal, Weiss, Barros, & MacDermid, 2005; Ohly & Schmitt, 2015; Miner et al., 2005). These distinctly experienced behaviors are the categories of the new taxonomy of leader behaviors that we develop in the first part of this study.

In the first part (1a), we seek to find a comprehensive and complete taxonomy for “what leaders really do”, conceptualized as affective events. In order to reach this goal, we compare the well-established Managerial Practice Survey (MPS) and an evidence-based category system (EBC) inductively created for this purpose in a prior study. We evaluate the applicability of both taxonomies based on frequencies and inter-rater-reliability. The overall goal is to create an easily applicable, valid and reliable taxonomy for daily leader behavior to facilitate event-based studies on leadership and affect. In the second part of the study (1b), we examined how the perception of TFL can be linked to daily behaviors associated with TFL. Furthermore, the relationship between daily behaviors associated with TFL and daily affect was analyzed.

The taxonomy and additional analyses contribute to leadership research in at least three unique ways: (1) It contributes to research on affect at work by providing insight into leader behavior as sources of affect. This helps understanding how affect at work evolves over time. Furthermore, it suggests distinct and testable events – refining the AET. By using the taxonomy we developed, research questions on dynamic processes at work can be better addressed and understood. For example, studies that show that negative interactions with leaders lead to strong

negative affect (Miner et al., 2005) could differentiate which behaviors in particular result in strong negative affect. (2) Furthermore, our analyses contribute to theory building on leadership. Behavioral mechanisms for leaders' impact on affect and other, long-term outcomes can be suggested. In this way, confounding effects and lacking causal models might be better addressed, for example, via actual behaviors, associated with TFL (3) Methodologically, the study contributes to event-based research and within-subject studies by providing a tool to capture daily leader behavior, its sequence and timing (Shamir, 2011).

## **2.2. Theoretical background and current research**

In line with prior research, and based on the AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) we examined leader behaviors relevant for affective reactions of followers. These behaviors are not necessarily consistent with their leadership style (a more general impression of leadership) and vary from over the time span due to external or internal reasons (Dinh & Lord, 2012; Johnson et al., 2012). In the following, we first outline the event-based approach to leadership and briefly address some methodological concerns of current survey measures.

### **2.2.1. An event-based approach to leader behavior**

The event-like characteristics of leader-follower interactions (Hoffman & Lord, 2013) and their dynamic nature (Johnson et al., 2012) support the value of an event-based approach to leadership. The event-based-approach focuses on processes consisting of small units which are influenced by the context and are dynamic. This approach is less parsimonious than conventional approaches to leadership but can provide detailed information on the mechanisms linking stable concepts, such as leaders' dispositions and their effectiveness, via events (Hoffman & Lord, 2013). Events are defined as distinguishable units of activity, occurring in a specific time and location, and having a perceptible beginning and end (Zacks, Tversky, & Iyer, 2001) or "external, bounded in time and space, and involve the intersection of different entities" (Morgeson et al.,

2015, p.13). Because interactions with a leader fulfill these criteria, leadership behaviors can be seen as events. “Feedback” for example may be given after a task has been completed (specific time) in the office (location) and the follower will perceive the beginning and end. Leader behaviors can provoke affective reactions when they are obviously affective (e.g., complimenting or insulting someone) but also when they are seemingly non-affective (e.g., giving as task). Therefore, we consider leader behaviors as affective events.

### **2.2.2. Methodological concerns**

Leadership research often focused on leader behavior which motivates the follower and results in higher performance, for example charismatic leadership or TFL (Bass, 1985a; Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Shamir et al., 1993). These leadership styles are mostly captured in a questionnaire. Leadership questionnaires hold some disadvantages particularly when used to capture daily leader behavior<sup>2</sup>. First, some behaviors, such as giving a visionary speech, are rare. They might not be observed on a daily basis, limiting the researcher’s ability to detect and study their effects. Furthermore, in leadership questionnaires followers do not only refer to behaviors they remember when evaluating their leader as charismatic or transformational (Hansbrough et al., 2015). Rather, they tend to rely on implicit theories, strong memories of one particular event or expectations (Dinh & Lord, 2012; Hansbrough et al., 2015), which limits the validity of these questionnaires. Finally, assessing effective leadership style in a questionnaire entails the risk to confound leadership styles and their outcomes (Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013).

The event perspective can improve leadership research by delimiting the complexity of leadership while focusing on short time-bound events (Hoffman & Lord, 2013; Uhl-Bien, Marion, & McKelvey, 2007). Furthermore, events are stored in episodic memory, which reduces the effect of cognitive schemata and implicit leadership categories on the recall (Martell & Evans,

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<sup>2</sup> Here we refer to a single questionnaire on daily behavior, asking “ how does your leader behave on a daily basis”

2005; Shondrick et al., 2010). Finally, studying specific observable behaviors allows for causal implications (Hoffman & Lord, 2013) because alternative explanations can be ruled out. Diary studies provide the optimal method to capture event-level data of leader behaviors which vary throughout the day (Dóci et al., 2015; Johnson et al., 2012; Nielsen & Cleal, 2011). In a diary study, concrete leader behaviors, as well as the fluctuating nature of thoughts and feelings (Beal & Ghandour, 2011; Hoffmann & Lord, 2013; Morgeson et al., 2015; Ohly et al., 2010) can be assessed.

### **2.2.3. Affective Events Theory**

To frame leader behaviors as affective events we relied on the propositions of the AET. Core concepts of AET are *affective events* which evoke *affective reactions* and are influenced by *work environment*. The work environment contains organizational factors (size of organization or branch), work-related factors (e.g., workload or team-composition) and also relational factors (e.g., Leader-member-exchange (LMX) or team climate, Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Work environment directly impacts the likelihood of discrete events. For example, in a small project team there might be more “coordinative meetings” than in an organization with independent workers. Thus, the AET suggests an indirect effect of work environment on affect. Affect is defined as a pleasant or unpleasant emotional state due to a stimulus (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Because affect is a response to an event, it fluctuates over time. Finally, AET assumes affect to, directly or indirectly, influence behavior. Thereby, the source of the affect (event) matters for the resulting behavior (e.g., performance) (Beal et al., 2005).

Previous research has shown leader behaviors to vary over time, and to depend on the work environment (Johnson et al., 2012; Nielsen & Cleal, 2011). In our study (1b), we suggested that leadership style can be seen as work environment. Having a transformational leader, for example, should increase the likelihood of “inspirational speeches”. This event might, in turn,

provoke an affective reaction. Indeed, followers react affectively to leader interactions (Bono et al., 2007; Miner et al., 2005). Based on this previous research, we treat leader behaviors as affective events which, following the logic of AET, are most direct predictors of followers' affect.

To the best of our knowledge, only one study used an event-based approach to leadership and differentiated leader behaviors, using an adapted form of MPS categories (Amabile et al., 2004). Amabile and colleagues (2004) linked leaders' daily behaviors and followers' perceived support for creativity. They showed differential effects of the different leader behaviors on perceived support for creativity. Specific leader behaviors were also depicted as particularly affective based on the followers' diary entries. Despite these promising results, no follow-up research has used this method to conceptualize and assess leader behaviors. Most importantly, Amabile and colleagues (2004) have not systematically linked leader behaviors to followers' affect. Based on their findings, we test the MPS as possible taxonomy differentiating daily leader behaviors.

## **Study 1a: Development of the taxonomy of affective leader behavior (TALB)**

### **2.3. Event taxonomies**

The first part of this article is the development of a new taxonomy which can be used to test the assumptions of the AET explained above. Therefore, we aimed for leader behaviors, conceptualized as events, which potentially predict affective reactions. Following the example of Amabile and colleagues (2004) we took the MPS into account and compared it to the taxonomy we prior construed for diary studies (EBC).



### **2.3.1. Managerial Practice Survey (MPS)**

The MPS was developed taking into account that “enhancing performance is not the only basis for evaluating effectiveness, and the importance accorded different criteria affects the selection of relevant behaviors for a taxonomy” (Yukl, 2012, p. 78). The MPS questionnaire was primarily used to give feedback to managers as it contains precise behavior descriptions of middle range managers but it was also comprehensively validated and tested in empirical studies (Tracey & Hinkin, 1998; Yukl, 1999). The MPS contains distinct leader behaviors such as *planning* and *informing* (see Table 1) and intends to depict a full range of effective managerial behaviors. The MPS behaviors are effective when executed correctly, however it is likely that such a behavior might occur in a harmful or deficient way during a working day (see Amabile et al., 2004). Thus, following the example of Amabile and colleagues (2004), we added an opposite category to each MPS category including the performance of an ineffective behavior. For example, “the leader gives unclear instruction” would be coded as *not clarifying*. Because the MPS was developed from observations of concrete behaviors, it is free from any affective component. The advantage of non-affective categorized leader behavior is that the antecedents are not confounded with their assumed outcomes. A further important gain for behavior-based research is the absence of a focus on an exclusive style or type of leadership, like TFL or abusive leadership. The MPS represents a range of possible behaviors, allowing for the comparison of different specific behaviors. Yet, if a less fine-grained view is preferential the behavioral categories of the MPS can be allocated in broader factors namely relation-, change- and task-oriented behavior (Yukl et al., 2002) making the MPS comparable to other studies with broad behavioral categories. As the MPS does not intend to predict followers’ affect and has not been validated for that purpose it might lead to challenges to apply in form of events to predict

Table 1  
*MPS categories and definitions (Yukl, Gordon, & Taber, 2002)*  
*complemented by opposite categories and frequency from study 1a*

Category	Definition	Freq.	Opposite category	Freq.
Planning and organizing	Determining long-term objectives and strategies, allocating resources according to priorities, determining how to use personnel and resources to accomplish a task efficiently, and determining how to improve coordination, productivity, and the effectiveness of the organizational unit.	42	Not planning	4
Problem solving	Identifying work-related problems, analyzing problems in a timely but systematic manner to identify causes and find solutions, and acting decisively to implement solutions to resolve important problems or crises.	34	Not problem solving	8
Clarifying roles and objectives	Assigning tasks, providing direction in how to do the work, and communicating a clear understanding of job responsibilities, task objectives, deadlines, and performance expectations.	242	Not clarifying	22
Informing	Disseminating relevant information to people who need it to do their work, providing written materials and documents, and answering requests for technical information.	53	Not informing	12
Monitoring	Gathering information about work activities and external conditions affecting the work, checking on the progress and quality of the work, evaluating the performance of individuals and the organizational unit, analyzing trends, and forecasting external events.	63	Not monitoring	5
Motivating and inspiring	Using influence techniques that appeal to emotion or logic to generate enthusiasm for the work, commitment to task objectives, and compliance with requests for cooperation, assistance, support, or resources, and setting an example of appropriate behavior.	1	Not motivating	16
Consulting	Checking with people before making changes that affect them, encouraging suggestions for improvement, inviting participation in decision making, and incorporating the ideas and suggestions of others in decisions.	26	Not consulting	5
Delegating	Allowing subordinates to have substantial responsibility and discretion in carrying out work activities, handling problems, and making important decisions.	44	Not delegating	4
Supporting	Acting friendly and considerate, being patient and helpful, showing sympathy and support when someone is upset or anxious, listening to complaints and problems, and looking out for someone's interests.	49	Not supporting	15
Developing and mentoring	Providing coaching and helpful career advice, and doing things to facilitate a person's skill acquisition, professional development, and career advancement.	23	Not developing	1
Managing conflicts	Facilitating the constructive resolution of conflict, and encouraging cooperation and teamwork with the the work unit	6	Not managing conflicts	13

Continuation Table 1

Category	Definition	Freq.	Opposite category	Freq.
Networking	socializing informally, developing contacts with people who are a source of information and support, and maintaining contacts through periodic interaction, including visits, telephone calls, correspondence, and attendance at meetings and social events.	80	Not networking	4
Recognizing	Providing praise and recognition for effective performance, significant achievements, and special contributions, and expressing appreciation for someone's contributions and special efforts.	29	Not recognizing	11
Rewarding	Providing or recommending tangible rewards such as a pay increase or promotion for effective performance, significant achievements, and demonstrated competence.	12	Not rewarding	1
Others		171		

Note. Freq. = Frequency;  $N = 996$

affective reactions. Thus, notwithstanding the advantages of its comprehensiveness we assume that the MPS might be insufficient to represent a taxonomy of affective events.

### 2.3.2. Evidence based categories (EBC)

We developed the evidence based categorization (EBC) inductively confirming the categories by an extensive literature search on work events, affective events, and leadership. We aimed to generate an appropriate set of events for within-person research. EBC contains leader behaviors which were associated with affective reactions in prior research. We identified fourteen types of events. A summary of the fourteen categories and the references are given in Table 2.

To deduce appropriate behavior categories we relied on research studying affective outcomes of leadership (e.g., Bass, Jung, Avolio, & Berson, 2003; Belschak & Den Hartog, 2009; Fisher, 2002; Wegge, van Dick, Fisher, West, & Dawson, 2006) so that behaviors can be classified as an *affective event*. First, we consulted studies on affective work events not necessarily related to leadership. Hereby, we rephrased relevant interactive work events as leader-related. Second, we reviewed studies on particular leader behaviors (e.g., feedback); and

finally we relied on leadership theories (e.g., TFL) suggesting a certain set of behaviors. In this way we theoretically confirmed behaviors we inductively deduce from the reports that have been subject to prior research.

Table 2  
*EBC, the origins in the literature and their frequency in study 1a*

Final Event Categories	Events in literature	Reference	Frequency
Positive feedback	Positive feedback	Belschak & Den Hartog (2009);	45
	Recognizing	Basch & Fisher (1998); Bass et al. (2003)	
	Rewarding		
Giving challenging tasks	Challenging	Basch & Fisher (1998); Bass et al. (2003)	36
Supporting	Consideration	Rafferty & Griffin (2006)	68
	Developing/coaching	Wegge et al., (2006)	
	Supporting		
Consulting follower	Participation in decisions	Wegge et al. (2006)	36
	Planning	Basch & Fisher (1998)	
Enhancing goal pursuit	Promoting goal achievement	Zohar, Tzischinski, & Epstein (2003)	226
	Explicit goal setting	Judge et al. (2004)	
Ethical behavior	Promise fulfillment	Conway & Briner (2002)	46
	Image management	Gardner & Avolio (1998)	
	Consideration	Wegge et al. (2006)	
	Ethical behavior	Brown, Treviño, & Harrison (2005)	
Increasing work strain	Producing strain	Wegge et al. (2006)	48
		Basch & Fisher (1998)	
Hindering goal pursuit	Unclear goal setting	Judge et al., (2004)	23
	Hindering goal achievement	Zohar et al., (2003)	
Negative feedback	Negative feedback	Belschak & Den Hartog (2009);	18
	No recognizing	Basch & Fisher (1998); Bass et al. (2003)	
	Punishment		
Unethical behavior	Contract breach	Conway & Briner (2002)	68
	Unethical behavior	Brown et al., (2005)	
Conflict management		added by author	38
Private interaction		added by author	58
Usual work		added by author	197
Others		added by author	89

An advantage of the EBC is that it is based in current research but adapted to the purpose of studying daily behavior. Furthermore, the relationships to affective outcomes found in previous research supported the treatment of these behaviors as affective events. Nevertheless it might be less comprehensive than the MPS because it is deduced from one limited sample of events. As we just recently developed the taxonomy it was not entirely empirically examined yet.

### **2.3.3. Comparing both taxonomies**

We illustrated above the advantages of both taxonomies. At the same time, the advantages of one taxonomy represent the disadvantages of the other. Therefore, the question arose if there is a reasonable possibility to combine both taxonomies. The idea was to examine if the events in one category of the MPS are altogether in a corresponding category of EBC. That would indicate that categories represent the same behavior using different names. In the other case, the events in a MPS category are spread over several EBC categories (or vice versa). This can be interpreted as subcategories or differentiations of one overall category. As a result, we can suggest a finer grained categorization and emphasize the most relevant categories which exist in both taxonomies.

## **2.4. Methods**

### **2.4.1. Participants and procedure**

For the present study we aggregated four data sets, collected in 4 different diary studies. All studies contained the same measures of daily leader events and affect. The requirement for participation in each study was the identification of a direct leader with whom the prospective participants interacted at least once a week, either orally or in written form.

The total sample consisted of 207 respondents, recruited through different sampling strategies. Sample 1 (71 participants), sample 3 (46 participants) and sample 4 (45 participants) were recruited via e-mail and social networks using personal contact and snowball technique.

Respondents came from various organizations and held diverse occupations. Sample 2 consisted of 45 employees from a German state laboratory, whose management wished to participate in the study. Participants were mainly administrative or laboratory workers. In contrast to the other studies in sample 2 the whole organization was informed about the main topic and procedure of the on-going research.

First, participants filled in a general online questionnaire containing demographic data, personality measures and TFL which is relevant for the second part of this study. After the general questionnaire, participants reported daily events on ten consecutive work days. The diary survey was mainly online, but a printed version was provided on request to some participants. As a reminder, every morning we sent a link to the online diary to the participants.

Data collections resulted in a hierarchical measures-in-subjects design with the 996 reports at level 1 (for the study on TFL 869 reports). 8 participants did not fill out the questionnaire. The final sample consists of 124 women and 76 men who were on average 40.2 years old ( $SD = 12.4$ ). 63% worked full time and 30% worked part time (at least 20 hours a week). The participants worked on average for approximately 5 years ( $SD = 5.37$ ) with their supervisors.

Due to the partial use of snowball sampling for subject recruitment it is not possible to exactly determine the number of drop-outs on level 2. However, we observed a total of 364 people accessing the online survey, resulting in a completion rate of 56.87%. On level 1 we collected a total of 1916 diary entries. Several of them contained no interaction, a non-leader interaction or a non-comprehensible description, resulting in 52% of the diary entries suitable for further analysis.

#### **2.4.2. Daily Measures**

In the diary participants reported one event per day involving their direct leader in an open question format over a period of two weeks. For this purpose, participants first had to check if they had any kind of interaction with their leader. If they answered “no” the diary report ended for this day. If participants answered “yes”, they were required to briefly describe that interaction-event as precisely as possible. The instruction encouraged participants to choose a random event – a significant one or something completely normal – and report it in some detail. No further criteria for the choice of the event existed. The answers varied in length between one word and several sentences. In this way we expected a variety of all possible work events, significant and routine. We chose this procedure because we believe that as soon as an event is perceived as worth reporting it is possible to have an effect on the follower (Barsky & Kaplan, 2007). Some examples of the reports can be seen in Appendix A.

#### **2.5. Analysis and results**

For the analysis of the applicability of the MPS, EBC and the new taxonomy we coded the data using dummy variables to represent the categories (1 = event of this type present; 0 = event not present).

##### **2.5.1. Rater training**

To ensure consistency, raters received a brief training on rating and discussed challenging diary entries with the first rater (author). For the different subsamples we have different co-raters who participated all in the same rater training. In the rater training they read the full description of the categories and had the possibility to ask questions. Then the co-raters categorized ten events from sample 1 and explained how they proceeded. This was done to check if the raters have understood the meaning of the categories. In addition to the definitions they also learned some coding rules. For example, if multiple events were reported in one diary entry, only the first

event was coded. Afterwards they categorized independently an additional set of 100 events and had an additional discussion with the first author. When the agreement for these 100 events was satisfactory, and all issues with ratings were resolved, the rater started the coding procedure for our study to determine inter-rater reliability.

### **2.5.2. Analysis of applicability**

To examine the advantages and disadvantages of MPS and EBC empirically, we applied both taxonomies to a large set of daily leadership behaviors reported by followers. In the following, we followed recommendations by Fleishman, Mumford, Zaccaro and Levin (1991) on evaluations of leadership taxonomies. The aim was to examine if the categorizations allow to easily distinguish the events. Furthermore, the frequencies of one type of event indicated how useful a category is for describing daily leader events. When an event occurred infrequent it might not represent daily behavior. In case it was reported conspicuously frequent it might indicate that further differentiation will increase its value for the taxonomy. Thus, to test the adequacy of MPS and EBC we examined (1) their fit to theoretical reasoning about leadership in the theory section of study 1 (2) the inter-rater reliability, and (3) the frequencies and distribution of leader behaviors.

The inter-rater reliability kappa indicated to which degree each taxonomy allows two independent raters to agree on the categorization of events. High kappa values indicate a high level on agreement which favors the applicability of the taxonomy. Inter-rater reliability for MPS was Cohen's kappa = .475, which indicates a moderate agreement (Cohen, 1960). For EBC, Cohen's kappa varied between .854 and .875 across the subsamples, which indicates a good inter-rater agreement (Cohen, 1960). These results suggest that the EBC can be used more reliably to categorize open leader-follower-interaction reports than the MPS.



Next, we examined the distribution of the frequencies to make sure that regression analysis is feasible, and that the categorization is meaningful (see Table 1 and 2). For instance, we do not expect any empty categories because each leader behavior should have occurred at least once. For the MPS, the frequency analysis showed that events categorized as *clarifying* (24.3%) and *others* (17.7%) were most common in our data. Several events occurred rarely like *motivating* (0.1%), *conflict solving* (0.6%), *rewarding* (1.2%), and the negative categories (0.1% – 2%). For the EBC, the most frequent events were *goal oriented behavior* (23%) and *usual work behaviors* (20%); the least frequent one was *negative feedback* (2%). All other behaviors are equally distributed (around 5%). These frequency distributions indicate that MPS and EBC might not be appropriate for describing daily interactions because in some categories there were few events and other categories contained large numbers of events. These categories did not allow for a fine grained analysis of the frequent interactions such as *clarifying* and *goal oriented behavior*.

The results revealed that the EBC and the MPS were useful to some extent for categorizing the daily leadership events. A comparison of both taxonomies reveals that some categories were rather exclusive in the sense that they existed only in one categorization and not in the other one (e.g., *feedback* in the EBC and *informing* in the MPS). Because these events occurred rather often, it is curious that they are not represented in the respective other taxonomy.

### **2.5.3. Combining MPS and EBC to a new taxonomy**

Because of the conceptual shortcomings of both taxonomies (MPS is not validated for affect, EBC is not comprehensive as deduced from empirical research) and the limitations in applicability reported above, we decided to combine both event taxonomies to a new one called taxonomy of affective leader behaviors (TALB). The aggregation to our final taxonomy is justified by the conceptual similarities of the categories identified in prior research. For example, *consulting followers* are similar in EBC and MPS. We also took into account the reflections of all

raters who we considered as experts after the training procedure. For example, a rater suggested that *challenging goals* of EBC is a specification of *clarifying roles and objectives* of MPS and not a category on the same level of specification. We combined the MPS and EBC using a crosstab (see Table 3) of the categorized events. For these analyses, we placed the MPS frequencies in the columns and the EBC frequencies in the rows. As a result we can see in which event category of MPS an event of EBC is located and vice versa. In this way, we also aimed at differentiating behaviors in the large categories, such as *goal oriented behavior* und *usual work*.

The crosstab of both taxonomies is shown in Table 3. Bold numbers refer to most significant overlaps of EBC and MPS. On this basis we elaborated a possibility how the taxonomies could be merged into one taxonomy to obtain an economical but comprehensive taxonomy. To this aim, we combined similar categories, and divided large categories based on inductive reasoning. This procedure revealed the close resemblance of some categories from EBC and MPS taxonomy. For example 33% of the events we coded as *consulting* in EBC located in the *consulting* category in MPS and further 33% in *clarifying* category of MPS. Some categories from one taxonomy are represented by several categories of the other taxonomy. For example, *positive feedback* in the EBC was represented by two categories (*recognizing* and *rewarding*) from the MPS. Consequently, *recognizing* and *rewarding* were considered as reasonable differentiations of *positive feedback*. When one MPS or EBC category overlapped with several categories of the respective other, we treated it as a differentiation (*recognizing* and *rewarding* were differentiations of *positive feedback* in TALB).

In the following, we briefly summarize the reasoning behind each merging or splitting decision in the development of the new taxonomy. In parentheses we display the number of EBC coded events overlapping with named MPS category. *Feedback positive* was represented mostly in *recognizing* (25) and *rewarding* (4), thus, it was divided into two differentiations. *Feedback*

*negative* was represented by *not recognizing* (5) which we relabeled *criticizing* for convenience and added *punishing*, in line with the procedure for positive feedback (where we had *rewarding*). *Supporting* often overlapped in both taxonomies (22). In addition we also saw an overlap with *clarifying* (10) and *ethical behavior* (11). Considering the content of the reports we decided for two differentiations: *task-oriented* (“helped me to do the task”) and *person-oriented* (“let me go home early as I looked sick”) support.

Table 3  
Crosstab of categories coded in the EBC and MPS

MPS	EBC														Sum
	Positive feedback	Consulting	Challenging task	Supporting	Enhancing goal pursuit	Ethical behavior	Negative feedback	Hindering goal pursuit	Increasing strain	Unethical behavior	Private interaction	Usual work	Conflict management	Others	
Planning	1	1	2	0	<b>23</b>	5	0	0	0	0	1	7	0	2	42
Problem solving	2	0	1	7	<b>14</b>	1	1	0	1	2	0	2	3	0	34
Clarifying	1	13	<b>9</b>	10	<b>107</b>	4	1	2	<b>9</b>	8	4	<b>37</b>	5	<b>32</b>	242
Informing	1	1	4	4	<b>13</b>	2	1	0	2	0	1	<b>13</b>	4	7	53
Monitoring	5	2	1	4	<b>13</b>	4	4	1	2	6	2	<b>9</b>	1	9	63
Motivating	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
Consulting	1	<b>12</b>	1	3	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	3	26
Delegating	1	3	<b>8</b>	1	<b>13</b>	2	0	0	3	6	1	5	0	1	44
Supporting	1	0	0	<b>22</b>	7	<b>11</b>	0	0	0	0	0	6	0	2	49
Developing	0	1	3	6	5	1	0	1	0	1	1	3	0	1	23
Managing conflicts	0	0	0	0	1	2	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	6
Networking	2	1	0	1	5	6	0	0	1	2	<b>26</b>	<b>33</b>	2	1	80
Recognizing	<b>25</b>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	2	29
Rewarding	<b>4</b>	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	3	12
Others	1	1	6	9	16	4	1	3	7	10	6	69	19	<b>19</b>	171
Not Planning	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	4
Not problem Solving	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	2	0	2	0	1	8
Not clarifying	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	<b>5</b>	<b>8</b>	5	1	0	1	0	22
Not informing	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	3	4	2	0	1	0	0	12
Not monitoring	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	5
Not motivating	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	2	2	5	2	0	0	2	16
Not consulting	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	3	0	0	0	5
Not delegating	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	3	0	0	0	0	4
Not supporting	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	<b>5</b>	2	2	2	1	1	15
Not developing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
Not managing conflicts	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	3	4	2	1	1	13
Not networking	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	0	0	4
Not recognizing	0	0	0	0	0	0	<b>5</b>	0	0	5	0	0	0	1	11
Not rewarding	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
	45	36	36	68	226	46	18	23	48	68	58	197	38	89	996

Note. **Bolt**: events from MPS and EBC most overlapping

Increasing strain (8) overlapped mostly with not clarifying, not supporting (5) and clarifying (9). Again we deduced two differentiations namely task-oriented and person-oriented increasing strain, similarly to the procedure for support. Hindering goal pursuit mostly overlapped with not clarifying (5) thus we located it in the same category. The fact that clarifying and not clarifying associated with increased strain led us to the conclusion that leader can rather give unclear/inhibiting tasks or just overload followers with tasks. Enhancing goal pursuit overlapped mostly with clarifying roles and objectives (107) what we renamed Setting goals for ease of understanding and consistency. Further enhancing goal pursuit overlapped with planning (23), informing (13), monitoring (13) and problem solving (14) so we opted for 4 differentiations. As usual work showed the same pattern of overlap with these four categories we decided to merge it into this category as well. Further challenging overlapped with clarifying (9) and delegating (8) indicating another component of setting goals which is rather perceptual, thus, we decided to locate it in an additional differentiation. Another component of usual work was networking (33) which also overlapped with private interactions (26) and formed a new category for all non-work communication, named socializing (e.g., “talked about the weekend”). Consulting was similar in both categorizations (12). The categories managing conflicts, inspiring and motivating and unethical behavior occurred infrequently. Yet, they have been a popular subject of prior research; hence, we decided to keep them in our taxonomy. The result of the merge is a taxonomy which can be applied both in a more fine grained (differentiation 1 and 2) and generalized manner (main category). Table 4 shows the new taxonomy TALB.

Table 4  
*Taxonomy of affective leader behaviors (TALB)*

Main Interactions	Differentiation 1	Differentiation 2	Example
Feedback	Feedback positive	Recognizing Rewarding	Leader said that I have done a good job. Leader bought us pizza as we worked very well last week.
	Feedback negative	Criticizing Punishing	My paper was criticized. Added, no examples in data.
Supporting	Task oriented		Helped me to do the task.
	Person oriented		Let me go home early as I looked sick.
Increasing strain	Task oriented	Unclear/inhibiting task Overloading	Received incomprehensible instructions via e-mail. Got new tasks which are not part of my job.
	Person oriented		Leader did not let me take a day off for my move.
Enhancing goal pursuit	Setting goal	Clear instructions Challenging/ delegating	Leader gave me tasks for the week. I should coordinate the team while the Leader is sick.
	Informing		Leader informed us about new developments.
	Monitoring Solving problems		Leader controlled our analyses. We had not enough material (ice) leader went buying.
	Planning and organizing		Leader called a meeting to plan the upcoming event (QM).
Participation in decisions			Leader asked for my opinion on his draft.
Socializing			We talked about the weekend.
Managing conflicts			Leader addressed issues we have with a coworker.
Inspiring and motivating			Leader said when I continue like that, I will get a better position soon.
Unethical behavior			Leader blamed me for mistakes he has done himself.

*Note.* Some names were shortened for convenience and in line with usual naming in research

#### 2.5.4. Evaluation of the new taxonomy

Finally, TALB was evaluated. The inter-rater reliability was kappa = .84 indicating that the categories are sufficiently distinct, and that the taxonomy can be reliably employed. Table 5 reports the frequencies on all levels of differentiation. It is important to note that several events could not be further differentiated, resulting in lower frequencies for the finer differentiation. For example, we coded 33 events as positive and 26 events as negative feedback. The feedback main

category contains 66 events, indicating that 7 events were feedback events which could not be coded as positive or negative (e.g., “I received feedback”).

Table 5  
*Frequencies and percentages of all events  
 including proportionate frequencies of the differentiations*

Event	Frequency	Percent
Feedback	66	6.64
Positive Feedback	33	3.32
Recognizing	24	2.41
Rewarding	8	0.80
Negative Feedback	26	2.62
Criticizing	24	2.41
Punishing	2	0.20
Supporting	56	5.63
Task oriented	30	3.02
Person oriented	20	2.01
Increasing strain	68	6.84
Task oriented	55	5.53
Unclear/inhibiting task	16	1.61
Overloading	14	1.41
Person oriented	14	1.40
Enhancing goal pursuit	562	56.54
Setting goal	110	11.07
Clear instructions	4	0.40
Challenging/delegating	15	1.51
Informing	25	2.52
Monitoring	33	3.32
Solving problems	12	1.21
Planning and Organizing	64	6.53
Participation in decisions	40	4.02
Socializing	114	11.47
Managing conflicts	6	0.60
Unethical behavior	5	0.50

Regarding the main categories, the most frequent event is *enhancing goal pursuit* (57%). This result indicates that in most of the leader-follower interactions nothing outstanding happens so that only a general event, for example “having a meeting” was documented. Alternatively, participants did not report enough details to allow more differentiated categorization of these

cases. Frequent events were *socializing* (11%), *increasing strain* (7%) and *giving feedback* (7%). The less frequent events in the main categories were *managing conflicts* (< 1%) and *unethical behavior* (< 1%). A more detailed differentiation of the main category *enhancing goal pursuit* was possible for some, but not all events: While *solving problems* (1%), *informing* (3%) and *monitoring* (3%) occurred rarely, *setting goal* (11%) and *planning and organizing* (6.5%) happened more frequently. Concerning the event *setting goal*, in 19 out of 110 cases a second differentiation in *clear instructions* (< 1%) or *challenging/delegating* (2%) was possible. The event *giving feedback* was further differentiated in *positive feedback* (3.3%) and *negative feedback* (2.6%). Further, verbal feedback in the form of *recognizing* (2%) and *criticizing* (2%) occurred more frequently than the material feedback in the form of *rewarding* (< 1%) and *punishing* (< 1%). Events of the main category *strain/not supporting* were more often *task oriented* (5%) events or than *person oriented* (< 1%). Regarding the main categories *helping/supporting* the *task oriented* (3%) and *person oriented* (2%) events were equally frequent.

From our point of view this taxonomy is both, more comprehensive and more advanced in distinguishing the single behaviors. The raters were successful in categorizing the open reports in TALB. In the next part of the study we examine the applicability of TALB to predict affect and to help understanding TFL on a daily basis.

## **Study 1b: Transformational leadership and daily affective events**

### **2.6. TFL and daily affective events**

TFL research has been criticized because of its reliance on flawed measures and deficient conceptualization (Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013; Yukl, 1999). Despite its popularity, there are major conventional issues, such as the absence of theoretical background for inclusion or exclusion of dimensions and their configuration. TFL and its measurement may create spurious effects as the concept is defined by its outcomes (Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). Some researcher criticize that TFL is what the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ; e.g., Bass & Avolio, 1995) measures and not a concept of its own. Taken together, this leads to a lack of coherent theorizing for the effects of TFL.

In order to examine some of these issues we first deduced concrete observable behaviors that can be associated with TFL, and then investigated their relationship to TFL as measured through a questionnaire, namely the MLQ. Investigating concrete behaviors is beneficial because participants do not have to rely on heuristics to report on their leader (Hansbrough et al., 2015; Hoffman & Lord, 2013) but simply report a visible behavior. Uncovering observable behaviors linked to TFL might allow the concept to be improved, reducing the confounding effects which result from measurements in questionnaires and show what transformational leaders really do.

In this study we were interested in the influence of leaders on follower's affect as the fluctuating component of well-being. TFL has been linked to affect and well-being in prior literature as explained in the next paragraphs. Because of the positive definition of TFL and the items in the MLQ the positive relationship with well-being is not surprising and risk to represent the confounding effects mentioned above. Linking observable daily behaviors associated with TFL to affect might resolve the concern about confounding effects. The aim is to disclose the



additional effect of such daily behaviors beyond the effects of the overall perception of TFL, as shown in prior research (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, & Derks, 2015; Bono et al., 2007).

### **2.6.1. TFL on individual level and affect**

What do we know about the influence of TFL on followers' affect? In the previous decades some studies on a daily level showed that followers of transformational leaders report more daily positive affect than followers of leaders low in TFL (Breevaart et al., 2015; Bono et al., 2007; Erez, Misangyi, Johnson, LePine, & Halverson, 2008). One explanation might be that "transformational leaders offer a purpose that transcends short-term goals and focuses on higher order intrinsic needs." (Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004, p. 755) rendering work more enjoyable. They are able to inspire followers and allow easy identification with the leader's vision beyond their own self-interest (Bass, 1985a; Burns, 1978). Because of the energizing influence, transformational leaders increase self-efficacy and engagement (for an overview, see Ng, 2016), which finally results in well-being and performance outcomes. Empirically these mechanisms were mostly investigated on an individual level, explaining the function of transformational leaders in general terms. Furthermore, they refer to long term influences on the followers rather than on immediate effects. Therefore, they are not appropriate to explain fluctuating affect at work (Beal & Ghandour, 2011; Sonnentag, 2015).

For more immediate effects in direct interactions a possible explanation for the influence on affect is emotional contagion (Sy et al., 2005; Van Knippenberg & Van Kleef, 2016). Additionally, positive biases might play a role as TFL is associated with followers liking their leader (Brown & Keeping, 2005; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Therefore, TFL might function as a buffer for negative affect as the follower "forgives" any detrimental behaviors of a leader he or she likes. Thus, we assume that TFL is generally beneficial to follower's daily affect.

*Hypothesis 1:* Perceived TFL is associated with more positive and less negative followers' affect.

### **2.6.2. Daily behaviors associated with TFL and affect**

The models explained in the prior section refer to favorable processes in followers with transformational leaders. Yet, we suggest that additional daily leader behavior can lead to positive affect. After clarifying what transformational leaders do differently on a daily basis compared to their counterparts, a behavioral mechanism for leaders' effects in a dynamic leader-follower environment shall be conceptualized (Gooty et al., 2010; Hoffman & Lord, 2013; Johnson et al., 2012; Yukl, 2012). To approach this goal, we investigated relationships between daily (transformational) leader behaviors (representing affective events), TFL (representing the work environment) and affective reactions based on the AET.

As far as we know no empirical research has linked daily observable behaviors to TFL. However, TFL has been theoretically linked to fundamental managerial practices (Tracey & Hinkin, 1998) which come close to what we conceptualized as actual leader behavior. Tracey and Hinkin (1998) showed that both constructs overlap and are therefore not independent from each other. Yet, a certain distinctiveness could also be shown in a factor analysis approach. We used Tracey and Hinkin's (1998) results to deduce our hypotheses. We relied on existing definitions of TFL to infer behaviors associated with TFL and suggested in the taxonomy of the first part (study 1a). The following assumptions should be considered explorative. For the purpose of illustration we focused on few distinct behaviors per dimension. In the following the deduction of these behaviors based on the definitions of TFL are displayed (Felfe, Tartler, & Liepmann, 2004; Judge et al., 2004; Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013), combined with the results of Tracey and Hinkin (1998). Furthermore, we relied on Bass (1985a) and its associated measurement in the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) as "Typically, charismatic-transformational

leadership is not conceptually defined but rather described in operational terms” (Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013, p. 5). The MLQ measures four dimensions of TFL: *Idealized Influence*, *Inspirational motivation*, *Intellectual stimulation* and *Individualized consideration*, which we address subsequently one after another.

***Idealized influence*** is the capability of exerting influence by behaving in an admirable way and serving as a role model. That causes the follower to feel pride, trust, identification and a sense of purpose. This dimension is difficult to conceptualize as daily behavior as it represents a strong attributional component and is mostly described by its outcomes. Nearly every behavior can be admired by followers depending on their values and context. Thus, this facet can be conceptualized on a perceptive and evaluative, rather than on a behavioral, level. One part of the definition is ethical behavior (Tracey & Hinkin, 1998) which is generally seen as admirable and ideal. Person-oriented support is the category containing ethical behaviors; hence, it was used to represent idealized influence on a daily level. Consequently, we assume that transformational leaders show more person-oriented support and less unethical behavior.

***Inspirational motivation*** refers to the communication of an inspiring and convincing vision. This includes setting challenging goals, having high performance expectations and the optimism to reach these goals. All definitions included the component *challenging* (Bass, 1985a; Felfe et al., 2004; Judge et al., 2004) and additionally, setting clear goals and expectations (Tracey & Hinkin, 1998). Thus, we would expect a transformational leader to set clear, as well as challenging, goals on a daily basis. Furthermore, they should engage in more inspiring and motivating behavior. Yet, from the first part of the study we found rarely such behavior observed in our sample.

***Intellectual stimulation*** includes questioning assumptions, taking risks and stimulating creative considerations of the issues at hand (Bass, 1985a; Felfe et al., 2004; Judge et al., 2004).

This dimension should also be linked to challenging tasks as it includes encouraging new ways to solve problems and challenging the status quo. To stimulate followers it is likely that the leader would provide feedback, in order to create a direction. When giving feedback a leader might question the followers' ideas and stimulate a deeper search for alternatives. Methods of encouragement might also include instigating participation in decision making and suggesting ideas or improvements. In sum, referring to this dimension, we would expect transformational leaders to provide more positive and negative feedback, set challenging goals and encourage their followers to participate in the decision making processes.

*Individualized consideration* is the degree to which the leader recognizes and cares for the differing needs of followers, and acts as a mentor or coach. All sources refer to a personal component (Bass, 1985a; Felfe et al., 2004; Judge et al., 2004) in the same fashion as Fleishman's "Consideration". These dimensions imply that transformational leaders listen to the needs of their followers and provide support and development opportunities when needed. Additionally, transformational leaders might take followers' opinion into account and seek their advice more often. Consequently, we expect that transformational leaders exert more task and person-oriented support and encourage participation in decision making. This dimension should be represented with less overloading as tasks are chosen appropriate to the individual.

As a result of this reasoning we assume that leaders perceived as more transformational present at least one of the behaviors deduced from the definitions during daily work.

*Hypothesis 2a:* Leaders who are perceived as transformational engage more in challenging tasks, clear goal setting, giving feedback, task and person-oriented supporting on a daily basis.

*Hypothesis 2b:* Leaders who are perceived as transformational engage less in overloading and unethical behavior on a daily basis.

If we assume that these daily behaviors function in the same way as TFL, overall they should be associated with more positive affect. Thus, we assume that challenging tasks, clear goal setting, giving feedback, person-oriented helping, and the absence of overloading and unethical behavior lead to more positive affect of the followers.

*Hypothesis 3a:* Daily leader behaviors associated with TFL are related to more positive followers' affect.

Whereas negative behaviors were repeatedly shown to increase negative affect even stronger than positive behaviors (Amabile et al., 2004; Dasborough, 2006), supportive leader behaviors were strongly linked to a reduction of negative affect (Amabile et al., 2004). Because TFL entails supportive leadership behavior (Bass, 1985a) we assume that daily transformational behavior leads to less negative affect.

*Hypothesis 3b:* Daily leader behaviors associated with TFL are related to less negative followers' affect.

## **2.7. Methods**

### **2.7.1. Participants**

The analyses were done with a restricted sample from the first part of the study (1a). Because we employed a different measure for negative affect in subsample 1 we had to exclude it from further analyses. The remaining subsample for analyses including negative affect is reduced to  $N = 135$ . For the analysis of the application of the taxonomy for the relationship of TFL and behavior we excluded sample 4 because a different measure of TFL was employed, resulting in  $N$

= 162 for the analyses concerning positive affect and leader behavior, and  $N = 91$  when also including negative affect in the analyses.

### **2.7.2. Measures**

*Affect.* Participants evaluated the strength of their positive and negative affect after the event checking 8 items on two scales from the Profile of Mood States (POMS) by McNair, Lorr and Droppleman (1981). We decided to use only the scales of positive and negative activated affect to prevent the diminishing of motivation which is a risk when using demanding instruments in daily investigations (Ohly et al., 2010). All eight items were rated on a 7-point Likert scale with a good reliability ( $\alpha = .82$ ).

*TFL.* Perceived TFL was measured in sample 1, 2 and 3 with the German version of the multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) of Bass and Avolio (1995; German version: Felfe & Gohil, 2002), which is considered to measure the full range of possible leader behaviors (Bass & Avolio, 1994). The respondents express on a 5-point-rating scale how often their leaders showed a certain behavior, with values ranging between “never” (1) and “regularly/always” (5). MLQ comprises of 8 four-item scales, each one considering a different behavioral aspect of leadership (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individual consideration, intellectual stimulation, management by exception passive and active, contingent reward and laissez-faire leadership<sup>3</sup>). Because previous research showed a one-factor solution of the MLQ (Heinitz, Liepmann & Felfe, 2005), we based our analyses on the sum score of the facets of TFL. Cronbachs- $\alpha$  was  $\alpha = .97$ .

### **2.8. Analysis and Results**

Finally, to illustrate the applicability of the taxonomy for affective events and to test our hypotheses, we analyzed the relationship between TFL, daily leader behavior and follower affect in a multilevel model. At the same time we validate the affective character of the new taxonomy.

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<sup>3</sup> The latter four are parts of the questionnaire and the full range of leadership. They are not analyzed in this study.

We regressed affect on daily events (level 1) and TFL (level 2) to test the hypotheses 1-3 in a multilevel model using HLM 7 (Raudenbush, & Bryk, 2002). TFL was grand-mean centered following recommendations by Mathieu and Taylor (2007). Daily events remained uncentered as centering is not appropriate for dummy coded predictors. For power reasons, we only used the first level of differentiation. Thus, the hypothesis referring to *overloading* is tested as *task oriented strain* and *challenging* and *clear goals* were tested as *goal setting* (the supercategories of the mentioned behaviors). Importantly, as we used the first level of differentiation, the label of the *main interaction* in the tables include only those events which could not be differentiated further (marked by r for remaining). Affect was regressed on each event category separately. Significant coefficients indicate that when an event occurred, the individuals experience more positive affect compared to the individuals' average level of affect during all other situations.

### **2.8.1. Hypothesis 1 TFL and followers' affect**

In the first step we tested the relationship between TFL and followers' affect. Results of the hierarchical regression of TFL style (level 2) on affect (level 1) showed a significant positive effect on positive affect ( $b = .13$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $p < .01$ , see Table 6), indicating that followers of transformational leaders report more daily positive affect. The relationship to negative affect was in the expected direction but not significant ( $b = -.02$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $p = .21$ ); followers with transformational leaders do not experience less negative affect at work. Thus, H1 was partly supported.

### **2.8.2. Hypothesis 2 TFL and daily behaviors**

In the next step we tested if leaders who are perceived as transformational engage more in *goal setting*, *giving feedback*, *fostering participation*, *task-* and *person-oriented supporting* on a daily basis (H2a) and less in *task-oriented strain* and *unethical behavior* on a daily basis (H2b). Results are reported in Table 6. TFL is significantly related with *positive feedback* ( $b = .004$ ,  $SE$

= .01,  $p < .01$ ), *goal setting* ( $b = .01$ ,  $SE = .003$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and *participation* ( $b = .004$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $p < .01$ ). *Task- or person oriented supporting* was not associated with TFL. Followers who describe their leader as transformational indicate that they receive more positive feedback, they rather get clear and challenging goal setting, and they participate more in management decisions than followers with less transformational leaders. Thus, Hypothesis 2a was partially confirmed. Neither behavior *increasing strain* nor *unethical behaviors* were significantly associated with TFL. Thus, Hypothesis 2b is not supported.

Table 6  
*Unstandardized b-coefficients and standard errors of TFL on different outcomes*

Outcome variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>
Positive affect	.13**	.02
Negative affect	-.02	.02
Feedback <sup>r</sup>	-.001	<.01
Positive feedback	.004**	<.01
Negative feedback	-.002	<.01
Supporting <sup>r</sup>	.001	<.01
Supporting task oriented	.001	<.01
Supporting person oriented	-.000	<.01
Increasing strain <sup>r</sup>	-.001	<.01
Strain task oriented	-.002	<.01
Strain person oriented	-.000	<.01
Enhancing goal pursuit <sup>r</sup>	-.001	<.01
Setting goal	.010**	<.01
Informing	-.001	<.01
Monitoring	-.000	<.01
Solving problems	-.001	<.01
Planning and organizing	.000	<.01
Participation in decisions	.004**	<.01
Socializing	.000	<.01
Managing conflicts	.001	<.01
Unethical behavior	-.001	<.01

Note. <sup>r</sup> =  $p < .10$ ; \* =  $p < .05$ ; \*\* =  $p < .01$ ; r = remaining events which do not fit in the first differentiation



### 2.8.3. Hypothesis 3 daily behaviors and affect

Finally, to test Hypothesis 3a and 3b, we regressed positive and negative affect on single events. We focused particularly on the daily behaviors associated with TFL, namely *goal setting*, *giving feedback*, *participation*, *supporting* and the absence of *task oriented strain* and *unethical behavior*. Table 7 shows the results. Concerning Hypothesis 3a we analyzed the relationship of single events and positive affect: The events *positive feedback* ( $b = .94, SE = .23, p < .01$ ), *negative feedback* ( $b = -1.67, SE = .25, p < .01$ ), *strain task oriented* ( $b = -1.03, SE = .19, p < .01$ ), *strain person oriented* ( $b = -1.50, SE = .47, p < .01$ ), *enhancing goal pursuit* (supercategory of goal setting) ( $b = .25, SE = .10, p < .05$ ), *participation* ( $b = .74, SE = .21, p < .01$ ) and *unethical behavior* ( $b = -1.41, SE = .59, p < .05$ ) were significantly associated with positive affect. *Positive feedback*, *participation*, *less task oriented strain* and *less unethical behavior* were the only daily behaviors associated with TFL that significantly relate to more positive affect. *Goal setting* and *supporting*, although theoretically associated with TFL, were not related to more positive affect.

Concerning Hypothesis 3b we analyzed the relationship of single events and negative affect: *positive feedback* ( $b = -.50, SE = .23, p < .05$ ), *negative feedback* ( $b = 1.40, SE = .31, p < .01$ ), *strain task oriented* ( $b = .46, SE = .21, p < .05$ ), *strain person oriented* ( $b = 1.38, SE = .46, p < .01$ ) *socializing* ( $b = -.49, SE = .13, p < .01$ ), and *managing conflicts* ( $b = 1.21, SE = .55, p < .05$ ) were related significantly to negative affect. *Unethical behavior* was not related to negative affect. *Positive feedback* is the only daily behavior associated with TFL that significantly relate to less negative affect. Hypothesis 3a and 3b were partially confirmed, as some of the daily behaviors associated with TFL were significantly correlated with positive affect and one other with negative affect, but not all. In sum, 11 out of 23 events (48%) were associated with positive and/or negative affect. These results supported the assumption that leader behaviors can be seen as affective event and partly support the new taxonomy TALB.

Table 7  
*Unstandardized b-coefficients of events on positive and negative affect*

Events	Positive affect		Negative affect	
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>
Feedback <sup>r</sup>	-0.33	.49	- <sup>a</sup>	- <sup>a</sup>
Positive feedback	.94**	.23	-.50 <sup>†</sup>	.23
Negative feedback	-1.67**	.25	1.40**	.31
Supporting <sup>r</sup>	-.93	.51	.004	.52
Supporting task oriented	.40	.24	.27	.23
Supporting person oriented	.22	.30	-.16	.28
Increasing strain <sup>r</sup>	-.25	.67	1.03	.66
Strain task oriented	-1.03**	.19	.46 <sup>†</sup>	.21
Strain person oriented	-1.50*	.47	1.38*	.46
Enhancing goal pursuit <sup>r</sup>	.25 <sup>†</sup>	.10	-.11	.10
Setting goal	.05	.15	.07	.14
Informing	.16	.26	-.29	.25
Monitoring	.43	.23	-.08	.22
Solving problems	.69	.38	-.06	.37
Planning and organizing	.14	.45	-.08	.48
Participation in decisions	.74**	.21	.02	.19
Socializing	.16	.13	-.49**	.13
Managing conflicts	.16	.53	1.21 <sup>†</sup>	.55
Unethical behavior	-1.41 <sup>†</sup>	.59	.21	1.19

Note. <sup>†</sup> =  $p < .10$ ; \* =  $p < .05$ ; \*\* =  $p < .01$ ; a = no occurrence of this event in the subsample for negative affect; r = remaining events which do not fit in the first differentiation.

## 2.9. Discussion

Prior research showed that leaders have an important impact on followers' daily affect at work (e.g., Bono et al., 2007; Scott et al., 2010). Especially followers of transformational leaders seem to experience more positive affect throughout the day (Breevaart et al., 2015; Bono et al., 2007; Tepper et al., 2017) but it is unclear how leaders influence daily affect. One well established explanation is emotional contagion (Sy et al., 2005; Van Knippenberg & Van Kleef, 2016), however further explanations were requested (Amabile et al., 2004; Gooty et al., 2010). Our study answers this request by showing that daily leader behaviors can be seen as affective

events leading to followers' daily affect at work. In the following, we discuss in detail our three main contributions, namely (1) providing insight on daily leader behavior as source of affect in the sense of AET, (2) building theory on leadership by suggesting behavioral mechanisms for leaders' impact on followers' affect and (3) providing a taxonomy on daily affective leader behavior to advance event-based approaches.

### **2.9.1. Daily leader behavior as source of affect**

The AET provides an event approach to affect at work resulting in job attitudes and behaviors (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). The AET serves as a macrostructure that needs refinement with regard to affective work events to make it testable. Our study contributes to this refinement. Our results confirm the assumption that leader behaviors are affective events for followers. In our study positive and negative affect occurred in different interactions due to discrete leader behaviors, qualifying them as affective events. In total, 48% percent of different behaviors led to an affective reaction. This insight adds to research on emotional contagion as a mechanism of how leadership influences positive affect which is contagious for the followers, making them feel more positive about themselves and the leader. Such an event approach to leader behavior is promising for future dynamic conceptualization of leaders' fluctuating behavior and its effects during the time span of a working week (Johnson et al., 2012).

The distribution of frequencies of daily leader behaviors provides new insight in which way leader interact typically with their follower. This allows to estimate the likelihood of certain behaviors. In that way, researchers get an idea of the orderliness of the occurrence of such interactive events which might have an effect on affect itself (Hoffman & Lord, 2013). Yet, the distribution of frequencies might differ depending on the organization, the branch or the culture (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004).

### **2.9.2. Theory building: Behavioral mechanisms of TFL**

Our study identifies a behavioral mechanism linking TFL and daily positive affect of followers. The results suggest that giving positive feedback and allowing participation of followers are two daily leader behaviors associated with TFL that enhance followers' positive affect. This result adds to research on TFL by suggesting that transformational leader perform distinct daily behaviors significantly more often which in turn lead to more positive affect of their followers. This insight might mitigate the concerns about the concept of TFL (Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013; Yukl, 1999) showing that there are indeed distinct behaviors associated with TFL. Both behaviors belong to the dimension *intellectual stimulation*, indicating that this dimension might make the difference. That means that apart from clear goal setting and consideration, which have been oftentimes the two main dimensions of leadership theories (Judge et al., 2004), it is the ability to stimulate followers to challenge the status quo on a daily basis what characterizes a transformational leader. In sum, followers transformational leaders have generally more positive affect and in particular, when they experience intellectual stimulation.

Yet our results are not unambiguous because only few of the expected daily behaviors were associated with TFL. For example, it is curious that *motivating* basically never occurred or *personal support* was not related to TFL despite it being characteristic for this concept (Bass, 1985a; Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Shamir et al., 1993). One could see this result as contraindicating to a behavioral explanation of TFL. The only daily leader behaviors (positive feedback, participation) associated with TFL, and related to affect, might not be specific for TFL (Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013; Yukl, 1999) but might also occur when leaders are evaluated as authentic (Avolio & Gardner, 2005) or ethical (Brown et al., 2005). More studies are needed to allow a comparison of daily behaviors associated with different leadership styles. In that way, researcher could differentiate the styles by their behavioral mechanisms.

There might be several explanations for such unclear results: We might interpret such results as support for different cognitive systems of ascribing leadership style versus reporting distinct behaviors (Hansbrough et al., 2015). Both, TFL and daily behaviors associated with TFL are relevant for followers' affect. However, it is relatively uncertain whether distinct daily behaviors are an additional mechanism to explain the impact of TFL on affect. More likely daily behaviors that are associated with TFL (conceptually but not statistically) have a direct link to followers' affect in form of an affective reaction to an affective event as proposed by the AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Whereas TFL – seen as ascription over time – trigger another cognitive system when it associates with affect. TFL has a buffering effect (Bono et al., 2007) representing a (stable) social resource for the follower in contrast to a short affective event. Transformational leaders are in this case those who are liked and trusted (Brown & Keeping, 2005) and therefore linked to further positive attributes. This attribution develops over time and allows followers to draw conclusions on behaviors they might have rarely or never experienced. This ascribing process might explain why only few daily behaviors are related to TFL and affect.

A further explanation for the missing relationship is that behaviors associated with TFL occurred infrequently. The rare occurrence of such behaviors indicates that established leadership concepts rely more on effects of extraordinary leader behavior and not on typical ones. Thus, it remains intriguing if and which daily behaviors induce such effects as ascription of TFL and subsequently the positive outcomes related to TFL, such as job satisfaction and performance.

To summarize, there is a relationship between TFL and daily behaviors, but only with few of them. Daily behaviors and TFL seem to be rather independent concepts with different mechanism to influence followers affect. In future studies researchers should take into account which antecedent (daily behavior or general attribution of TFL) is more relevant for their outcome of interest. Our illustrative application raises awareness that TFL and daily behavior are

different constructs allowing to examine their interrelation in behavioral and event-based approaches (Ng, 2016) to explain leaders' impact on followers' affect.

### **2.9.3. Methodological contribution: The new taxonomy TALB**

Finally, we advance event-based research in the leadership domain by examining what leaders really do day by day at work and provided a taxonomy for daily behavior. We concentrated especially on leader behavior associated with followers' affect in line with the focus of current research on emotions at the workplace. Future studies on affect at the workplace will benefit from the taxonomy and the illustrative design of our study. Especially research questions described above, namely testing of AET in the field of leadership and behavioral mechanisms of leadership can be approached more easily with our tool at hand.

Previously, there was no established systematical categorization of affective leader behaviors. To fill this gap, we compared an evidence based categorization and the MPS (Yukl et al., 2002) and suggested a new taxonomy, namely TALB. We examined how far the taxonomy captures daily leader behavior and partly validated TALB resulting in a content valid and well applicable tool. Additionally, TALB is based on profound research experience and can be used as a checklist instead of using more tedious open questions.

An advantage of the new taxonomy is the hierarchical structure we suggest, relying on what we observed in the data. Thus, seeking the most parsimonious solution the main categories are sufficient. For some research questions more detailed options might be of interest. For example in a study on work stress it might be interesting to use all available differentiations, examining if *person-oriented* stressful behavior is more harmful than *task-oriented* stressful behavior. When applied in further studies and different contexts the identification of additional leader behaviors or the refinement of some of the TALB categories are conceivable. Yet, we believe to provide a first well applicable and valid taxonomy for daily affective leader events.

#### **2.9.4. Implications for practice**

In practice, the daily taxonomy can be used for leader evaluations and development of leader behavior in trainings and coaching. In a coaching leaders might discuss which behaviors are especially problematic for them (e.g., having issues recognizing the followers effort). After training such behavior, the checklist could help observing desirable and detrimental leader behaviors in practice (to judge the efficacy of the training). This might improve the objectivity and reliability of leader evaluations as it is easier to agree on fixed behavioral categories than on subjective observations. Assessors could give feedback according to exhibited behavior. Typically, such concrete, behavioral based feedback is more accepted and fosters willingness to improve (Fengler, 1998).

Furthermore, organizations who are motivated to include TFL in their leadership guidelines might be encouraged to caution. They should critically question what TFL means for the daily practice and if such behavior is appropriate and doable in the specific organization or department. Regarding our results it might be more effective to properly implement certain behaviours instead of a theoretically ambivalent and practically complex leadership style.

#### **2.9.5. Limitations**

The development of our taxonomy involved some level of subjective judgment. However, we minimized this subjectivity by extensively training the co-raters and by taking conceptual decisions only when suggested by multiple co-raters independently. Thus, we are confident that our taxonomy is not biased by the conception of leader behavior by single individuals. Still, the validity of this taxonomy will need to be evaluated in future research.

All raters indicated that the coding of the events depends on the amount of details the participants reported. The accuracy of the reports might be linked to the event itself: Personally more relevant events are described in more detail than more mundane events. Consequently, the

differentiations of these categories need to be reconsidered and refined in future studies. Yet, for our purpose a more directive instruction might resolve this issue.

The generalizability of the sample of events is questionable. As we recruited our participants mostly via personal contact and snowball techniques our sample contained a great number of high educated participants. Although they occupy a variety of different jobs they do not represent the whole workforce. There might be other relevant affective leader events in other occupations which should be addressed in future studies.

Even though reporting of the behavior in diaries is closer to the observed behavior, there is still a retrospective bias. In our diary study participants reported at the end of the day. This might be problematic for the report of affect because participants might not remember their affect, or the memory might be distorted by more recent events. Immediate event sampling methods might be an appropriate solution for future studies (Ohly et al., 2010). Participants should rate their affect immediately after an event occurred.

The examination of TFL on individual level might be improved using the Transformational Leader Inventory (TLI; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996) a questionnaire of TFL which allows analyzing the four dimensions of TFL separately.

#### **2.9.6. Future research**

Future research can build on our results by using our newly developed taxonomy of leader behavior for studying leadership as a more dynamic concept taking into account time, duration and patterns of leader behaviors (Roe, 2008; Shamir, 2011). Future research could examine how frequently positive events need to occur for their effects on affect or motivation to emerge (Shamir, 2011; Yukl, 2012). It might be that a single instance of affective leader behavior has a stronger impact than a steady stream of leader interactions because a rare instance stands out more, and surprises the followers. For some research questions it might be more interesting to use



these extraordinary events as predictors, whereas for others the typical events are the appropriate antecedent (Hoffman & Lord, 2013). One might imagine that the daily behavior *giving unclear task* has a negative effect on followers affect when it's a typical behavior but less when it is extraordinary. Using the event taxonomy as a starting point, daily leader behavior becomes easier to capture. To improve understanding of leader behaviors' impact, our behavioral taxonomy can be combined with a dimensional approach to events (Hoffman & Lord, 2013; Roe, 2008). The impact of a certain behavior might depend on aspects such as familiarity of the event (Hoffman & Lord, 2013). For example *positive feedback* might induce no or only slightly positive affect when it is already familiar to a follower, while the feedback receiving follower's heart might jump wildly when it is an extraordinary event.

Analyzing the patterns and sequences of leader interactions with their followers is an important endeavor for future leadership research (Morgeson et al., 2015). Researchers could examine the temporal pattern of leadership. For example, a leader might engage more often in certain behaviors on Mondays when the leader had time to recover over the weekend, compared to on Fridays when he or she is stressed out because of a long work week (Egloff, Tausch, Kohlmann, & Krohne, 1995; Taylor, 2006). It would be interesting to examine if followers react differently depending on the timing or pattern of leader behavior (Ohly & Gochmann, 2017).

Building on the AET and our newly developed taxonomy, researchers can examine the contextual and personal factors that increase the likelihood of certain leader behaviors. For example, in some work environments (co-location vs. virtual work), there might be more opportunities for leaders to interact with their followers than in others, and therefore, a higher likelihood of certain daily behaviors to occur (Jarvenpaa, & Leidner, 1999). Furthermore, in organizations characterized by certain climates, distinct daily behaviors are more likely to be shown: In organizations characterized by an affective climate, leader might show more daily

participatory behaviors, whereas in organization with an instrumental climate, leaders might give more tasks (Haakonsson, Burton, Obel, & Lauridsen, 2008). Considering personal factors, it is conceivable that agreeable leaders engage in certain daily behaviors more often, e.g., positive feedback.

We suggest that daily leader behavior constitute an additional mechanism how leadership affects followers. The affective leader behaviors we identified can be used as mediators to explain several well-established relationships, for example between LMX and outcomes. LMX considers that leader follower relationships develop iteratively and depend both on a leader behavior and on follower behavior (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). “Here, the leader and follower are now both sources of affective events for each other.” (Cropanzano, Dasborough & Weiss, 2017, p. 22) Cropanzano and colleagues (2017) argue that affective events shape the quality of the relationship in different phases. Our leader behavior taxonomy could be used to assess the leader behavior from the follower’s perspective, and to test Cropanzano and colleagues’ arguments. In order to capture this dyadic process, a comparable taxonomy for follower affective behavior is needed.

The taxonomy could also be employed for further studies on leadership, such as authentic leadership, ethical leadership, TFL and LMX. It would be interesting if those different leadership constructs are associated with distinct daily behavioral patterns. This line of research might finally help to distinguish leadership concepts (Piccolo et al., 2012).

## **2.10. Conclusion**

In this study we showed that daily leader behavior accounts for daily affect of the followers and might be an additional explanation for the effect of TFL on affect. Showing that daily leader behavior can be seen as affective events allows further studies with dynamic event-

based approaches. Especially diary or event-sampling designs on leadership and affect will benefit from our new taxonomy of daily leader behaviors as affective events.

### **3. Study 2: When Visions and Goals Go Hand in Hand – Investigating the Effects of Vision-Goal Alignment on Leader Effectiveness**

#### **3.1. Introduction**

Visions can boost motivation and performance of followers and are therefore an essential tool of effective leadership (Baum, Locke, & Kirkpatrick, 1998; Berson, Halevy, Shamir, & Erez, 2015; Halevy, Berson, & Galinsky, 2011; Shamir et al., 1993; Stam, van Knippenberg, & Wisse, 2010 a, b). Vision, seen as an inspiring image of an abstract future goal for a collective, might strengthen identification with the envisioned goal, the leader and the organization itself (Bono & Judge, 2003; Shamir et al., 1993). As a result, followers are willing to put more effort into completing their daily tasks and strive to meet organizational goals.

However, leaders do not just influence followers through visioning but also engage in other task related communication, such as giving instructions and assigning specific goals to handle incoming work. Goal setting is one very relevant communicative strategy for leaders (Locke & Latham, 2002). Appropriate goals motivate followers to focus on the task and improve their performance. Importantly, goals and visions are similar in that they both refer to the future and provide individuals with an achievement level to aspire to. Yet, visions and goals also differ in that, visions, compared to goals, are more abstract and long-term oriented and do not need to be achievable to be inspiring (Kirkpatrick, Locke, & Latham, 1996). Moreover, and especially relevant for the current research, in organizations, visions and goal setting are not isolated from each other, but used simultaneously. Thus, the question arises in which way visions and goals together affect individuals at work (Fairhurst, 1993).

In a first attempt to integrate visioning and goal setting, Berson and colleagues (2015) suggested the conditions under which visions or goal setting are likely to be more effective. Based on construal fit theory, they argue that visions are more motivating from socially distant

leaders, whereas goals are more effective from socially close leaders. Yet, from our point of view, this theorizing does make one strong assumption: That visions and goals are independent and do not influence followers simultaneously or interactively. This makes sense from a communications perspective, but looking at the effects of goals and particularly visions this seems restrictive. Specifically, the effects of visions may still be perceived long after they have been communicated (Baum et al., 1998; Griffin, Parker, & Mason, 2010; Pearce & Ensley, 2004) as they convey values (Baum et al., 1998; Dvir, Kass, & Shamir, 2004; House & Shamir 1993) and give a deeper meaning to daily work. Followers may still be under the influence of a vision when they face task goals. This suggests the possibility of a more complex interactional process to understand how visions and goals can complement or inhibit each other's motivational effect.

Thus, we aspire to go a step further and investigate the interactive effect of visions and goals. Based on the behavioral integrity (BI) approach (Simons, 2002), we suggest that visions and goals can enhance each other's effects when they are aligned in terms of content. Take, for example, a vision of "being green". In this case, "use as few plastic bags as possible for the next delivery" is an aligned goal, whereas "work as quick as possible for the next delivery" is a goal that is less aligned with the vision. An alignment between the explicit goal setting and a distant vision will be perceived as a display of high behavioral integrity referring to "the perceived pattern of alignment between an actor's words and deeds" (Simons, 2002, p.19). Behavioral integrity enhances trust in the leader and satisfies the followers' safety need making them more willing to contribute to the envisioned goal. When goals are not aligned (or even contradicting each other) they might have negative effects: The leader can be perceived as inconsistent, which fosters uncertainty and unfairness perception (e.g., De Cremer, 2003; Dineen, Lewicki, & Tomlinson, 2006), resulting in distrust and lower performance. In summary, goals that are

aligned with the vision might lead to higher leaders 'effectiveness in stimulating followers' performance than goals which are not aligned with the vision.

The current studies investigate the effects of goal-vision alignment and aims to contribute to the literatures on visions and goal setting in three unique ways. First, by identifying interactive effects of vision communication and goal setting, we integrate literature from two important research areas in management (Shamir et al., 1993; Stam, Lord, van Knippenberg & Wisse, 2014) and motivation (Locke & Latham, 2002). This integration is especially important since insights from the literatures on vision communication and goal setting differ substantially (and sometimes seem the opposite), whilst visions and goals are highly interdependent. Without understanding *both* vision communication *and* goal setting one cannot fully understand either one of them, and without understanding their interaction we leave a gap in the knowledge about vision's and goal's impact on performance. Second, we point at specific interactive mechanisms for the effects of visions and goals on follower performance *over time*. This contributes to the small, but growing (in scope and importance) literatures on temporal perspectives to vision communication and goal setting (Berson et al., 2015). Third, we explain the effects of vision and goal alignment via behavioral integrity and trust (Simons, 1999, Simons, 2002). In this way, we suggest a psychological explanation for the suggested beneficial effect. In addition to that we show a further application of BI. Finally, our findings helps managers in setting goals more efficiently (or construe visions to improve goal-achievement) using a new tool (alignment). With that, we add to current best practices in goal setting (such as SMART, see Rubin, 2002) by incorporating sensitivity to context and time.

In the following we first review the literatures on vision communication and goal setting and then discuss how interactively they influence performance. Afterwards we describe the two studies testing these ideas.

### **3.2. Visions and goals: Similarities and differences**

Visions refer to communicating images of the future of groups with the aim of convincing the groups to pursue these futures (Stam et al., 2014). Goal setting is defined as providing standards for performance to approach or avoid (Locke & Latham, 2006). In our attempt to integrate the literatures of vision communication and goal setting we will review these literatures based on their similarities and differences.

First, goals and visions are similar in nature to a large extent. Goals and visions both refer to the future and provide individuals an achievement level to aspire to. In essence, goals and visions are both standards to approach or avoid. Such standards, be they visions or goals, may differ substantially in content and may target a variety of groups (e.g., nations, organizations, work teams). Second, both goals and visions have to be communicated to be effective. Indeed, although some scholars have differentiated between vision content and vision communication (Den Hartog & Verburg, 1997), the distinction is hard to maintain since the communication seems to define the content of the visions as much as vice versa. Given the complex intertwining of content and communication recently scholars often refer to vision as the content of vision communication or the communicated vision (cf. Stam et al., 2014). Similarly, goals are generally discussed as the communicated content of goal setting. Finally, vision communication and goal setting are both tools of influence for leaders aiming to motivate their followers to higher performance levels. Visions are a central part of various highly successful leadership paradigms such as transformational leadership (Bass, 1985b; Shamir et al., 1993) and servant leadership (van Dierendonck, 2011). Visions of famous leaders are, for instance, Paul Polman's image of Unilever as a completely sustainable organization or Martin Luther King's Jr's vision for a fair and just United States of America. Goal-setting is also strongly related to leadership. For instance, goal setting is implicitly included in some of the leadership paradigms,

such as TFL (as it includes giving challenging tasks; Bass, 1985b) as well as in Yukl and Lepsinger's (1990) MPS. Moreover, path-goal theory is a leadership theory that bases itself fully on goal setting (House, 1971). Hence, both vision communication and goals setting are recognized as relevant leadership behaviors.

Despite these substantial similarities, goal setting and vision communication also have clear differences. First, visions are abstract in nature, concern the far future, are about big pictures rather than small details, and are an often essentially unattainable yet inspiring ideal (cf. Shamir et al., 1993). For example, “to provide access to the world’s information in one click” is Google’s vision. Considering that goals define as the object or aim of an action (Locke & Latham, 2002) the timeframe of goals is unlikely bind to the far future. In the work context this future is often clearly defined, for example by a deadline. Building on Ryan’s (1970) premise that conscious goals affect action, goal-setting theory (Locke & Latham, 2002, 2006) explains how and when a goal, affects performance. Goal-setting research has drawn on this theory to examine which aspects of goals are most important for predicting differences in task performance. The empirical evidence on this question has consistently demonstrated that difficult and specific goals result in improved performance and greater satisfaction with performance outcomes than easy goals or unspecific goal instructions (Locke & Latham, 2013). While the characteristic “challenging” resembles the unattainable and inspiring component of visions, the characteristic “specific” contrasts inherently with the idea of abstractness in vision communication.

Second, whereas both, goals and visions, can be directed towards groups, this is by definition the case for visions, many goals in life and work are directed towards individuals. This has pronounced implications. For instance, research on vision communication has treated social identity as an important element of vision communication efforts (Shamir et al., 1993; Stam et al., 2014) whilst goal setting theory has often emphasized more individually oriented theories



such as motivational theories or information processing theories (cf. Wegge & Haslam, 2007). Although these views can be integrated (see Stam et al., 2014, for an example) this specifies a clear distinction between goal setting and vision communication.

Third, the processes through which visions and goals sort effects are somewhat different. Visions are argued to be effective in activating and guiding others because they communicate the values and purpose of the group or organization, without being restrictive or directive. Visions seem to activate and influence self-systems of followers. In this way, communicating visions provides a basis for identification with the group and a sense of self-worth and self-efficacy that translates into better performance (Shamir et al., 1993; Shamir, Arthur, & House, 1994). Moreover, visions are argued to provide meaning and purpose to daily work activities that foster feelings of psychological empowerment (Brymen, 1992; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Shamir et al., 1993; Yukl, et al., 2002). Visions may act as collective possible selves that form a platform for dreaming about a collective's future and one's role in it (cf. Stam et al., 2014). In sum, they activate the longing of individuals to be part of a bigger whole.

Although effective goal setting is also energizing (Bandura & Cervone, 1983) and fosters persistence (LaPorte & Nath, 1976), the effect arises due to it being specific and challenging. Therefore, the favourable effects are reached via different causal pathways than for visions. Research has attributed the positive relationship between specific and challenging goals and performance to four mechanisms. First, goals direct attention and effort toward instrumental goal-relevant activities and away from goal-irrelevant activities. This effect occurs both cognitively and behaviourally. For example, Rothkopf and Billington (1979) found that students with specific learning goals paid attention to and learned goal-relevant prose passages better than goal-irrelevant passages. Second, goals have an energizing function. High goals lead to greater effort than low goals. This has been shown with tasks that directly entail physical effort (Bandura &

Cervone, 1983), repeated performance of simple cognitive tasks, and measurements of subjective effort (Bryan & Locke, 1967). Third, goals bolster persistence. When participants are allowed to control the time they spend on a task, hard goals prolong effort (LaPorte & Nath, 1976). Finally, goals affect action indirectly by leading to the arousal, discovery, and/or use of task-relevant knowledge and strategies (Wood & Locke, 1990).

In summary, it appears that visions and goal setting are important tools in the leader's toolbox to influence followers (House, 1971, 1996; van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014). Yet, whereas goals are found to be especially effective when they are specific and challenging but reachable (Locke & Latham, 2002), visions are claimed to be inspiring when they are abstract and highly challenging even if they are not attainable (Kirkpatrick et al., 1996; Shamir et al., 1993). Notwithstanding their difference and “[...] despite being communicated in different terms and time perspectives, visions and goals may well augment and complement each other when used appropriately across situations and time in organizations.” (Berson et al., 2015, p. 144). In the following we argue that this is the case, but only when goals and visions align.

### **3.3. Integrating visions and goals**

After we reviewed the research on vision communication, goal setting and their impact on leaders' effectiveness in stimulating followers' performance, we aim to integrate both approaches by suggesting an interaction model of vision and goal alignment. Alignment, in our research, refers that the goals supporting the values communicated in the vision. One could imagine a vision of excellence and a goal related to high performance would align, whereas a vision of inclusion and a goal related to performance would not. In this way, the aligned goal is an enactment of the vision rendering the far goal more concrete and tangible for the followers.

In the literature on trust and BI the communication of values and behaviors aligned with values gain increasing attention (e.g., Authentic leadership (Avolio et al., 2004); Behavioral

Integrity (Simons, 1999)). When leader behaviors are guided by internal values, they will most likely be perceived as trustworthy by the followers. These theories argue that leaders whose behavior reflects their values will be more effective (Yukl, 2012). We expect favorable effects of vision-goal alignment on performance via perceived BI and trust. When goal setting is seen as leader behavior the alignment with a communicated vision should be perceived as a high level of BI and enhance trust in the leader. Subsequently, BI and trust predict several favorable outcomes for organizations as performance and well-being (Burke, et al., 2007; Braun, et al., 2013; Dirks, & Ferrin, 2002).

### **3.3.1. Vision-goal alignment and behavioral integrity**

Visions and goals may convey values to motivate followers and give deeper meaning to their work. Values are general beliefs about the importance of normatively desirable behaviors or end states (Schwartz, 1992). When communicating a vision, leaders convey values that shape behavioral norms expected of their follower. Value congruence refers to the similarity between values held by individuals and values communicated by the organizations (Kristof, 1996). It has been shown repeatedly that value congruence is related to positive attitudinal outcomes. One major reason for the positive effects is that followers trust a leader with consistent and congruent values. Value congruence also eases communication and foster attraction depending on the value. In turn, communication increases trust (Edwards & Cable, 2009) and finally result in job satisfaction. We argue that the core mechanism behind this process is perceived BI of the leader.

BI is “the perceived pattern of alignment between an actor’s words and deeds” (Simons, 2002, p. 19). It includes a perceived fit between behavior and all kinds of expressed values (corporate or individual), mission statements and promises or psychological contracts. As BI represents a perceived pattern or an average judgment of alignment or misalignment between words and actions of this entity it is rather a stable attribute developed through a number of

observed situations. Thus, BI is a trait subjectively ascribed by a follower to an individual (leader) or group (team, organization) and that may be unitary or domain-specific (e.g., BI for safety (Leroy, Palanski & Simons, 2012)).

BI has an impact on performance, OCB, job satisfaction, well-being and intent to quit (Davis & Rothstein, 2006; Dineen et al., 2006; Prottas, 2008; Prottas, 2013, Palanski & Yammarino, 2011; Simons, 2008; Simons & McLean Parks, 2000), establishing its importance for organizations. The main function of BI is increasing reliability and perceived value congruence that increases trust or credibility (as a subconstruct of trust) of the referent, respectively. Subsequently, trust increases the willingness of the follower to contribute to the referents goals and therefore leads to higher performance (Braun et al., 2013; Burke et al., 2007). Palanski and Yammarino (2011) for example could show in an online experiment with 95 participants with scenarios about a typical week in the life of a manager of a sales team that participants in the high BI condition were more satisfied with the leader and trusted him more. In a field study with 83 nurses and a longitudinal study with 149 students they could replicate these results and show the significant relationship of followers' trust and satisfaction with followers' job performance. Simons and colleagues (2015) showed in their meta-analysis that BI has stronger effects on trust, in role task performance and OCB than moral integrity and stronger effects on commitment and OCB than psychological contract breach. By explaining these effects they urge for more research on BI.

Thus, for leaders, BI is an important aspect to nurture in their followers. Arguably they can do so through their behaviors; to the extent that communication and action are in line they would appear higher on BI (Simons, 2002). Although the research on BI has traditionally restricted itself to studying how action and communication are aligned, we argue that internal alignment of communication (in terms of vision and goals) might also be an important predictor

of BI. While visions are unmistakably *words*, conveying abstract goals which are rather far from concrete action-expectations, goal setting is most proximal to a concrete *behavior*. Specific goals of a leader entail direct behaviors (goal execution) of the followers or the whole team. For example, when the goal is “use as few plastic bags as possible for the next delivery” it directly implies that everyone in the team, including the leader, will exert this behavior. Such a behavior aligns with the vision of “being green”. Therefore, leaders’ goal setting can be seen as enactment of his or her words and should influence the perception of BI of the followers. Thus, we argue that one way in which leaders can accomplish BI is by setting goals that are in line with their communicated vision.

*Hypothesis 1:* Goals and visions interact to predict performance, such that goals that are aligned with visions in terms of content will be more positively related to performance than goals that are not aligned with visions in terms of content.

*Hypothesis 2:* The interactive effects of goals and visions on performance are mediated by a.) behavioral integrity and subsequently b.) trust in the communicator.

### **3.3.2. Overview of the project**

The hypotheses are visualized in Figure 3, showing how alignment of visions and goals finally results in leaders’ effectiveness in stimulating followers’ performance. Vision-goal alignment is represented by the interaction term of the independent variable *vision* and the moderator *goal*. Mediated by BI and trust the alignment leads to leaders’ effectiveness.

In the first study, we investigated the overall effect of actual vision-goal alignment on leaders’ effectiveness. The aim was to show that an alignment of the content of vision and goals

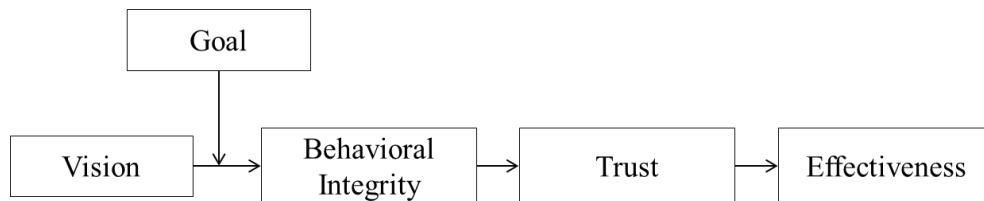


Figure 3. Study design of study 2

Vision-goal alignment and its effects on leaders' effectiveness to stimulate followers' performance via behavioral integrity and trust.

is more effective than a misalignment, independent of the content itself. In the second study we tested the mechanism of the relationship showed in study 1. The aim was to show that alignment between vision content and goal content is perceived as a high display of BI. BI increases trust and finally results in leaders' effectiveness.

### Study 2.1: Vision-goal alignment and leader effectiveness

#### 3.4. Introduction study 2.1

The aim of the first study was to investigate the main message of vision-goal alignment: When vision and goals are aligned in content leaders are more effective in stimulating their follower. Followers become more willing to invest effort into goal fulfillment. Such results would confirm Hypothesis 1.

In the first study we used a student sample with students as members of the university. The communicator of the vision and the goal was the management of the university. The advantage of such a design is that participants have already developed a relationship with their university making vision and goal communication more natural. To manipulate alignment we created two visions (one emphasizing *learning* and one emphasizing *performance*) and two task goals (one emphasizing *learning* and one emphasizing *performance*). Alignment occurs when the emphasis of the vision and the goal is the same.

### **3.5. Methods**

#### **3.5.1. Participants**

The participants in this study were 123 bachelor (87%) and master (9%) students from a Dutch University aged between 17 and 32 ( $M = 20.67$ ;  $SD = 2.54$ ). 50.4% were female and 69% studied in the International Business Administration bachelor program; the remaining 31% were distributed among 23 different subjects. We used a 2 (Vision content: Learning versus performance orientation) by 2 (Goal content: Learning versus performance orientations) design. Participants were randomly assigned to one of these vision-goal conditions (47% to the aligned learning condition<sup>4</sup>, 18% to the aligned performance condition, 16% and 19% to the two not aligned conditions).

#### **3.5.2. Procedure**

Participants completed the pen and pencil study as part of a larger research project in a lab of the University. Participants were asked to fill out a questionnaire on demographics first and then were told that they had to conduct a writing task. Specifically, they were told that they were to write an application letter for an internship in a company as an exercise for their actual internship in the future. Before the writing task the participants first read the Universities vision concerning education and student development (including the vision manipulation) and then got the specific task (including the goal manipulation). The specific task was writing the application. The experiment lasted for about 25 minutes and students participated for course credits.

#### **3.5.3. Measures and manipulations**

*Vision manipulation.* Our aim was to create a visionary speech about something that concerns the students directly. The importance of the vision for an individual is decisive for its

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<sup>4</sup> The aligned learning condition was bigger due to an issue during the distribution of the experiment. All analyses have been driven additionally with a randomly reduced group to reach equal group size per condition. The results were the same with the reduced sample.

effectiveness (Stam et al., 2010a). Thus, the vision was imitating the guidelines of the University, giving reasons for studying there. The instruction was “*What follows is an excerpt of the guidelines of the University. Please read these attentively*”. The learning vision fostered learning opportunities and development, for example saying: “*Our University offers you a comprehensive education, which will empower you to take on challenges and try new ways rather than fear risks*“. The performance vision fostered good positioning in the individual career, for example “*Our University offers you a goal-oriented education, which will guide you to an excellent degree and a successful career rather than distracting you with additional tasks and offers*”. Both were equally long and overlapping in the structure of the sentences and messages transmitted. They can be found in Appendix B.

**Validity check for the visions.** The validity of the two visions was checked in a small pilot study with 63 German students. The participants were randomly assigned to one of the vision conditions described above and rated to which extent they perceive each vision as visionary, learning oriented or performance oriented. The instruction was “*these are the guidelines of the University [University’s name]. Please read them carefully and evaluate them on the following scales.*”

The performance and learning orientation scale contained 2 items each. The internal consistency was under an acceptable level (Cronbach’s- $\alpha = .597$ ), therefore, the analyses were driven for every item separately. Students perceived the performance-oriented guidelines as more performance-oriented than the learning guidelines  $F(1,61) = 12.4, p = .001$ ) referring to the item “*this guidelines indicate that it is important to perform better than the other students*”. Students perceived the leaning guidelines as more learning oriented than the performance guidelines  $F(1,61) = 4.7, p = .034$ ) referring to the item “*this guidelines indicate that it is important to learn new things and develop oneself*”. Six-item (Cronbach’s - $\alpha = .802$ ) measured the visionary aspect



of the guidelines. An example is “*these guidelines are inspiring*”. As we intended the two visions did not differ significantly in being visionary  $F(1,61) = 3.11, p = .083$ , with a slightly higher mean score for the learning vision ( $M = 5.08$ ) than the performance vision ( $M = 4.65$ ). We conclude that the validity of the two visions is sufficient for further application.

**Goal manipulation.** The scenario for the goal setting was the application for an internship at Babelbox radio. The job description was inspired by an already existent job vacancy we found online. The task we gave participants was: “*Please write a convincing application letter to the job posting of Babelbox to the best of your abilities. List at least 5 of your strengths and 5 aspects you expect from the company.*” The goal manipulation focused on this task. In the learning goal condition the participants were asked to write a letter focusing on the learning opportunities for them in the internship (aligning with the learning vision). For example: “*... company for the internship where you can broaden your knowledge and exploit your potential.*” In the performance goal condition the participants were asked to write a letter focusing on the opportunities for CV building and demonstrating high performance (aligning with the performance vision). For example: “*...company where you can display your potential in best possible way.*”

**Dependent variables.** The dependent variables were the *performance* of the students while writing the application and the *effort* they were willing to invest in the fulfillment of the task. We used two different operationalization displayed in the following. All coding of the applications letters were done by two independent raters who were blind to the conditions and the aim of the study.

First, we operationalized the performance by coding the **quality** of the letter (0 = no text, 1 = text but no clear sentences or structure, 2 = fluent text but little structure, 3 = fluent text and clear structure, 4 = fluent text, good structure and specific for application letter). Second, we

counted the number of strengths the author mentioned they possessed and the number of expectations regarding the position mentioned in the application letter as an **effort** measure explicitly linked to the task fulfillment.

**Liking of the vision:** We measured liking of the vision with a 5-point single-item-scale to capture if the visions differ in the affective reaction they aroused as an additional manipulation check.

**Liking of the task:** Affective reaction to the task was measured with two items (“Please indicate to what extent did you like the task?” and “Please indicate to what extent did you enjoy writing the application letter”) with 5-point-scales (Cronbach’s  $\alpha = .888$ ).

**Controls:** We controlled for commitment with the university to make sure that the effects derive from our vision manipulation and not from initially high values in commitment. Commitment is shown to be influenced by visions and explain performance outcomes (Shamir et al., 1993) and thus, we controlled for it. Commitment was measured at a 5-point-likert scale adapted to university context from the original commitment scale from Allen and Meyer (1990). An example item is “*I would be very happy to spend the rest of my academic path at my university.*”

### 3.6. Results

To analyze the results we used an analysis of variance with the vision manipulation and the goal manipulation as independent variables. In the correlation Table (Table 8) one can see that *commitment* to the University was positively related to liking of the vision ( $r(121) = .182, p < .05$ ). This indicates that previously more committed students liked our vision more. Thus, all following results are controlled for *commitment*. Age was also correlated with liking of the vision with younger students ( $r(121) = -.18, p < .05$ ). Importantly there was no effect of our vision manipulation on vision liking (learning  $M = 3.64, SD = .91$  and performance  $M = 3.86, SD =$

.56),  $F(1,121) = 1.94, p = .166$ . Quality of the letter and effort-measure was positively interrelated ( $r(121) = .36, p < .01$ ).

Table 8  
*Correlations of all variables of interest*

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 Vision	0.34	0.48									
2 Goal	0.36	0.48	.21*								
3 Liking vision	3.72	0.82	.13	-.01							
4 Quality	2.67	0.92	-.24**	-.04	.08						
5 Effort	3.57	1.31	-.12	-.08	.07	.36**					
6 Liking task	2.25	1.08	-.07	.15	.02	.01	-.08				
7 Gender	0.50	0.50	-.11	-.24**	.13	-.08	.13	-.18*			
8 Age	20.67	2.55	-.31**	-.30**	-.18*	.14	-.04	.01	.11		
9 Commitment	3.39	0.76	-.08	-.13	.18*	-.03	.08	.08	.24**	.06	

Note. Vision and goal are coded as 0 for Learning and 1 for Performance vision. Gender is dummy coded with 0 = male. \* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$

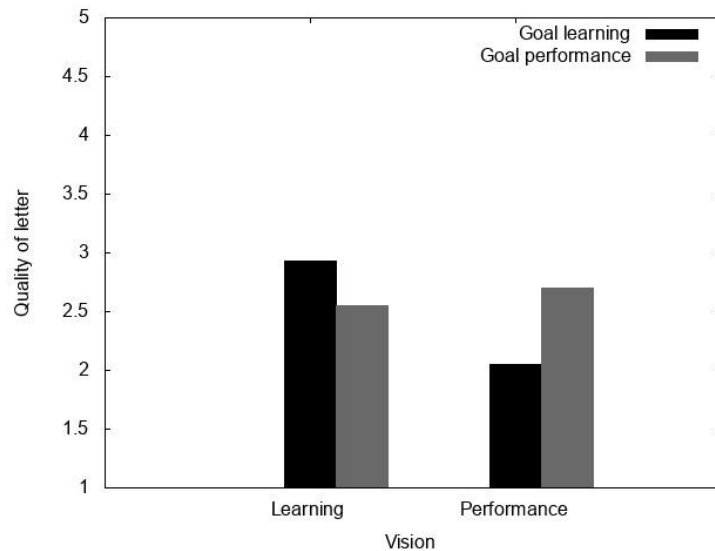
For quality of the letter we found a significant main effect for the learning vision,  $F(1,118) = 7.3, p = .008, \eta^2 = .058$ . Participants in the learning vision conditions performed better ( $M = 2.83, SD = .883$ ) than participants in the performance vision conditions ( $M = 2.36, SD = 9.15$ ).

Table 9  
*ANOVA results for the main interactive effect of visions and goals on quality of the letter*

Source	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Partial <math>\eta^2</math></i>
commitment	0.19	.66	.002
goal	0.49	.48	.004
vision	4.46	.04	.037
goal * vision	8.74	<.01	.071

Goal-setting had no main effect. Importantly, we found a significant interaction effect of vision and goal,  $F(1,16) = 8.74, p = .003, \eta^2 = .070$  see Table 9. As shown in Figure 3, in the learning oriented vision condition participants performed better after reading a learning oriented goal ( $M = 2.93, SD = .915$ ), than after reading an performance oriented goal ( $M = 2.55, SD = .739$ ). Participants in the performance-oriented vision condition performed better after reading a

performance oriented goal ( $M = 2.70$ ,  $SD = 0.801$ ), than after reading a learning oriented goal ( $M = 2.05$ ,  $SD = .921$ ).



*Figure 4.* Interactive effect of visions and goals on the quality of the letter.

Interactive effect: Visions (performance versus learning) \* goals (performance versus learning)

For the effort measure we did not find any significant main effects and also no significant interaction effect ( $F(1,116) = 1.55$ ,  $p = .69$ ). The comparison of the means go in the expected direction for the learning vision but not for the performance vision. In the learning oriented vision condition participants wrote more after reading a learning oriented goal ( $M = 3.75$ ,  $SD = 1.11$ ), than after reading a performance oriented goal ( $M = 3.52$ ,  $SD = 1.42$ ). In sum, whereas the results for effort are inconclusive, the results for quality (performance) are strongly supportive of our Hypothesis.

### 3.7. Discussion study 1

In this study we showed that students performed better when their task was aligned with the visionary message they received before. Yet, for our effort measure we could not show the

same results. On the whole the first study partly supported the idea that alignment of visions and goal is beneficial for followers' performance.

A reason for lack of effect on the effort measure may be the lack of engagement with the task: Writing formal letters was not to everyone's liking. Consequently, we may have found more effect on the more obvious outcome measure (the way the letter was edited) than the more implicit measure (the content of the letter). For the next study we aim to choose a more engaging task. Importantly, the first study did not investigate Hypothesis 2 concerning the mediation effects of trust and perceived BI of the communicator. Thus, in the next study we added measures of these mediators in order to be able to test for mediation effects.

## **Study 2.2: Vision-goal, alignment behavioral integrity and trust**

### **3.8. Introduction study 2.2**

The aims of study 2 were confirming the results of the first study (2.1) and test the mediators we suggested, namely behavioral integrity and trust. We created a less tiring design to prevent students from disengagement. Therefore, they had to work on short vignettes describing a realistic working situation. Vision and goals in this experiment emphasized either *excellence* or *work-life-balance* (WLB) and alignment was achieved when goal and vision emphasized the same aspect. We note that these values are different from the pair of values we investigated in Study 1, making sure what we study is vision-goal alignment rather than a specific set of values. The survey part of the study referred to Helen Williams, the supervisor of the "You" in the scenarios.

### **3.9. Pilot study**

To test our manipulation material we conducted a small pilot study. Specifically, the aim was to examine if the vision and goal manipulations transmitted the messages that we intended.

### **3.9.1. Methods**

#### **3.9.1.1. Participants**

We recruited 39 students of a German University. Links to the survey were sent through the mailing list of two courses held by one of the authors of this paper. Participation was voluntarily and not reward. Most participants were students of the master program “Business, Psychology and Management” ( $M_{\text{age}} = 28.89$  ( $SD = 5.43$ )). Seventy-two percent were female. For the examination of the model we had to exclude 2 participants due to incomplete survey data. We used a 2 (Vision content: Excellence versus WLB) by 2 (Goal content: Excellence versus WLB) design. Participants were randomly assigned to one of these vision-goal conditions (28.2% to the aligned excellence condition, 25.6% to the aligned WLB condition, 17.9% and 28.2% to the two not aligned conditions).

#### **3.9.1.2. Procedure**

The participants could take part in the experiment online at home. The experimental design contained a vignette about a realistic work situation (see, Appendix C). The participants were asked to imagine being in this situation and answering the questions referring to the content of the vignette. In the first part they were introduced to their work situation as a full-time software developer for a company that creates IT-services for other companies. Their supervisor Helen Williams communicated a vision when she was appointed as their manager two years ago. The vision content was displayed in quotes and contained the vision-manipulation (excellence or WLB). After the manipulation-check participants read the second part of the vignette about their currently increased pressure due to an approaching deadline. During a team-meeting Helen Williams sets adapted goals, containing the goal-manipulation (excellence or WLB). The study ends with several questionnaires about the supervisor. Working on the questionnaire took about 20 minutes.

### 3.9.1.3. Measures

**Vision manipulation.** The aim was to construe visions around universal work-related values that every participant could connect to. Thus, the visions were created around the values excellence and WLB. The visions were communicated in written form, were equally long and contained the same sentence structures. The excellence visions contained expressions like “*I want you to perform always as best as you can, no matter what, and create amazing solutions*” whereas the WLB based vision contained sentences like “*I want you to have the working hours which fit to everyone personally*”.

The attention check and the manipulation check followed immediately. The attention-check consisted of one question: *What is the core message of Helen's vision?* Four participants who did not mention any aspects of the vision were excluded from further participation. For purposes of control we measure overall speech quality with a scale that contained 5 items that measured to what extent the speech was visionary (e.g., “the speech was inspiring”) ranging from 1 = “not at all true for me” to 7 = “completely true for me”. Furthermore, as a manipulation check, participants evaluated 4 values, namely excellence, WLB, teamwork and sustainability on their importance for Helen. Answers ranged from (1 = “not important at all” to 5 = “very important”).

**Goal manipulation.** Helen Williams’ adapted goal was displayed in the second part of the vignette. In a team meeting she asks the participant “*please, quickly write a new suggestion of our schedule for the project until 4 p.m. today*”. The excellence goal manipulation continued like “*The aim is to finish the project and start the launch as planned in one month on Friday at 3 p.m. at the latest so it might happen that you have to work overtime!*” The WLB goal manipulation continued like: “*The aim is to finish the project and start the launch in six weeks’ time on Friday at 3 p.m. at the latest so that you won’t have to work overtime.*” In the same way as for the

vision, participants evaluated 4 values, namely excellence, WLB, teamwork and sustainability on their importance for Helen as a manipulation check. Answers ranged from (1 = “not important at all” to 5 = “very important”).

### 3.9.2. Results

The manipulation checks showed that the participants could distinguish between the values communicated in the two different visions, as shown in Table 10. In the excellence-vision condition compared to the WLB-vision condition they perceived their leader more likely to value excellence ( $F(1,38) = 21.9, p < .01$ ) and in the WLB-vision condition compared to the excellence-vision condition they perceived their leader more likely to value WLB ( $F(1,38) = 56.5, p < .01$ ). They did not differ in their perception of the values teamwork and sustainability.

Table 10

*Mean differences of 4 values and extent of being visionary across the conditions*

		Excellence	WLB	Sustainability	Teamwork	Visionary
Vision	Excellence	4.68 (0.57)	2.51 (1.3)	3.45 (0.67)	3.27 (1.16)	5.11 (0.75)
	WLB	3.22 (0.81)	4.89 (0.47)	3.76 (1.03)	3.29 (0.85)	6.01 (0.67)
	<i>F</i>	21.09	56.49	1.29	0.004	15.12
	<i>p</i>	<.01	<.01	0.26	.95	< .01
Goal	Excellence	4.88 (0.34)	1.81 (1.22)	3.31 (1.25)	3.19 (1.05)	
	WLB	3.24 (1.18)	4.33 (1.24)	3.05 (1.16)	3.43 (0.87)	
	<i>F</i>	24.33	57.71	0.44	0.59	
	<i>p</i>	<.01	<.01	.51	.45	

*Note.*  $N = 37$ ; Standard deviation in parentheses

However, participants perceived the WLB-vision to be more visionary ( $M = 6.00, SD = 0.67$ ) than the excellence-vision ( $M = 5.11, SD = 0.75$ ) ( $F(1,38) = 15.1, p < .01$ ). For the goal-manipulation we obtain the same picture: In the excellence-goal condition compared to the WLB-goal condition they perceived their leader more likely to refer to excellence ( $F(1,38) = 24.33, p < .01$ ) and in the WLB-goal condition compared to the excellence-goal condition they perceived their leader more likely to refer to WLB ( $F(1,38) = 57.71, p < .01$ ). Importantly, given that the



goals manipulation came after the vision manipulation we also checked the effects of the vision manipulation on the goals manipulation check. There were no cross-over effects from the vision manipulation on the perception of the goal-value. Consequently, we could keep the vision and goal manipulations unchanged for the main study.

## Main Study

### 3.10. Methods main study

#### 3.10.1. Participants and Procedure

Students were recruited as part of a research session of a Dutch University. Links to the surveys were posted online on their blackboard. From potential 400 students 235 took part, resulting in a response rate of 56%. We had to exclude 7 students as they failed the attention-check resulting in a sample of  $N = 227$ . All were 2<sup>nd</sup> year bachelor students studying International Business aged between 19 and 27 ( $M = 21.04$ ,  $SD=1.25$ ) and 60.4 % were female. Fifty-six percent were students only and 39% were in an employment position. The participation was voluntary. Similar to the pilot we used again a 2 (Vision content: Excellence versus WLB) by 2 (Goal content: Excellence versus WLB) design. Participants were randomly assigned to one of these vision-goal conditions (24.2% to the aligned excellence condition, 25.6% to the aligned WLB condition, 25.1% to each of the two not aligned conditions). Procedure was the same as in the pilot.

#### 3.10.2. Measures

*Vision and Goal manipulation.* Same as in the pilot study.

*Behavioral Integrity.* BI was measured with an adaptation of the questionnaire by Simons, Friedman, Liu, and McLean Parks, (2007). The 8 items were rated on a 5-point Likert

scale from 1 = “strongly disagree” to 5 = “strongly agree”. An example-item is “*Our supervisor practices what she preaches*”.

**Trust.** Trust was measured with 3 items (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995) on a 5-point-likert scale (from 1 = “strongly disagree” to 5 = “strongly agree”). An example item is “*I would not mind putting my well-being in our supervisor’s hands*”.

**Effectiveness.** Effectiveness was measured with a combination of two scales. An increase in Cronbach’s- $\alpha$  to  $\alpha = .91$  justified the combination. Four items were taken from Van Knippenberg & Van Knippenberg (2005) study containing items like “*My supervisor is a good supervisor.*” Six items were taken from (Stam et al., 2010) containing items such as “*I think my supervisor is persuasive.*” All items were rated on a 5-point-likert scale (from 1 = “strongly disagree” to 5 = “strongly agree”).

**Controls.** We controlled for commitment with same measures as in study 2.1.

### 3.11. Results

The manipulation checks showed that the participants could distinguish between the values communicated in the two different visions. In the excellence-vision condition compared to the WLB-vision condition they perceived their leader more likely to value excellence ( $F(1,226) = 165.9, p < .01$ ) and in the WLB-vision condition compared to the excellence-vision condition they perceived their leader more likely to value WLB ( $F(1,226) = 317.5, p < .01$ ). They did not differ in their perception of the values teamwork and sustainability. However, participants perceived the WLB-vision to be more visionary ( $M = 5.31, SD = 0.85$ ) than the excellence-vision ( $M = 5.03, SD = 1.12$ ),  $F(1,226) = 4.7, p = .03$ . For the goal manipulation, we obtained the same picture: In the excellence-goal condition compared to the WLB-goal condition participants perceived their leader more likely to refer to excellence ( $F(1,226) = 76.9, p < .01$ ) and in the WLB-goal condition compared to the excellence-goal condition they perceived their leader more

likely to refer to WLB ( $F(1,226) = 163.2, p < .01$ ). Yet, this time we had cross-over effects from both types of visions. Therefore, the results have to be interpreted with cautiously.

Table 11  
Correlations of all variables of interest

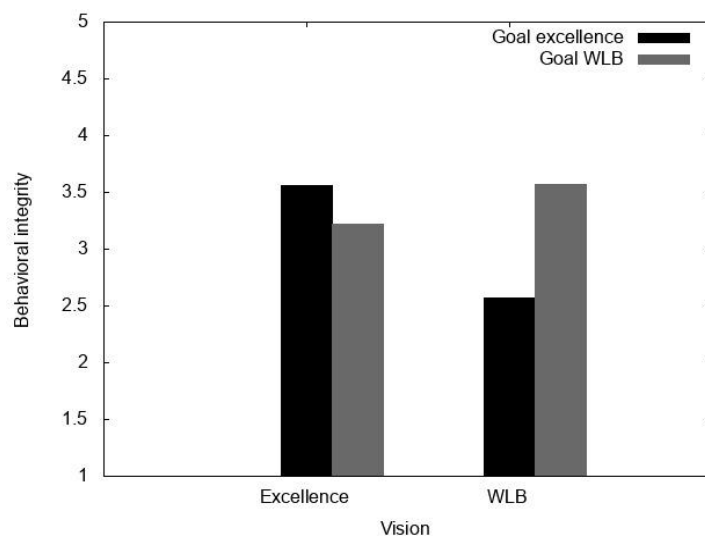
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 Vision	1.51	.50								
2 Goal	1.51	.50	-.01							
3 Gender	1.59	.52	-.03	-.07						
4 Age	21.04	1.25	-.06	-.08	-.031					
5 BI	3.23	.99	-.16*	.17**	.042	.03	(.96)			
6 Effectiveness	3.21	.76	.01	.16*	.042	-.03	.51**	(.91)		
7 Trust	2.39	.93	.01	.21**	.042	-.05	.43**	.60**	(.86)	
8 Commitment	3.71	.75	.10	.04	-.106	-.07	.23**	.48**	.31**	(.77)

Note: \* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ . Vision and goals are dummy coded. 1 = excellence; 2 = WLB. For gender 1= female 2 = male. Cronbach's alpha is displayed in the diagonal in parentheses.

As seen in the correlation table (Table 11) BI and effectiveness are correlated in the expected direction ( $r(225) = .51, p < .001$ ); same for trust and BI are correlated in the expected direction ( $r(225) = .43, p < .001$ ) and trust and effectiveness ( $r(225) = .60, p < .001$ ). Also commitment correlates with all variables of interest. Therefore, we include it as a control in the following analyses. We note that VIF indices around 1.5 suggested no danger of collinearity.

To test Hypothesis 2 we first conducted an ANOVA of the interactive effect of visions and goals on BI and afterwards on trust and effectiveness. We found significant main effect for the excellence vision  $F(1,226) = 10.29, p = .002, \eta^2 = .044$  and the WLB goal  $F(1,226) = 7.12, p = .008, \eta^2 = .031$ . Participants in the excellence vision conditions evaluated their supervisor having more BI ( $M = 3.39, SD = .88$ ) than participants in the WLB vision conditions ( $M = 3.07, SD = 1.06$ ). For goals the effects are the opposite. Participants in the WLB goal conditions evaluated their supervisor having more BI ( $M = 3.39, SD = .88$ ) than participants in the excellence goal conditions ( $M = 3.07, SD = 1.06$ ). Importantly, we found a significant interaction

effect of vision and goal.  $F(1,226) = 35.00, p < .0031, \eta^2 = .136$ . As shown in Figure 5, in the WLB vision condition participants perceived higher BI after reading a WLB goal ( $M = 3.57, SD = .81$ ), than after reading an excellence goal ( $M = 2.51, SD = 1.01$ ). Participants in the excellence vision condition perceived higher BI after reading an excellence goal ( $M = 3.56, SD = 0.85$ ) than after reading a WLB goal ( $M = 3.22, SD = .88$ ). No effects could be found on trust ( $F(1,226) = 0.07, p = .935, \eta^2 = .005$ ) and effectiveness ( $F(1,226) = 1.01, p = .315, \eta^2 = .00$ )



*Figure 5.* Interactive effect of visions and goal on BI

The excellence and WLB vision conditions on the x-axis. The excellence (black) and WLB (gray) goal conditions in different colors.

As the next step we conducted regression analyses from BI on trust and effectiveness (Table 12). BI significantly related to trust ( $\beta = .38, p < .001$ ) and trust was significantly related to effectiveness of the leader ( $\beta = .39, p < .001$ ). BI also had a direct effect on effectiveness ( $\beta = .27, p < .001$ ). The Sobel test confirms a significant indirect effect  $t = 5.18; p < .001$ ). The model containing all variables explained 52% of the variance in effectiveness.

Table 12  
*Regressions of the sequential model*

	Model 1: trust			Model 2: Effectiveness		
	$\beta$	$t$	$p$	$\beta$	$t$	$p$
Commitment	.22	3.65	<.01	.29	5.95	<.01
BI	.38	6.33	<.01	.27	5.26	<.01
Trust				.39	7.40	<.01
Adj. R <sup>2</sup>	.23			.52		

In sum, when visions and goals were aligned the participants perceived higher BI of the supervisor. Participants associated higher BI with a more trustworthy and effective leader.

### 3.12. Overall discussion

Visions and goal setting are important tools in the leader's toolbox to influence followers (cf. House, 1971, 1996; van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014). Despite their differences in wording and time perspectives, visions and goals fuel the followers' motivation in the same direction. Also, in organizational practice both forms of messaging are used simultaneously and influence followers at the same time. Nevertheless, they have been treated separately in prior research (Berson et al., 2015). To fill this research gap, we integrated both theories and examined the interactive effect of vision and goal communication on leaders' effectiveness in stimulating follower performance. Based on the BI approach (Simons, 1999; Simons, 2002), we suggested that visions and goals can enhance each other's effects when they are aligned in terms of value-loaded content. The two experimental studies with student samples supported this assumption. Both studies had a two by two design, resulting in two conditions where the goals and values were aligned and two conditions where they were not aligned. In the first experiment alignment of values in vision communication and goal setting resulted in higher performance. In the second study – a vignette study – we did not find a direct link to effectiveness. However, we found an indirect effect on effectiveness via perceived BI and trust.

### **3.12.1. Integration of the literature on visions and goal setting**

Our findings show that the leaders' effectiveness depends on goals and visions. Both interact to predict leaders' effectiveness in stimulating followers' performance. This finding calls for the development of an integrated framework that combines both vision and goals. For instance, values and goals can be connected within a single framework by placing them along a temporal dimension. Because they communicate values and provide meaning for one's work, the effects of visions can be seen over a longer time period, (Brymen, 1992; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Shamir et al., 1993; Yukl, 2002). In this way they convince individuals to pursue an abstract future which is likely to be unattainable (Shamir et al., 1993; Stam et al., 2014). Goals, on the other hand, are more concrete and short term and as such they guide individuals in realizing an envisioned future (Locke & Latham, 1990). They are achievable, specific and reachable within a short timeframe (Kirkpatrick et al., 1996). Thus, goals tap into the same source of motivation and sense-making. Meaning that the vision communicates values which are adopted by the followers and, in turn, these induced values render a goal important and meaningful to a follower. When followers adopt the communicated values they are likely to perceive their goal – if aligned in terms of values – as meaningful and important (Kristof, 1996; Edward & Cable, 2009). Thus, visions and goals are not independent of each other, but motivate the pursuit of a desired future on different temporal dimensions. Therefore, an integrative approach to both concepts seems appropriate.

We believe that our suggested integrated view of visions and goals (instead of thinking about them as independent of each other) is useful from a theoretical perspective. For instance, vision-goal alignment might explain effects of leadership theories including visioning as a main component (e.g., transformational leadership or servant leadership). Those who are effective visionary leaders are those who pursue their vision in daily messaging and behaviors as well

(Simons, 1999). On the other side, the perception of leader's credibility is crucial to expect change oriented leader behavior as TFL (Carlson & Perrewe, 1995). Particularly, the concept of authentic leadership is related to (perceived) BI (Avolio & Gardner 2005; Leroy et al., 2012). Hence, the alignment of vision and goals is likely to be a tool of authentic leaders representing, in contrast to BI, leader's true inner values (Kernis & Goldman, 2006). The implication of this is quite extensive. If those leadership styles based on vision communication are (partly) effective because they result into perceptions of BI, whilst other styles are also related to perceived BI, this creates natural linkages between these styles. For instance, one could argue that at least partly authentic leadership might explain some of the effects of transformational leadership. These interactions would be an interesting avenue for future research.

Leaders who walk their talk are more likely to be perceived by their followers as high on BI and followers are willing to trust them (Simons, 2002). High levels of BI and trust result in leaders' effectiveness and in turn in followers' performance. In our studies we showed that BI and trust are explaining mechanisms for the effects of the actual alignment of visions and goals on leaders' effectiveness. The relationship we found is of sequential nature, meaning that actual alignment leads to BI which is further associated with trust and effectiveness. As suggested in the literature followers' high level of trust and made them more willing to invest effort in the task (Burke et al., 2007). BI is a particularly suitable mechanism to explain the beneficial effects of vision-goal alignment as it can be transferred to the organizational level: When a vision is communicated by the organization and a leader set aligned goals it should be perceived as high BI of the organization (Simons, 2002). Therefore, our insight might also explain effects across organizational levels.

One of the consequences of this process is also that vision communication is not necessarily positive, that is, visions that are not aligned with goals may undermine the

effectiveness of goals. The leadership literature generally celebrates vision communication as the alpha and omega of leadership (see van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014) but our research suggests that vision communication may come at a risk and leaders should think about such alignment risks before communicating visions.

### **3.12.2. Implications for practice**

For organizational practice we would suggest a new tool to strengthen the motivation of the workforce, namely goal-vision alignment. Whereas BI has already been introduced into organizational research we applied this theory to combine two known motivational strategies: visions and goal setting. This allows for at least a couple of practical implications. First, leaders nowadays learn, through training or coaching, how to set goals (e.g., SMART, Rubin, 2002) to motivate and commit their followers. Trainers and coaches can add the content-based alignment to a prior communicated vision as a new component of motivating goal setting. On the one hand it can serve to improve goal setting and on the other hand it could explain why some goals do not motivate followers: When the goal is set following all known goal-setting-rules but misaligning with the vision the motivation of the followers will not increase but rather decrease. That might be an important piece of information for leaders and organizations. Second, for top-management one might emphasize the importance of carefully chosen visions. Those responsible for the implementation of the vision should consider if daily goals can align with the vision created for the organization or a team. The possibility for leaders to implement the content of the vision should be a major reason to choose and construct the message of the communicated vision.

Furthermore, the concept of *stretch goals* might benefit from our insight and theory. Stretch goals serve as disruptive events that disturb complacency and promote new ways of thinking and acting (e.g., Hamel & Prahalad, 1993). They are as unreachable and long-term oriented as visions are, and difficult to implement in organizations according to the literature



(Sitkin, See, Miller, Lawless, & Carton, 2011). Alignment of visions and stretch goals with short term goals might ease implementation of stretch goals in organizational practice and create a greater understanding of the different messaging strategies and their effects on followers.

### **3.12.3. Limitations**

The two studies have several limitations due to their experimental design and samples. Considering the effect vision communication has over time, a design at one specific point in time might not be appropriate. The interactive effect might mean that the alignment between vision and goal setting leads to more task clarity (Simons et al., 2015) which in turn eases performance and not BI perception as we suggested (see study 1). In the vignette study the participants had to imagine that they had worked with their supervisor for two years and like that generalized what they perceived in the vignette (alignment or no alignment) as a global attitude of the supervisor. In the results alignment is perceived as high BI and so forth. Yet the persistence of the alignment is constructed in the participant's mind. To investigate the effects of vision goal alignment a longitudinal study would be more appropriate. In this way, participants would actually build trust.

We tested alignment of visions and goals in terms of the communicated values. The selected values are from a Schwartz value framework perspective at least in tensions with each other (Schwartz, 1999). As a result the misaligned condition might not only be “not walking your talk” but rather two sources of communication that conflict with each other. Generally, even if it was not the focus of our research, we should consider that BI functions differently depending on the communicated content (Simons, 2002). Furthermore, we compared only alignment in terms of content. Visions or goal strength (Berson, Shamir, Avolio, & Popper, 2001) might be another relevant form of alignment. In that case we might have examined high goal versus low vision (and high vision versus low goal).

The experimental design with student samples had typical limitations. We can only postulate what effects would occur in the real-life, but not prove it. The reason for using experiments was that the relationships we investigated were fundamentally causal in nature. Testing these causal relationships in the field would be problematic because it would generate correlational, and not causal, evidence. Furthermore, in the field, occurring visions would not be as neatly aligned with goals as in our experiments, making the interpretation rather difficult. Moreover, BI and trust are rather broad concepts not only reserved for the workforce. Therefore, in our view the perception of BI in the university setting or simulated in the vignette can be representatively evaluated by students. Nevertheless, a replication in the field is desirable.

Contextual factors might restrain the ability to generalize the results. The alignment between visions and goals and BI might play different roles in different contexts. On the one hand, BI seemed to be universally good in prior studies, on the other hand there are contexts or leader behaviors which are not related to values or deeper meaning and which consequently might not influence followers' perception of BI. For jobs where the goals are narrowly defined an alignment with the vision might be less important compared to creative jobs where visions would play a greater role. It should be reconsidered for which organizations or branches the occurrence of vision-goal alignment might be influenced and therefore deliberately applied to boost followers' motivation. Thus, in future studies the context should be differentiated more precisely.

#### **3.12.4. Future research**

The findings of this research project may generate new research questions. Future research should aim to replicate our results in the field thereby accounting for two issues. First, to what extent do followers perceive BI (due to vision communication) in the field? In essence this is an investigation of effect size. Therefore, one could also take the degree or consistency of alignment into account: how much alignment is needed for BI perceptions to be affected? How

much misalignment can be suffered before BI drops (and this may not be much)? Second, and related, the time component of this mechanism can be captured. Therefore, longer sequences of goal setting should be observed allowing to investigate the dynamics behind these two processes (Shamir, 2011). How long can the effects of visions be perceived, for example, is crucial to understand how long a leader can build BI. When should a vision be “refreshed”? How long does it take that BI evolves, turns into trust and finally increases performance?

The effects we found were entirely on individual level, while particularly the effects of visions are normally seen on a team level as they provide a goal for a collective (Stam et al., 2010). We expect alignment of visions and goals to have positive effects also at the team level. However, we also expect to find unique mediators and moderators of this effect at that level. Issues that might influence the effect of alignment at the team level could include: team cohesion and team diversity, goal interdependence, shared mental models (do all team members understand the goals and the visions in the same way?). These aspects might influence if the perception of BI spreads in a team proliferating in an affirmative mechanism or be rather inhibited due to ambiguous perceptions. For instance, one could imagine that narratives of misalignment (true or not) may spread in an organization and undermine the perceptions of BI of a leader. Related to this aspect is the notion of multi-leader systems: A CEO can align visioning and goal setting, yet unless lower level leaders align their goals to the CEO’s vision organizational members may not perceive BI. Thus, in organizations, between leader alignments may be an important topic for future research.

A final stream of future research, based on the current findings, relates to the conditions under which alignment may be more or less influential in shaping perceptions of BI and effectiveness: An investigation of moderators. One type of moderator could be related to control on the part of the leader. That is, to the extent that a leader does not exert control over the goals

that he/she sets for followers, misalignment may not become strongly related to perceptions of BI given that the locus of control lies elsewhere and the leader may not be to blame. Another type of moderator may be related to providing explanations (and even excuses) for the misalignment between visions and goals if these are experienced by followers (Leroy et al., 2012; Simons, 2008). Specifically, the alignment between visions and goals may exist, but given that it is the perceived alignment that matters it may matter to what extent the alignment is communicated explicitly to followers. A more specific treatment of alignment may lead to clearer connections between visions and goals and thus, stronger effects of existing alignment. It may also obscure misalignment though. Future research could shed light on these issues.

### **3.13. Conclusion**

In organizations visioning and goal-setting are not independent but go hand in hand: While the effects of visions are at work different goals come in and become more or less salient. Thus, we aimed for an integrative approach of the two well researched motivational theories – vision communication and goal setting. The interactive effect of vision and goal alignment concerning the communicated content led to higher leaders' effectiveness in stimulating followers' performance. The explanation via perceived BI and trust was supported. As alignment seems to be a powerful tool to boost motivation of followers, we encourage further studies, in particular longitudinal field studies, to rely on an integrative concept of vision and goal communication.

## **4. Study 3: How Do Leaders Experience The Acts Of Their Followers? Two Diary Studies On Follower Behavior And Affect**

### **4.1. Introduction**

Happy and productive workers are a crucial ingredient for successful organizations. Indeed, research has extensively investigated how to increase happiness and well-being of one crucial part of the workforce: the followers, as they represent the majority at work (Chaleff, 2008; Kelley, 1988). In the research on predictors of follower's well-being leader behavior clearly appeared to yield a critical influence (e.g., Bono et al., 2007; Gooty et al., 2010). But what about leaders themselves? Research has nearly forgone the effects of followers on leaders' well-being. Importantly, the more followers leaders have the more stress they perceive (Lohmann-Haislah, 2012). Therefore, and due to changes in modern view of followers towards an active role in organizations (Baker, 2007), research in recent years turned its focus to followers' influence on leadership. Nowadays companies cannot survive with passive followers just executing orders but expect them to actively strive towards organizational goals proactively (Frese, 2008). Thus, it is important to recognize the role of followers and moreover emphasize and develop their positive impact on leadership outcomes. The book with the catchy title "in Praise of Followers" (Kelly, 1988) gave an impulse to take followership more serious. In the following years it was shown repeatedly that followers who see themselves as partners in a leadership process become active and engage in behaviors that support leadership outcomes (e.g., upward communication)(Agho, 2009; Blom, & Alvesson, 2014; Carsten, & Uhl-Bien, 2015, Chaleff, 2008). Taking up this stream of research, we investigate influence of distinct follower behaviors on leaders' affect on a daily level. The guiding idea is to sum up a comprehensive list of follower behaviors in order to investigate its effects on fluctuating affective states of the leader. To do so this study relied on an

event-based within-person level. Such an approach helps to identify a behavioral mechanism that explains how followers influence leaders and leadership.

Research on follower behavior is rooted in the 1930's (Follett, 1927) but only recently moved into the center of scientific attention. Until now, leader behavior was the main concept of interest and followers solely seemed to be the reactive part such that they are guided by their leader (e.g., Eberly & Fong, 2013; Shamir, 2007). Followers construe leadership as a social concept in their minds relying on implicit theories of leadership (Carsten et al., 2010; Sy, 2010). Due to this view, the role of followers gives sense to the perceived pattern of leader behaviors and identifies them as "leading". Depending on the perception of the followers, they react to leader behavior by showing obedience, subordination, resistance, or proactivity (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). By engaging in such behaviors, followers do (or do not) acknowledge their leader as a leader. For example, leading becomes more pertinent when followers show obedience and in this way they grant the leader his or her position (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). Thus, leadership is not a one-way street but followers are needed to make it salient. Reactive behaviors or attitudes of followers are only part of the picture they also actively approach or influence their leader. Only a few studies dealt with active behaviors, mostly focusing on one or two specific behaviors (Carsten et al., 2010; Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2015). What are the active rather than reactive behaviors followers engage in? What is the full range of following behaviors? Understanding the active role of followers and its effects on leader behavior is essential to develop a comprehensive understanding of leadership (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014).

Some examples of active influence of follower behavior on leader's affect can be found in empirical studies. Displayed affect of followers (Hannah et al., 2008; Hsee et al., 1990; Tee et al., 2013), candid feedback from followers (Oc, Bashshur, & Moore, 2015), and proactive behaviors of followers (Whiting, Maynes, Podsakoff, & Podsakoff, 2012) can influence affective reactions

of the leader. Although this research has yielded important insights into followers' impact on leaders' affective states, it remains a disorganized picture of followership. Most studies focus on a few selected behaviors investigating the relationship with an outcome of interest. So far, a full range of follower behaviors has not been suggested. Inspired by the MPS (Yukl & Lepsinger, 1990) we seek to find a comparable comprehensive categorization for follower behavior. A full range of behaviors would allow for comprehensive theory-building on followership and advance the process-oriented followership research (Agho, 2009). Thus, one aim of this paper is to contribute to a more comprehensive picture of follower behavior (Study 3.1). Building on this insight, a behavioral mechanism of followers' influence on their leaders' affect is suggested and investigated. This mechanism bases on the AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) suggesting to conceptualize follower behavior as an event impacting leaders' affective reactions (Study 3.2).

The results of two diary studies will contribute to the literature on followership and leadership in at least three ways: (1) By exploring distinct behaviors of followers in leader-follower interactions through a qualitative assessment, a more complete range of follower behaviors can be identified. Qualitative methods allow a more exhaustive investigation when the theory does not provide enough information. Discovering possible follower behaviors is a necessary step for advance theory-building of the active followership. (2) By treating follower behaviors as affective events, the study uncovers followers as a source of affect for leaders and therefore an important antecedent of leader well-being. At the same time we advance the AET by adding follower behavior as possible affective event. (3) The developed checklist of behaviors provides one possible measurement tool for follower behavior.

#### **4.2. Affective Events Theory in Followership**

The AET is understood as a "macrostructure" (Weiss & Beal, 2005), suggesting how the occurrence of affective work events influences important work-related outcomes such as job

satisfaction. Events are defined as distinguishable units of activity, occurring at a specific time and location, and having a perceptible beginning and end (Zacks et al., 2001). Affective events are events evoking an affective reaction. Affect is a frequently changing and short-lived state (Beal & Ghandour, 2011) appearing and subsiding quickly (Sonnentag, 2015; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). These frequent changes of affect occur most likely as reactions to affective work events. Affect in organizational research is often defined in terms of the circumplex model of affect (Russell, 1980). This model describes affective experiences in a two-dimensional structure comprising pleasure (i.e., affect valence) and activation (i.e., arousal) and is less specific than emotions. It is seen interchangeably with affective well-being throughout the literature (i.e., Sonnentag, 2015) and in this paper.

Following the descriptions in the prior paragraph, follower behavior can be seen as an affective event a leader experiences. For example, when followers voice good ideas to improve work conditions that might make their leader happy. Therefore, follower behaviors in leader-follower-interactions can be conceptualized as affective events and as proximal causes for leaders' affect. Empirically, followers who qualify as active colleagues of the leader are related to more positive affect of their leader whereas followers who qualify as passive followers are associated with negative affect of the leader (Schneider, Gardner, Hinojosa, & Marin, 2014). Although Schneider and colleagues used a between-person approach, their study gives an idea of how the "activeness" of follower behavior could lead to affect. Affective reactions in turn influence job satisfaction and the behavior of the reacting person. Furthermore, affect at the workplace can influence performance, decision making, and mental health (e.g., Rajah, Song, & Arvey, 2011; Montano et al., 2017; Brief & Weiss, 2002). In sum, we assume that distinct follower behaviors, seen as affective events, are suitable to test the AET. They can be proximal causes for affect and distal cause for job satisfaction.



Event approaches, like the AET, compare outcomes that occur within an individual due to experienced events instead of comparing outcomes between individuals (Hoffman & Lord, 2013). To capture event-level data a within-person design with several measurements is useful as adopted in diary studies. Diary studies are able to capture concrete follower behaviors, as well as the fluctuating nature of leaders' affect (Beal & Ghandour, 2011; Morgeson et al., 2015; Ohly et al., 2010; Hoffmann & Lord, 2013) and are, therefore, the most appropriate method to answer our research questions.

### **4.3. Followers and Following**

Followership refers to the nature and impact of followers' characteristics and behaviors in the leadership process. Importantly, this definition does not include every behavior of a subordinate but only those concerning the leadership process (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). The boundaries might be blurred and are not intensely investigated yet. To understand followership it is necessary to take a closer look on how follower behavior is executed.

Recently, new insights appeared on how followers view leaders and themselves in the leadership process (Blom & Alvesson, 2014; Carsten et al., 2010; Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2015). Indeed, followers' beliefs of their role in the leadership process can predict their behavior. For example, followers with a high belief in coproduction of leadership engage in more "upward communication" (Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2015). According to such approaches, follower behavior is the enactment of their belief, role, or perspective (Carsten et al., 2010) – follower behaviors are thus, conceptualized as *outcomes* of followers' beliefs.

Further studies deal with explicit follower behaviors such as voice (Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2015), proactive behavior (Bindl & Parker, 2010) or giving feedback (Oc et al., 2015) as antecedents of perceived effectiveness. Studies on these behaviors provide insight about the effects of followers executing these behaviors in comparison to followers not executing these

behaviors. Thus, concrete follower behaviors are seen as *predictors* for organizational outcomes at the *between-subject level*.

### **Study 3.1: Development of the taxonomy of affective follower behavior**

#### **4.4. Introduction study 3.1**

Research needs to shift the focus onto followers and their behavior in order to progress in building theory of followership (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). The aim of the first study was to explore typical behaviors of followers during a work week and to find an appropriate categorization system. To do so, we combined explorative qualitative research based on the behaviors deduced from the literature and empirical data. Thus, the guiding question for the qualitative study is:

*Research Question 1:* What are the behaviors followers typically show in leader-follower interactions?

First, an intensive literature search was conducted, mainly inspired by the suggestions made in Uhl-Bien and colleagues' (2014) review on followership including follower behavior as one central component. The aim was to find the literature on distinct follower behavior and include the behavior in the categorization. For each study identified in the literature search, follower behavior was included in the categorization, when the behavior was conceptualized in line with the definition of following (i.e., impact of follower behaviors in the leadership process). When in the identified study the behavior of interest was labeled as "subordinate behavior" or "employee behavior", its suitability for the categorization was judged upon its fit to the definition of follower behavior. After all behaviors were collected, a straightforward list was created by merging similar behaviors to one category. This categorization was planned to match and to be completed with empirical data. In the following, we list the follower behaviors deduced from the literature. For extra-role behaviors and behaviors where followers contacted leader most

differentiations could be found. As it seemed uncertain if such differentiations could be observed in the empirical data they serve as subcategories. With the intention of differentiating behaviors in a subcategory when the report of the behavior contained enough details to do so. The following list does not claim completeness and its extension is one major subject of Study 3.1.

**Executing task.** Followers accomplish work tasks and pursue the goals a leader set. Being productive is a way to show obedience and fulfill the expectations of leaders (Collinson, 2006). Executing task is what followers do most of the time as the main activity of their classic role (Baker, 2007).

Next follow the three behaviors of the main-category “Extra-role behavior”.

**Voice.** Voice as well as upward communication, are part of proactive behavior (Bindl & Parker, 2010; Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2015) and gained particular attention in the literature. In general, voice is defined as a behavior of followers speaking up to communicate ideas to their leader. Such active initiative taking or proactivity is a crucial aspect of performance (Frese, 2008; Grant & Ashford, 2008). One approach is to see “proactivity as a self-directed way of behaving (or process) that involves thinking ahead to take charge of a situation and to bring about change in that situation or in one’s self” (Bindl & Parker, 2010, p. 575). Voice is one way to show proactivity.

**Feedback seeking.** Feedback seeking is also a proactive behavior (Bindl & Parker, 2010). It refers to obtaining information depending on the motive, the context, and the timing of the feedback seeking.

**OCB.** OCB has been defined as “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization” (Organ, 1988, 4). It includes supporting colleagues and the organization in general.

Next follow the three behaviors of the main-category “Contacting the leader”.

**Upward delegation.** Delegation refers to the behavior of transferring problem solving or decisions to someone else. “Upward” refers to followers delegating actions and decisions to leaders (Carsten et al., 2010; Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2015).

**Demanding support.** Demanding managerial leadership refers to an active request of the follower for support (Blom & Alvesson, 2014). It is a behavior triggered by certain contextual characteristics. Hereby the followers demand the leader to perform an act of management (Yukl & Lepsinger, 1990), namely plan, clarify, or resolve a work-related issue.

**Impression management.** Impression management (Collinson, 2006) refers to behaviors like ingratiation and self-promotion which aim to enhance or create a positive impression in front of the leader and being seen more favorably. These behaviors can be focused on the communication towards the leader or on the job task and the performance of the follower.

Other behaviors are:

**Counterproductive work behavior (CWB).** CWB summarizes all behaviors of followers intentionally harming the leader or the organization. It can be openly displayed as aggression or theft or rather passively and includes many distinct behaviors (see Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001).

**Resistance.** Resistance derives from the idea that followers might not follow leaders’ instructions (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). It is a non-conforming reaction to leaders’ downward influence (Falbe & Yukl, 1992). Resistance might be constructive (Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2015) or dysfunctional (Tepper et al., 2006) but in both types refers to a non-obedient behavior (Collinson, 2006).

The categorization resulting from the first study should be comprehensible for participants and external observers or raters to be used in further studies as a checklist. Consequently, the relevant criterion for inclusion of behavioral categories was that they are

clearly distinguishable from one another while keeping the list as short as possible. The established categories should not include affective components in their definition to exclude confounding effects with affective reactions on the leaders' side. In contrast, these categories should represent what followers actually do. Therefore, the empirical insight was necessary as the literature on distinct follower behaviors is scarce and does not provide a full overview of follower behavior and its frequency or probability to occur.

#### **4.5. Methods**

##### **4.5.1. Participants**

In the first study, 41 leaders reported on daily interactions with followers on 10 consecutive work days. Leaders were defined as individuals who are authorized to give instructions and/ or issue directives to at least one other individual in order to influence and facilitate individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives (Yukl, 2012). It was not necessarily bound to an explicit position in the organization. Student assistants recruited potential participants in a variety of organizations in Germany. Specifically, a flyer explaining the study procedure, inclusion criteria, assuring confidentiality of all responses, and containing the link to the study was distributed on social platforms.

Seventy-three percent of leaders were men. Participants' average age was 42 years old ( $SD = 12.06$ ), and 54% had an academic degree. The leader chose up to three followers to report on during the study resulting in 100 followers. In total, 341 interactive events were reported.

##### **4.5.2. Procedure**

In a baseline online questionnaire leaders provided demographic information and the codes as well as demographics for the three followers they decided to report on. They started the 10-day online diary as soon as they submitted the baseline questionnaire. They received a reminder to fill in the diary before leaving work every day. For each diary entry, participants first

had to check if they had any kind of interaction with any of the three selected followers on that day. If they answered “no” the diary report ended for that day. If participants answered “yes”, they were required to insert the follower-code of the respective follower they had interacted with and briefly describe the interactive event. The instruction encouraged participants to choose a random event and report it in some detail for an external reader: “*Did you interact with one of the three followers you decided to report on? It might have been a usual daily interaction or something extraordinary. You can report a face-to-face interaction as well as a phone call or written communication.*” In this way a variety of possible events, significant ones, novel ones, unique occurrences as well as routine occurrences, was expected.

#### **4.5.3. Measures**

***Demographics.*** Age, gender, and education of the leader and the 1-3 chosen followers were captured in the baseline questionnaire with one item each.

***Events in the diary.*** All open diary reports were categorized using two different techniques based on Mayring’s content analysis (2010): First, the reports were matched with the theoretically deduced categories described above (deductive category development). Second, the events which did not fit into these deduced categories were inductively assigned to new categories (inductive category development). As suggested by Mayring (2010), the rater started with broad categories and increased level of precision step by step. Two independent raters followed these two steps and discussed the results. Afterwards, they set up a categorization system with comprehensive descriptions and examples. Two further independent raters categorized all events after reading the categorization description. The inter-rater reliability was Cohen’s Kappa = .896, indicating a good agreement (Cohen, 1960) and therefore an appropriate and reliable categorization system.

#### 4.6. Results

Altogether 341 leader-follower interactions (events) were reported as shown in Table 13. To create the checklist of follower behaviors the events were assigned to the theoretically deduced behavior categories. In case of unsuitability, they were assigned to a newly created category. The reported interactions pertained to *follower behaviors* (28%), *leader behaviors* (12%), *interactions* (54%) and *not identifiable behaviors* (6%). *Interactions* referred to events where both leader and follower were involved but it could not be distinguished who was the main actor (e.g., “Today we worked together on a report”). *Not identifiable behaviors* included reports where the descriptions were too imprecise to permit any categorization (e.g., “had a phone call”).

Analysis of the behaviors revealed in total 14 main categories while 7 were actual *follower behaviors* categories. For more examples see Appendix D. *Extra-role behavior* and *contacting the leader* could be differentiated further as presented in the theory section. In some cases, the reports were precise enough that the rater could categorize them in one of the broad categories (e.g., *Contacting the leader*) but not differentiate them further (e.g., “My follower asks me for information on travelling cost-support”). This is why the broad categories contain a higher number of events than the sum of the events in the differentiated categories.

The main category *executing task* comprised 9% of the reported behaviors. The second main category *contacting the leader* (7%) was comprised of the behaviors *upward delegation* (1%), *demanding support* (3%) and a newly created subcategory *expressing opinion* (complaining about or recognizing job-related aspects, 1%). The third main category was *extra-role behavior* (5%), containing the proactive behaviors *voice* (3%) and *feedback seeking* (< 1%)

Table 13

*Frequencies of reported events*

Actor	Main Category	Differentiation	Example	Freq.
Follower behavior	Executing task		„My follower accomplished a challenging task“	43
	Extra-role behavior			20
Contacting the leader	Voice	Feedback seeking	„My follower suggested an idea for improvement“ „My follower ask me how he can learn how to manage projects as good as I do“	12
		Organizational citizenship behavior	„My follower cared for the waiting customer and helped me as I could not meet my obligations fast enough“	6
	Upward delegation		„My follower asked me to find a substitute because he wants to have a day off“	4
		Demanding support	„My follower asked me for advice concerning a new case“	10
	Expressing opinion	„My follower complained about the behavior of a colleague“	4	
	Impression management			0
Resistance			0	
CWB	Conflict management		„My follower disregarded the dress code“	4
			„My follower and me clarified a responsibility questions“	3
Leader behavior	Monitoring/giving feedback		„I explained to my follower how to behave when working at the help desk“	13
			„I gave my follower several new tasks for the week“	28
Interaction of both	Meeting		„We met to discuss a new request“	83
	Working together		„We worked together on the forecast for the customer“	60
Not ident.	Long-term planning		„Discussing the error-management until the end of the year“	9
	Organizing		„We had to organize a workshop for the section X together“	30
	Socializing		„During lunch my follower told me that his wife is pregnant“	3
Not ident.				19

*Notes:* N= 41; in sum 341 reported events. Freq. = Frequency; Not ident. = Not identifiable behavior.

Some events were only allocated to main categories as they could not be further differentiated. This is why the summed differentiations do not equal the frequency of the main category. The examples are translated roughly from German.



and *OCB* (2%) towards leaders or coworkers. *CWB* (1%) and newly-induced *conflict management* (doing reconciliation efforts after conflicts, 1%) occurred rather infrequently. *Impression management* and *resistance* were not observed.

The remaining reports were summed in *interactions* containing *meetings* (22%), *working together* (16%), *long-term planning and organizing* (10%) and *socializing* (1%). Lastly, some behaviors were categorized as leaders' own behavior and formed two other main categories, namely *setting goal* (7%), *monitoring the follower (and) giving feedback* (5%).

To finalize the checklist of follower behaviors with categories (1) as distinct as possible, enabling a definite assignment of observed behaviors, (2) without affective components and (3) short at the same time, the categorization was further evaluated and discussed. To achieve this goal, some minor changes had to be done as shown in Table 14. In the executing task category some reports referred to submitting a task or reaching a goal – as expected – but others referred to fixing an error or problem, thus, *problem solving* was added to the categorization as a relevant follower behavior. The new category aims to differentiate more strongly the different types of *executing task* behaviors. Both were considered as differentiation of the new broad category *typical work behavior*. *Participating in decision making* was added as an additional form of extra-role behavior based on the suggestion of several experts. In the literature on leadership participations refers to the integration of the professional knowledge of followers by consulting their opinion (Kriegesmann & Striewe, 2009). There is no clear definition of participation. In this study this category broadly included any kind of partaking or consulting in a decision process of the follower without an objective power increase (Heller, 2003). These steps served to improve the distinctiveness aspect (1).

When examining the categories for the affective tone (2), all categories except for *CWB* appeared satisfactory neutral. Due the results of study 1, *CWB* is rarely perceived.

Table 14  
*Description of the final event categories of follower behavior*

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Event name	Description
Typical work behavior	
Executing task	Follower accomplishes a task/achieves an objective.
Problem solving	The follower solves a problem that is related to tasks/objectives or the organization of a project/task.
Planning and organizing	The follower plans or organizes the further proceeding, an event, work schedules (incl. holiday planning).
Extra-role behavior	
Voice	The follower expresses a need for change. He or she develops suggestions for improvement and articulates them.
Feedback seeking	The follower shows willingness to learn, deals positively with criticism, seeks feedback /development opportunities.
Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB)	The follower shows prosocial behavior and acts considerately, patiently, shows empathy and support if someone is overstrained, sad or anxious.
Participating /deciding	The follower participates in personnel/management decisions or advises the leader.
Contacting the leader	
Upward delegation	The follower demands a decision or action by the leader.
Demanding support	The follower asks the leader for help, guidance or advice.
Expressing opinion	The follower shares his/her opinion on an issue, a task or circumstances at work.
Other behaviors	
Impression management	The follower emphasizes his strengths, good performance or other positive aspects of him/herself.
Resistance	The follower refuses to perform/fulfill a task or to provide support/give advice.
Receiving feedback or instructions	The follower actively listens while receiving information, feedback or instructions for a task from the leader.
Socializing	The follower talks with the leader about personal/non-work-related issues or conducts non-work-related activities.
Conflict management	The follower contributes to a conflict being resolved, deteriorated or disregarded by (not) seeking reconciliation or ignoring the conflict.
Others	Here the participant could write another behavior that did not match any category suggested.

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Yet, when perceived, CWB is most likely related to negative affect as it contains clearly damaging and bad behaviors. Therefore, we excluded CWB from the categories.

Furthermore, the categories which were not linked to follower behavior were reconsidered in terms of their content. As a result, the frequently reported leader behavior *giving feedback* was conceptualized as *receiving information or feedback*. This behavior overlaps largely with the literature on listening (e.g., Lloyd, Boer, Kluger, & Voelpel, 2015). In the interactions group *planning and organizing* was a relevant new behavior in line with the MPS (Yukl & Lepsinger, 1990). Planning and organizing can be done by leaders but due to the reports of this study it is often done together with a follower (e.g., “we planned the next meeting together”). This behavior was also added, due to its frequent occurrence, in the broad category *typical work behavior*. Finally, leaders often reported to “have a chat” or “go for lunch” with their follower. Therefore, the not work-related interaction *socializing* was added to the categorization referring to Oh, Chung, and Labianca (2004) description of this behavior. The steps served mainly the distinctiveness (1) and shortness (3) of the category system.

#### **4.7. Brief discussion of study 3.1**

The first study showed that different daily interactions with followers could be captured in daily work life. Most interactions were in line with literature (e.g., *OCB* or *voice*), but also some new categories arose and were added to the categorization of follower behavior (e.g., *socializing*). To answer the research question (*RQ 1*) the followers were typically engaged into working together, organizing, or executing their task. Extra-role behaviors and contacting the leader – behaviors research has typically focused on – occurred less frequently. From leaders’ perspective followers mostly just do their job and infrequently engage in extra-role behavior, contact the leader, or engage in other specific behaviors.

The main contribution of the first study is the development of an advanced categorization system of follower behaviors and insights into the frequency of their occurrence. Due to the fact that these results are a first explorative insight based on an evaluator's judgment of daily follower behaviors, the categorization could contain a certain amount of subjectivity. Furthermore, the events captured depend on the sample at hand. The frequency of certain events might be generalizable from a high educated sample to other groups. Thus, a further validation of the categorization is necessary which is addressed in the second study.

Moreover, the open reports often included an evaluative component (e.g., executing task deficiently, such as “For incomprehensible reasons he did the service with mistakes”). These insights fostered the motivation to investigate the impact of follower behavior on leaders’ affect. Furthermore, such reports indicated that there are at least two components in an event responsible for the overall evaluation: What the follower has actually done (e.g., *executing task*) and how he or she has done it (e.g., *deficiently*). Consequently, to understand the impact of followers on leaders the next study aimed to disentangle the impact of follower behavior and the perceived nature of follower behavior on leader affect. As a consequence, for the new study the evaluation of the “nature of behavior” was captured additionally. Consequently, follower behaviors were divided into a behavioral and an evaluative component. The second study aimed to examine this newly developed concept of events and their impact on leaders’ affect.

## **Study 3.2: Follower behavior and leader well-being**

### **4.8. Introduction study 3.2**

The second study focused on the actual impact of distinct follower behaviors on leaders' affect and job satisfaction. The analyses aimed to validate the checklist of follower behaviors as relevant for affect and investigate the moderating influence of the nature of behaviors. In the following, the expected effects of daily leader behaviors and the nature of these behaviors are explained and the hypotheses are developed.

#### **4.8.1. Leader affect and leader job satisfaction**

Due to the AET affective reactions result in a general job satisfaction. Individuals who perceived higher levels of positive affect at work during a time retrospectively tend to evaluate that their job is satisfactory. Therefore, positive affect during work events tend to relate to positive job evaluations, namely high job satisfaction. Empirically, daily positive affect has been linked to higher levels of job satisfaction at the end of the week (Bono et al., 2007; Dimotakis et al., 2011; Wegge et al., 2006; Weiss et al., 1999). Although prior studies did not focus on leaders specifically, the argument seems to be pertinent for a representative part of the workforce. Thus, we assume that more positive affect of a leader during the week (due to follower behavior) results in higher job satisfaction of the leader at the end of the week.

*Hypothesis 1:* More daily positive affect of a leader during the week is related to higher job satisfaction of the leader at the end of the week.

#### **4.8.2. Follower behavior and leader affect**

The best examined mechanism for the relationship of followers and leaders' affect is "emotional contagion" (Hannah, et al., 2008; Hsee et al., 1990; Tee et al., 2013). Emotional contagion is an unconscious process of mood matching, which manipulates every social

interaction and therefore also the leader-follower interaction in a work related environment (e.g., a follower is happy and smiles which makes the leader smile, too). Hsee and colleagues (1990) were the first showing that individuals with less power (e.g., followers) can affect those with more power (e.g., leaders) by emotional contagion. Furthermore, displayed emotions of the follower can influence task performance through the transferal of affect (Tee et al., 2013). Yet, we assume, that a further behavioral mechanism of followers' impact on leaders' affect exists. This assumption is supported in the open reports of the first study. In addition to that, theoretically the AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) suggests events as a source of affect, which could be conceptualized as distinct follower behaviors (see, section 4.2.).

For distinct behaviors some associations off leader behavior with affective states can be deduced from prior research but have not been explicitly captured in that way yet. For example, proactive behavior has an impact on the evaluation and liking of followers (Burriss, 2012; Whiting et al., 2012), but no insight on a direct affective reaction to that behavior exists. Nevertheless, it comes naturally to mind that *liking* – as a reaction to a behavior – has an affective component and might go in line with positive affect as a result of the proactive behavior. In the following, the assumptions for the relationships of every single follower behavior of the newly created checklist and leaders' affect are developed.

***Executing task, planning and organizing, and problem solving.*** In Scherer's theoretical approach to emotions, goal conduciveness was linked to positive emotions (Scherer, 1988) which has been confirmed in several studies ever since (e.g., Kreibig, Gendolla, & Scherer, 2012; van Reekum et al., 2004). Executing task, planning and organizing, and problem solving, in the sense of this study, represent goal conducive behaviors. The follower acts towards the goal the leader (or organization) has set. Therefore, these work behaviors are likely to be positively evaluated by leaders and evoke positive affective reactions.

**Voice.** The reaction to voice depends on its content characteristics (challenging vs. supportive) as well as on contextual or personal factors. Voice might be evaluated as positive because it is perceived as a sign of loyalty and trustworthiness and leads to liking of the follower (Burriss, 2012; Whiting et al., 2012). However, leaders do not always perceive proactive behaviors, such as voice, favorably. Depending on the appropriateness (e.g., the situational judgment) of such behavior and the personality of the leader (Fuller, Marler, Hester, & Otondo, 2015) they can perceive it as unfavorable (Benson, Hardy, & Eys, 2016; Bindl & Parker, 2010; Bolino, Valcea, and Harvey, 2010). Because proactive behaviors are anticipatory and enacted out of one's own volition (Grant & Ashford, 2008) leaders may interpret them as rebellious and a threat to their authority (Burriss, 2012; Fuller et al., 2015; Bolino et al., 2010). As the appropriateness is not captured in this study, we expect mixed outcomes of the proactive behavior categories (Voice and feedback seeking) and no clear association with leader affect.

**Feedback seeking.** This behavior facilitates goal attainment, helps to build a correct view of oneself and maintain one's image (Ashford, Blatt, & Walle, 2003). Feedback-seeking was linked to higher performance ratings of the follower (Morrison, 1993) but effects on the feedback-giver were not investigated. Ambiguity as in case of voice is therefore expected.

**OCB.** OCB includes supporting colleagues and the organization in general and has been proven to enhance performance evaluations (Dulebohn, Shore, Kunze, & Dookeran, 2005). OCB has been shown to relate to job satisfaction (Bateman & Organ, 1983). The more OCB a coworker shows, the more satisfied his or her fellow is with the job (Tepper, Duffy, Hoobler, & Ensley, 2004). This relationship was also confirmed between teachers' OCB and their pupils' positive emotions (Oplatka, 2009). Thus, also for leader-follower interactions it is likely that followers' OCB is related to more positive affect of the leader.

**Participation.** Participation refers to followers' involvement in decision making processes. While several positive outcomes for followers have been investigated (e.g., less stress and higher job satisfaction; Wagner & Gooding, 1987) no study to date examined the outcomes for leaders. Due to the fact that leaders might see participation as a sign of engagement and involvement (Heller, 2003) of the follower and it is supposed to help the leader (e.g., by sharing expertise), it might relate to the leader's positive affect.

**Upward delegation.** These behaviors reflect a demand of the follower for an action or a decision he or she cannot or does not want to take on him or herself. This behavior increases the workload of a leader by being interruptive, increasing the leader's time constraints, and managing different tasks simultaneously (Lohmann-Haislah, 2012) leading to perceived stress and more negative affect (Ilies et al., 2007).

**Demanding support.** Demanding support might influence affect when perceived as a competence ascription of the follower. Self-perception and positive affect increase when leaders feel competent (Wojciszke, 2005). Thus, when followers ask for support they might imply seeing the leader as a competent supplier of support, which in turn makes the leader experience positive affect.

**Expressing opinion.** This category was based on the reports of Study 3.1 where followers expressed their opinion without a specific aim (in contrast to *voice*). For instance, followers commented on events or situations or complained about colleagues or circumstances. Expressing opinion should not be strongly affective and its effect should depend on the content expressed. For example, when the expressed opinion is candid it might have a positive effect (Oc et al., 2015) while not justified criticism might be taken badly. Thus, no association with affect is expected of the mere behavior of expressing opinion.



***Impression management.*** In prior research, impression management behaviors led to higher performance ratings mediated by liking and positive affect and liking towards the follower or reward behavior of the leader (Dulebohn et al., 2005; Wayne & Liden, 1995). Therefore, impression management as for example “voicing strengths” might have a positive impact on leaders’ affect.

***Resistance.*** Leaders’ evaluation of resistance depends on the relationship with the follower and the way the resistance is shown (Tepper et al., 2006). Leaders evaluate followers more favorably if the quality of LMX is good and followers negotiate their resistance. Yet, this is only one explicit circumstance in which resistance is accepted. Most of the time, it is perceived as disobedient, negative and threatening from leader’s perspective. Thus, overall, a negative effect of resistance on leaders’ affect is expected.

***Receiving information.*** Receiving information refers to the follower listening to information or feedback provided by their leader. Listening has been shown to affect speakers positively depending on its perceived quality of listening (attentive, without interruption) in non-work contexts (Bodie, Cyr, Pence, Rold, & Honeycutt, 2012). Specifically, high quality listening increases emotional well-being (Lloyd et al., 2015) via role clarity (i.e. the leader perceives followers as caring for his or her instructions). Thus, high quality listening or attentive and active listening (Bodie et al., 2012) should positively influence leaders’ affect.

***Socializing.*** Socializing includes all non-work-related interactions between leaders and followers such as having lunch together or small talk about the weekend. The aim of such behavior might be networking or relationship building (Thompson, 2005) or it is just about spending a private moment together or relaxing (what we could read in the open reports of Study 3.1). When comparing work activities with free-time activities *socializing at work* was the only work activity resulting in happiness levels as high as during free-time activities (Bryson &

MacKerron, 2017). All other work activities were not associated with happiness. Thus, socializing at work with followers is expected to increase positive affect of the leader.

***Conflict management.*** Conflict management refers to all forms of dealing with an interpersonal conflict, from actively resolving it to just ignoring or denying it. As a result, the effects of this behavior strongly depend on how conflict management is executed. No direct effect on leaders' affect is expected.

Summing up the assumptions about the relationship of follower behaviors and leaders' affect, the following hypotheses can be derived from the literature:

*Hypothesis 2a:* Executing task, OCB, demanding support, participation, impression management and socializing relate to more positive affect and less negative affect of the leader.

*Hypothesis 2b:* Resistance and upward delegation relate to less positive affect and more negative affect of the leader.

*Assumption 1:* Feedback seeking, voice, receiving information, expressing opinion and conflict management are not expected to relate directly with the affect of the leader.

These behaviors (Assumption 1) will only relate to affect when the nature of their execution is taken into account as explained in the next section.

#### **4.8.3. Nature of follower behavior as moderator**

The followership literature shows that leaders' effectiveness depends, among others, on the followership style, the way *how* followers behave. Follower typologies were developed to differentiate how followers might behave (Kellerman, 2007; Kelley, 2008; Zaleznik, 1965). Therefore, typical follower behaviors were observed and clustered in types. For example, active

non-threatening, team players seeking to avoid conflict are called “yes-people” (Kelly, 2008). To create these clusters followers are categorized on mostly two axes providing four clusters. Some types are claimed as more effective than others: For example, “Star followers” are most effective as they are highly active and highly challenging (Chaleff, 2008; Kelly, 2008). Yet, effectiveness is not well-being. Nonetheless, the important argument in these typologies is that followers can be clustered due to the general attitude they display and which is perceived by the leader. We suggested that this attitude is evaluated by the leader as a result of the perceived nature of the follower behavior, how followers do what they do. Therefore, in the following, a possible impact of the nature of behavior on the relationship of follower behavior and well-being is suggested.

In the current study, the underlying assumption is that the extent to which follower behavior is pronounced on the follower-dimensions influences leader’s affect and further job satisfaction. For leaders’ affect it might matter *how* followers do what they do. The “nature of execution” is important for the outcome on the leaders’ side. Therefore, three different characteristics of the nature of execution are investigated: *passive* versus *active*, *destructive* versus *constructive* and *badly-executing* versus *well-executing*. In the following these characteristics and their functions are explained.

One prevalent nature of follower behavior is its activity level (*passive* versus *active*; Zaleznik, 1965). *Passive* means being rather reluctant, receiving orders, observing instead of doing something, and in this way contributing relatively little to the organization. *Active* refers to followers who initiate action and change and interfere; facilitate the needs and interests of peers, leaders and the organization (Zaleznik, 1965). In the literature, active followers are seen more positively than passive ones as they can move their organizations forward and effectively support their leaders (Kellerman, 2007; Kelley, 1988, 2008; Schneider et al., 2014; Zaleznik, 1965). Yet, the affective component has not been tested in negative behaviors. For example, active

complaining might be detrimental for leaders' affect. Therefore, active (versus passive) nature of follower behavior might have no clear effect on leaders' affect. We expect that the relationship of follower behaviors to leaders' positive and negative affect depend on whether the follower behavior is executed actively as compared to when it is executed passively. Yet, this influence differs depending on the distinct behavior which is executed.

*Assumption 2:* The activity level of the behaviors has an impact on the relationship between follower behavior and affect. This impact differs depending on the behavior.

Another characteristic, which is not named explicitly in the literature, refers to the effectiveness of the behavior, which might be a result of constructive behavior (Chaleff, 2008; Crossman & Crossman, 2011). Chaleff (2008) identified the courage to challenge and the courage to support as two positive dimensions to construe effective followership. Followers who engage in both behaviors think of themselves as partners of the leader assuming that responsibility is shared among follower and leader. As a result of this assumption, such followers contribute to the construction of effective leadership. Effectiveness refers to the result of the behavior, whereas the current study focuses on the nature of the behavior, which might be referred to as "constructive". Constructive behaviors intend to support successful work and the leaders' goals. They aim to facilitate and construe desirable outcomes. Apart from supportive and challenging behaviors, many behaviors can be executed constructively, aiming to help and construe a beneficial result. For example, *participation* is constructive when followers help to take a decision giving their opinion and seeking for a compromise or the best solution for the organization. *Participation* is destructive when followers push through their decisions, notwithstanding the damage for the organization as a whole. Because constructiveness is perceived as positive (Warren, 2003), we hypothesize that follower behaviors, which are executed in a constructive way, are associated

with more positive affect and less negative affect of the leader. Constructiveness is a moderator for the relationship of follower behavior and leaders' affect.

*Hypothesis 3:* Follower behavior is more strongly positively related to leaders' positive affect and more strongly negatively related to leaders' negative affect when the follower behavior is executed constructively as compared to when it is executed destructively.

The final characteristic, "quality of behavior" derives from the empirical observation in Study 3.1 and suggestions made by Amabile et al., (2004). In several behavior-reports of Study 3.1 leaders added that the behavior was performed deficiently or extraordinarily. Even behaviors which were generally constructive might have a negative effect if executed poorly. In prior research on leadership, Amabile et al. (2004) found differentiated effects of the same behavior on perceived leader support depending on whether a good or poor execution of the behavior occurred. For example, *problem solving* is well executed when followers invest all effort and knowledge to solve the problem properly. A poor execution would mean, that followers are careless and do not solve the problem appropriately. This leads to the assumption that the effects of follower behaviors are perceived less favorable when executed poorly in contrast to when executed well. Therefore, we assume that quality of execution is a moderator for the relationship of follower behavior and leader affect.

*Hypothesis 4:* Follower behavior is more strongly positively related to leaders' positive affect and more strongly negatively related to leaders' negative affect when the follower behavior is executed well as compared to when it is executed poorly.

In sum, for several behaviors the nature of the behavior will make a crucial difference and thus, functions as a moderator for the relationship of follower behaviors and leaders' affect.

## **4.9. Methods**

### **4.9.1. Participants**

Student assistants recruited study participants employed in a broad range of jobs in a variety of organizations in Germany. In particular, a flyer was distributed via personal contacts and social networks (e.g., LinkedIn). In addition, local organizations were approached, either via their human resource department or via contact persons. The student assistants introduced the study at the phone or e-mail. As a result, 67 leaders participated in Study 3.2. Leaders reported twice a day on interactions with followers on 5 consecutive work days. The number of reporting days was decreased to minimize the effort of the participants and to increase motivation to participate. Furthermore, the density of reports was higher to decrease selectivity of events and to improve the representativeness of daily work behaviors. Forty-three percent of participants were men. On average, participants were 48 years old ( $SD = 8.7$ ) and most had an academic degree (82.1%). Their average work experience was 18 years ( $SD = 10.7$ ) and they had on average 23 followers ( $SD = 32.3$ ).

### **4.9.2. Procedure**

In an online baseline questionnaire the leaders provided demographic and work related information. They started the 5-day online diary as soon as they submitted the baseline questionnaire. Two e-mails reminded participants to report once in the morning for the first diary entry and later around lunch time for the second diary entry. In the diary, participants first had to state if they had any kind of interaction with one of their followers. If they answered “no”, they were only asked for their momentary affect. If participants answered “yes”, they were required to mark what happened on the checklist developed from the first study. In a second step they evaluated in which nature the follower behaved using a scroll bar. At the end of the diary they

reported their affect. After participants finished all their diary entries, they received a final questionnaire on job satisfaction.

#### **4.9.3. Measures**

*Demographics* were assessed as in Study 3.1.

*Events.* Events were captured in the diary study in two parts: *What* and *How*. For the behavior (*What*) leaders chose one behavior from a checklist that they observed from one of his or her followers. The checklist (translated to English) is displayed in Table 14. To report how they perceived the behavior three scroll bars appeared ranging from very passive (1) to very active (5), very destructive to very constructive and very bad to very good containing all a middle category “neutral” and a sixth category for “not applicable”.

*Affect.* Respondents evaluated the strength of their positive and negative affect after the event occurred by rating eight items on two scales from the Profile of Mood States (POMS) by McNair et al., (1981). The questionnaire was shortened by using only the scales of positive and negative activated affect. The passive affective scales are mostly highly correlated with the active counterpart and are dispensable. The scales should be kept as short as possible to prevent the diminishing of motivation which is a risk when using demanding instruments in daily investigations (Ohly et al., 2010). All four items were rated on a 7-point Likert scale with a satisfactory reliability (Cronbach’s- $\alpha$  (positive affect) = .956,  $\alpha$  (negative affect) = .863). In case leaders did not report any event the instruction changed to: *Please report how you feel right now* (Cronbach’s- $\alpha$  (positive affect) = .937,  $\alpha$  (negative affect) = .875).

*Job satisfaction.* Job satisfaction was captured in the post-questionnaire using a German translation of the Brief Index of Affective Job Satisfaction (Thompson & Phua, 2012). Participants rated four items on a 5-point-likert-scale (*totally disagree* to *totally agree*) regarding

how satisfied they were. An example item is “*I am quite satisfied with my job*”. Cronbach’s- $\alpha$  was .927).

#### 4.10. Results

##### 4.10.1. Preliminary analyses

In Table 15, descriptive statistics for level 1 (daily level) measures are displayed and level 2 (individual level) in Table 16 respectively. In this sample, leaders perceived the behavior of their followers as rather active ( $M = 4.26$ ,  $SD = 0.90$ ), constructive ( $M = 4.26$ ,  $SD = 0.86$ ) and well performed ( $M = 4.16$ ,  $SD = 0.92$ ). All these natures of behavior were significantly related to positive affect and negative affect as can be seen in Table 3.

Table 15

*Means, standard deviations, b-coefficients and standard errors of level 1 data*

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Positive affect with contact	5.90	1.13	1						
2 Negative affect with contact	3.41	1.10	-0.57 (0.05)	1					
3 Positive affect no contact	5.37	1.17	-	-	1				
4 Negative affect no contact	3.53	1.04	-	-	-0.67 (0.15)	1			
5 Passive-Active	4.26	0.90	0.38 (0.05)	-0.24 (0.04)	-	-	1		
6 Destructive-Constructive	4.26	0.86	0.53 (0.49)	-0.38 (0.04)	-	-	0.65 (0.04)	1	
7 Bad-Good	4.16	0.92	0.47 (0.48)	-0.29 (0.04)	-	-	0.58 (0.04)	0.75 (0.04)	1

*Notes:* All results were significant on a  $p < .01$  level. The coefficients are unstandardized b coefficients from bivariate regressions. Standard errors are in parentheses. Regressions with affect without contact cannot be calculated as these categories are mutually exclusive.

Importantly, quality of behavior and constructiveness were highly interrelated indicating that participants could not distinguish these two variables. In the following quality of behavior and constructiveness are treated as two items of the new scale effectiveness (Cronbach’s- $\alpha = .813$ ).



As expected, there is a highly negative correlation between positive and negative weekly average affect ( $r(66) = -.506, p < .001$ ). The more followers leaders have the more positive the affect they experienced ( $r(66) = .24, p < .05$ ). No other meaningful correlations appeared.

Table 16

*Means, standard deviations, and correlations of level 2 data*

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 Gender	1.43	.49								
2 Age	48.22	8.69	.02							
3 Education	6.51	1.26	-.02	.03						
4 Work experience	17.90	10.73	-.03	.74**	-.11					
5 Number of followers	23.36	32.24	.17	.16	-.06	.12				
6 Positive affect	5.84	0.70	.01	.12	-.15	.18	.24*			
7 Negative affect	3.42	0.75	.08	-.05	.17	.01	-.08	-.51**		
8 Job satisfaction <sup>a</sup>	4.14	0.75	-.16	.00	-.01	.09	.14	.39**	-.33**	

Notes:<sup>a</sup> Job satisfaction was captured in a reduced sample ( $N = 63$  leader)

†  $p < .10$ ; \*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$

#### 4.10.2. Hypotheses testing

First we examined whether average daily positive affect was related to leader job satisfaction (H1). A bivariate uncontrolled model revealed that positive affect was positively related to job satisfaction ( $\beta = 0.39, p < .001$ ) and could explain 15% of its variance. Thus, higher average affect during the week is associated with higher job satisfaction at the end of the week. In short, H1 could be confirmed.

For the Hypotheses 2-4 nested data was analyzed using hierarchical linear modeling (HLM 7, Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). The events as predictors were dummy coded and remained uncentered. There was substantial within-person variance for positive (86.8%) and negative affect (65.3%), which allows for within-person analyses (Bliese, 2000).

The relationship between follower behaviors and leaders' affect was examined. Table 17 shows that *OCB* ( $b = 0.64, SE = .35, p < .10$ ) and *impression management* ( $b = 1.66, SE = .98, p < .10$ ) are associated with more positive affect, *expressing opinion* ( $b = -0.34, SE = .18, p < .10$ ), *demanding support* ( $b = -0.32, SE = .16, p < .05$ ), *resistance* ( $b = -1.57, SE = .46, p < .001$ ) and *conflict management* ( $b = -1.64, SE = .60, p < .01$ ) are associated with less positive affect. In addition, the accumulated category *work behavior* ( $b = 0.17, SE = .09, p < .10$ ) was related to more positive affect. *Problem/Error solving* ( $b = 0.23, SE = .11, p < .05$ ), *resistance* ( $b = 1.50, SE = .40, p < .01$ ) and *conflict management* ( $b = 1.49, SE = .52, p < .01$ ) are related to more negative affect and *socializing* ( $b = -0.58, SE = .16, p < .01$ ) to less negative affect.

Summing up, Hypothesis 2 could be supported partly: *OCB* and *impression management* were associated with more positive affect and *socializing* with less negative affect of the leader supporting *H2a*, whereas *resistance* leads to less positive affect and more negative affect supporting *H2b*. Proactive behaviors and *receiving information* were not related to affect when the nature of behavior is disregarded but *conflict management* and *expressing opinion* were in fact related to affect. Overall, distinct follower behavior do relate to leaders affect differing in strength and direction. Finally, the moderation effects were tested by analyzing interaction terms of every nature of follower behavior and every single behavioral category. Table 17 indicates that significant interactions could be found: For positive affect *activity*  $\times$  *receiving information* ( $b = -0.46, SE = .17, p < .01$ ), *effectiveness*  $\times$  *planning and organizing* ( $b = 0.35, SE = .17, p < .05$ ), *effectiveness*  $\times$  *feedback seeking* ( $b = 1.47, SE = .77, p < .10$ ), *effectiveness*  $\times$  *resistance* ( $b = 1.11, SE = .47, p < .01$ ), *effectiveness*  $\times$  *receiving information* ( $b = -0.44, SE = .23, p < .10$ ). For negative affect an interaction effect between *activity* and *upward delegation* was found ( $b = 0.39, SE = .21, p < .10$ ). Only one interaction effect in relation to negative affect was found, namely *effectiveness*  $\times$  *resistance* ( $b = -1.03, SE = .40, p < .01$ ). The summed category *interpersonal*

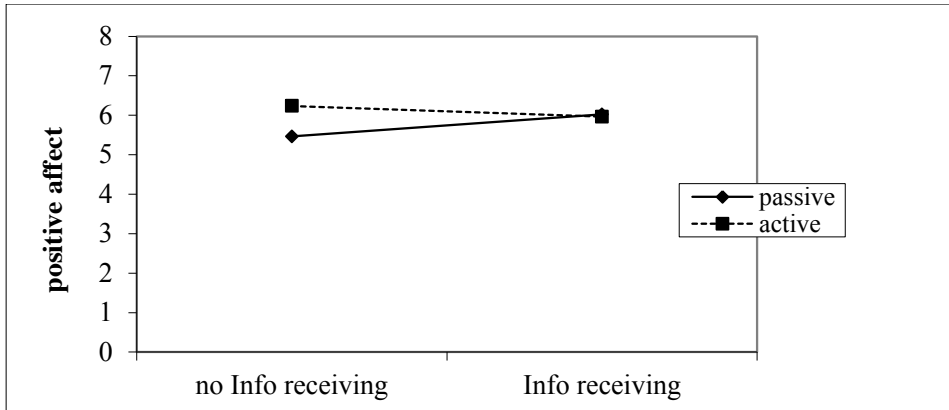
Table 17

*Frequencies of events and unstandardized regression coefficients from events and the interaction effects of events of the moderators activity, constructiveness and quality on affect*

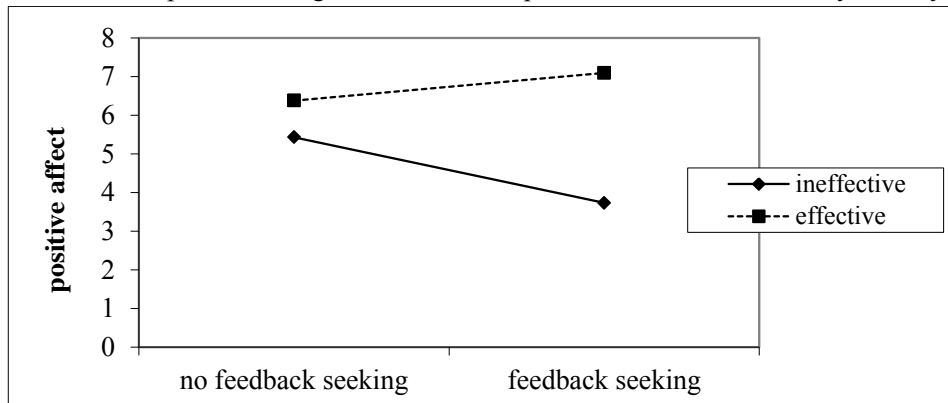
Event	Frequency	Positive affect		Negative affect	
		<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>
Work behavior overall	249	0.17*	.09	0.05	.08
Executing task	93	0.11	.11	-0.03	.10
Problem/Error solving	72	0.02	.13	0.23**	.11
Planning and organizing	84	0.15	.12	-0.10	.11
Extra-role behavior overall	94	-0.04	.11	-0.01	.10
Voice	23	-0.15	.21	0.01	.18
Feedback seeking	12	-0.05	.29	-0.22	.25
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	8	0.64*	.35	-0.31	.31
Participating/Deciding	19	0.31	.23	-0.11	.20
Contacting the leader overall	62	-0.21	.13	0.10	.12
Upward Delegation	20	-0.06	.23	0.09	.20
Demanding support	41	-0.32**	.16	0.12	.14
Expressing opinion	32	-0.34*	.18	0.19	.16
Others					
Impression Management	1	1.66*	.98	-0.39	.86
Resistance	5	-1.57**	.46	1.50**	.40
Receiving information	37	0.18	.17	-0.18	.15
Socializing	32	0.06	.18	-0.58**	.16
Conflict management	3	-1.64**	.60	1.49**	.52
Others	13	-0.12	.28	0.19	.24
Activity × Receiving information		-0.46**	.17	0.13	.15
Constructiveness × Executing task		-.24*	.12	0.13	.11
Constructiveness × Planning and organizing		0.27	.17	0.05	.15
Constructiveness × Upward delegation		-0.29	.23	0.42*	.21
Constructiveness × Demanding support		0.24	.16	-0.28†	.15
Constructiveness × Resistance		0.78*	.40	-0.78*	.37
Constructiveness × Receiving information		-0.40*	.20	0.09	.18
Quality × Planning and organizing		0.26†	.14	-0.01	.13
Quality × Problem/Error solving		-0.20†	.11	0.08	.10
Quality × Feedback seeking		0.19	.57	-0.92†	.51
Quality × Resistance		1.14**	.42	-0.99**	.39
Quality × Receiving information		-0.43*	.21	0.06	.20
Effectiveness x Planning and organizing		0.35*	.17	0.01	.15
Effectiveness x Feedback seeking		1.47†	.77	-1.09	.70
Effectiveness x Resistance		1.11**	.43	-1.02†	.39
Effectiveness x Receiving information		-0.44†	.23	0.02	.21

Notes: Only the significant interaction terms are displayed; †  $p < .10$ ; \*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ ;

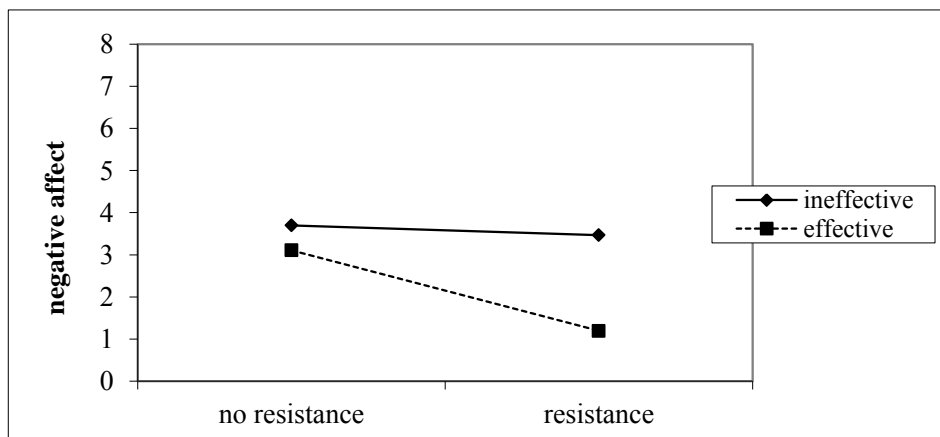
contact in interaction with active nature of behavior had a significant effect on positive affect ( $b = 0.27, SE = .18, p < .10$ ).



A: Relationship of receiving information and positive affect moderated by activity



B: Relationship of feedback seeking and positive affect moderated by effectiveness



C: Relationship of resistance and negative affect moderated by effectiveness

Figure 6. Plotted interactions for three events and two moderators on affect.

Not many interactions were significant, but some of the plots of the significant interactions were helpful to understand the relationship between follower behavior and leaders' affect as shown in Figure 7. A representative sample of plots is chosen to show that some were more helpful than others to understand the relationship of interest. Not supporting the assumption, in Figure 7A one can see that positive affect increased when *receiving information/feedback* is done passively. For the moderator *effectiveness* plots revealed the expected pattern for feedback seeking, as can be seen in Figure 7B and planning and organizing, namely an increase in positive affect when the behavior was executed effectively and/or a decrease in positive affect when the behavior was executed ineffectively. For negative affect the opposite holds true showing ineffective resistance linked to more negative affect (see Figure 1C).

Table 18

*Summary of the hypothesis and assumptions*

	Hypothesis or Assumption	Status
<i>H1</i>	More daily positive affect of a leader during the week is related to higher job satisfaction of the leader at the end of the week.	Confirmed.
<i>H2a</i>	Executing task, OCB, demanding support, participation, impression management and socializing relate to more positive affect and less negative affect of the leader.	Confirmed only for OCB, impression management and socializing.
<i>H2b</i>	Resistance and upward delegation relate to less positive affect and more negative affect of the leader.	Confirmed only for resistance.
<i>A1</i>	Feedback seeking, voice, receiving information, expressing opinion and conflict management are not expected to relate directly to the affect of the leader.	Confirmed for feedback seeking, voice and receiving information.
<i>H3</i>	Follower behavior is more strongly positively related to leaders' positive affect and more strongly negatively related to leaders' negative affect when the follower behavior is executed effectively as compared to when it is executed ineffectively.	Confirmed for planning and organizing, feedback seeking and resistance.
<i>A2</i>	The activity level of the behaviors has an impact on the relationship between follower behavior and affect. This impact differs depending on the behavior.	Confirmed only for receiving information.

In summary, H3-H4, which are treated as one due to the lacking distinctiveness (see, methods), could not be entirely confirmed but the results supported the assumed moderation effects of the nature of behavior on the relationship of follower behavior and leaders' affect. Assumption 2 could be partly confirmed, too. A brief overview of the hypotheses is given in Table 18.

#### **4.11. Overall Discussion**

Picking up on the recent stream of research on followership, these two studies are the first to investigate *what* followers actually do and *how* they do it in their daily interactions with their leaders. Moreover, the relationships of these behaviors and leaders' short-lived affect as well as job satisfaction were analyzed. Two diary studies from a leader's perspective provided a differentiated picture of diverse behavior-affect relationships. The results of the investigation contribute to research on the role of follower behavior in the leadership process in three ways, discussed more closely in the following: (1) The investigation revealed distinct behaviors of followers in leader-follower interactions perceived by the leader. This insight advances the understanding of followers' role in leadership; (2) By treating follower behaviors as daily events, the investigation illuminated another source for affect at work. Consequently, allowing to treat such behaviors as affective events, which advances the AET. (3) Finally, a checklist of follower behaviors was introduced, providing one possible assessment tool for future studies.

After the categorization development in the first study, in the second study sixty-seven leaders reported *what* their followers did and *how* they did it twice a day, rating their own affect subsequently. Nested regressions on level one revealed that, particularly, for *resistance* and *receiving information or feedback* and *feedback seeking*, the nature of the behavior (how they did it) was crucial to understand the relationship with leaders' affect. In the following, we discuss these results and deduce implications for research and practice.

#### **4.11.1. Behavior of followers**

One major aim of this study was to identify follower behaviors that leaders perceive during daily interactions and capture the frequencies of such behaviors. At this point, it is important to keep in mind that follower behaviors are behaviors which affect the leadership process and do not include all behaviors of employees (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). Several relevant behaviors have been suggested in the literature. These studies often focus on the effects of specific behaviors, particularly beneficial or detrimental ones, such as upward communication (Burriss, 2012; Bolino et al., 2010; Fuller et al., 2015) or resistance (Tepper et al., 2006). Are these all relevant follower behaviors? This study aspired to complete the picture by adding daily behaviors and provide a comprehensive view of typical follower behaviors.

The data analysis showed that, from a leader's perspective, followers mostly execute their usual work task and engage less often in specific follower behavior, such as extra-role behavior or contacting the leader. A high amount of the reported follower behaviors was linked to task execution (e.g., follower accomplishes a task) or receiving information from the leader, representing typical work behaviors of a follower. Such behaviors correspond to the classic understanding of following as execution of leaders' assignments (Baker, 2007). In the open reports of the first study, leaders most frequently reported interactive events (54%), not specifying who did what (e.g., "working together on a task"). The undetailed reports point towards a minor significance of these interactions but a rather routinized and typical working situation. Moreover, regarding the definition of followership (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014), it remains unclear, in the reports described above, if the interaction as "working together" can be seen as following or as other employees' behavior instead. This might imply that leaders either do not perceive specific follower behaviors on a daily basis, that they do not perceive the behaviors as worth reporting, or that the behaviors actually are rarely performed. Consequently, the effects of

specific behaviors such as voice or demanding support might be partially explained by the extraordinary character of their occurrence (Hoffman & Lord, 2013) and not by the behavior itself. Therefore, specific follower behavior should be interpreted with consideration of the baseline of typical working behaviors like planning and organizing, executing tasks, and receiving information from the leader.

Nevertheless, followers also engaged in extra-role behaviors and contacted the leader. Extra-role behavior was the second most reported category of behaviors in study 2: Voice, participation, OCB and expressing opinion made up 20% of the behaviors perceived by leaders during a week (on average two behavior reports per week). Moreover, contacting the leader (upward delegation, demanding support, impression management) was also perceived frequently. These two more specific groups of behaviors might advance research on the coproduction of leadership as they indicate followers' active approach towards the leader (Carsten et al., 2010). The coproduction perspective assumes that followers who believe they have a significant impact on the leadership process are more likely to contribute to it. Recently, some behaviors (upward delegation) have been shown to originate from high coproduction beliefs of the follower (Carsten et al., 2010; Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2015). It would be interesting to extend these findings to the other behavioral categories on a daily level. Based on the behaviors found in this study, antecedents and outcomes of follower beliefs can be better conceptualized and investigated.

A last result worth discussing is the low frequency of perceived counterproductive behavior (study 3.1) and resistant follower behaviors (study 3.2). This result is not surprising, given when followers engage in such behaviors they either hide it or execute it subtly. Taken together with the results above, a possible explanation might be that followers actively change any circumstances they find displeasing, instead of just acting harmfully. For example, they demand support of the leader before getting frustrated and resistant to executing the task at hand.



Furthermore, the rare reports might result from social desirability inhibiting leaders from reporting negatively about their followers. Leaders might experience cognitive dissonance when realizing that followers do not follow them (Festinger, 1957). Thus, they rather avoid reporting counterproductive or resistant behaviors to not threaten their image of themselves as a leader. Other studies on negative behaviors reported infrequent occurrence of CWB as well. However, as their effects are strong and negative experiences tend to persist in individuals' memories, researchers stay focused on these behaviors (Fox et al., 2001). In the context of coproduction beliefs, it might also be interesting to investigate the relationship to resistant or harmful follower behaviors. For example, it seems plausible that followers with high coproduction beliefs are more likely to engage in resistant behavior when they do not agree with the leaders' goals.

Overall, the studies provided a comprehensive picture of how follower behaviors are perceived by leaders. Some first examples on how this knowledge contributes to the investigation of the active role of followers in the leadership process were given.

#### **4.11.2. Followers' impact on leaders' affect and job satisfaction**

Supporting assumptions derived from the AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), several of the follower behaviors influenced leaders' affect at work, further impacting job satisfaction. Average positive affect during the week led to higher job satisfaction at the end of the week, hence giving reason to take a closer look on how daily affect is generated. This study confirms that follower behaviors are a source of leaders' affect and thus, can be seen as affective events. In this way, another mechanism of followers' influence on leaders' affect – beyond emotional contagion (Hsee et al., 1990; Tee et al., 2013) – was pointed out. While the displayed affect of followers influences the leaders' affect subconsciously, concrete follower behaviors have an effect on leaders' affect as well. This effect is more observable as it refers to visible behaviors.

In detail, the study showed a mixed picture of expected and unexpected effects identifying problem solving, expressing opinion, OCB, demanding support, impression management, resistance, socializing and conflict management as affective events. Most surprisingly, problem solving and managing conflicts led to more negative affect. Apparently, leaders react more to the problem or conflict itself than to its solution. This overall result suggests that, when speaking of follower behavior as a source of leader's affect, one has to clearly differentiate distinct behaviors. The hypotheses 2a and b and assumption 1, which suggested the direction of the relationship of the behaviors and affect, were partly confirmed. Some behaviors were not connected to affect at all, others only to positive or negative affect in a different way than predicted. First, this scattered picture indicates that deriving assumptions for daily level relationships from literature on person level is prone to error. Second, it encourages to look into more detail in future research on events, namely characteristics of the event (Hoffman & Lord, 2013) and characteristics of affect (valence and activation level, Russell, 1980).

Particularly for the non-affective events, the nature of the behavior was assumed to explain their impact on leaders' affect. The nature of the behavior was positively related to positive affect and negatively related to negative affect. Therefore, we expected positive interactive effects, as suggested in the Hypotheses. The interactive effects between the distinct behaviors and the nature of the behaviors were not as prevalent as expected and provided a slightly ambiguous pattern. In most cases, positive affect increased when behavior was shown in an effective way. For receiving information and feedback the effect was unexpected: It has a stronger relationship with positive affect when executed passively. Maybe this effect can be explained by the recent insight on high quality listening, suggesting that best listeners do not interrupt and are attentive but not active (Lloyd et al., 2015; Bodie et al., 2012). In sum, these interactive effects underline the suggestion made earlier in the discussion: follower behaviors

have to be differentiated and only for certain behaviors the nature of the behaviors is relevant for leaders affect. Yet, the small amount of significant effects urges to interpret these results cautiously. Accounting for the theoretical framework of this study, three-way interactions including both natures of behavior should be calculated. What about effective behavior performed passively? The sample of this study was too small for this kind of power-exploiting analysis. However, it is possible that such a comprehensive analysis would reveal more precise results.

#### **4.11.3. Checklist of follower behaviors**

Relying on an intense literature search and empirical data, we suggest a categorization system of typical follower behavior. The aim was to provide a suitable, comprehensive, and short assessment tool for distinct follower behaviors occurring in the daily workplace. The inter-rater reliability was high, indicating that independent raters could reliably allocate open reports to the categories. The checklist can be used for observations (e.g., in the lab) and for the construction of scenarios or vignettes. In addition, the checklist is appropriate for event-sampling techniques capturing fluctuating behaviors and states, such as follower behaviors and leaders' affect.

The behavioral categories are especially appropriate for event-based approaches, investigating the effects of the different behaviors within a subject on the outcome of interest. The advantage of event-based approaches using the behavioral categories is a reliable measurement of actual follower behaviors instead of retrospective evaluations. The short duration of an event and the immediate reaction allow for causal inferences (Hoffman & Lord, 2013). In survey studies participants (e.g., leaders) have to average behaviors (e.g., follower behaviors) they perceived over time. In order to do so, they tend to rely on heuristics (e.g., implicit theories and sympathy effects) to facilitate the complex evaluation (Hansbrough et al., 2015; Hoffman & Lord, 2013). One consequence is that actual behaviors and perceptions of behaviors cannot be

differentiated (Dinh & Lord, 2012), rendering the interpretation of the effects difficult. The behavioral categorization system can help to advance event-based research in the domain of followership.

#### **4.11.4. Implications for practice**

For practice, our results reveal that followers are a source of affect for leaders – positive and negative. Organizations or consultants should make leaders and followers aware of such affective transmission. This extends the possibilities of organizations to support their workers by not exclusively addressing leader responsibilities towards followers but also how followers can support leaders (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014; Hopton, 2014). On the one hand, leaders should realize that followers can be a source of positive affect and not just a daily hassle. They should be informed and pointed to follower behaviors that help leaders reach shared goals. When leaders and followers work together to coproduce good leadership, the results might be favorable for both and the organization (Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2015). On the other hand, this study showed that leaders appreciate active follower behaviors during a typical working week. Thus, followers can be motivated to show more extra-role behavior and contacting the leader. These insights and implications go in line with Raffo's (2013) and Hopton's (2014) approaches on stimulating a more positive and active image of followership in organizations and implementing these themes in the management classroom. Such changes can be reached by followership development programs, reciprocal to the existing leadership programs.

#### **4.11.5. Limitations**

The two studies have some limitations because of their exploratory character, limitations typical for diary designs, and limitations concerning the sample. Most important, the leaders might not perceive all behaviors correctly, possibly being one reason why impression management was not reported in study 1. When impression management is performed well,

leaders rather perceived it as, for example, extra-role behavior and reported it in such terms. Respectively the coders could not identify impression management behaviors. They can identify only obvious and not very well executed impression management. The behaviors might differ in how much they deviate from their perceptions, providing a source of unmeasured error. Therefore, the results should be understood in terms of perceived follower behavior and their association with leaders' affect. For the purpose of our research question this is plausible as leader cannot react to behavior they do not perceive, even though it is objectively executed by a follower. Thus, for research on leaders' reactive outcome the suggested categorization system is suitable. Yet, for research on objective follower behavior (in line with the MPS for leaders) other sources of information, e.g., followers or external observers, should be added.

For the nature of the behaviors the high interrelation showed that leaders could not distinguish the three proposed characteristics as intended. Additionally, the high relationship of all three characteristics with positive affect might indicate that the items represent one scale, i.e. *favorable execution of the behavior*. Thus, in future research new ideas how to capture the nature of the follower behavior have to be generated.

CWB should not have been excluded from the category system. While we argued that CWB has a strongly negative affective tinge, it still contains objective behaviors. These behaviors, such as insulting or disturbing coworkers, were, albeit comparably rarely, reported in the first study. In study 3.2, leaders could report such behaviors in the open field for "other behavior". They did not report any. Maybe without the category on the checklist they might be less aware of the possibility to report such behaviors. As argued above, CWB is a behavior that leaders might not perceive frequently and might not like to report. Therefore, even when including the category, most likely not many behaviors would be reported.

The next issue in terms of the exploratory character concerns the development of the categorizations which involved some level of subjective judgment. However, the subjectivity was minimized by co-ratings and discussions with individuals having different experience levels, namely graduate students and professors. Most categories were based on prior research and were validated empirically. Still, the validity of the whole categorization system needs to be evaluated in future research. In particular, the categorization of extra-role behavior was difficult. Referring to the literature, specifically more proactive behavior could be added to the list. A further important question is if all categories indeed represent follower behaviors and not just general employee behaviors. This question cannot be addressed empirically but by acquiring more subject matter expert's opinions.

As often seen in diaries, both studies have single source data: Leaders reported the follower behaviors, the nature of behavior, and their own affect. However, when interested in the leader's perception of followers, other methods than self-ratings might not be adequate. Apart from the individual experiencing the affect, per definition a subjective state, no other source can judge it. Another source for the behavior measure or an objective measurement is conceivable. Yet, as we strove to capture an immediate affective reaction of the leader and match it with follower behavior, another measure (e.g., asking the follower for his behavior) would be inappropriately intrusive. Such a procedure would disturb the naturalistic setting which is the main strength of the diary design. Yet, the behaviorally anchored checklist should diminish biases, as leaders chose one concrete behavior with no affective value. Nevertheless, no implications for causality can be drawn, as it is possible that the affect also influenced which behavior leaders reported. The operationalization of the nature of behavior could be phrased in a less obvious fashion. For example, the activity – passivity scale might be operationalized by asking “who initiated the behavior” as a more subtle measure. Furthermore, diary studies are a

particularly intrusive measure that might change the daily life (Ohly et al., 2010) or its perception through reflection on the events (Bono, Glomb, Shen, Kim, & Koch, 2013). The disruptive character of the method was reduced using shortened scales and flexible timing of the reports.

The generalizability of the sample of events is questionable. As participants were recruited mostly via personal contacts and snowball techniques, the sample contained highly educated participants. Moreover, the recruiting strategy fostered a selective sample of less busy, self-aware leaders who were motivated to participate in the study. Even though they occupied a variety of different jobs, they do not represent the overall leader population. There might be other relevant follower behaviors in other occupations which should be addressed in future studies.

Finally, our study is limited to the perception of leaders on follower behaviors. When pursuing to understand the leadership process, researchers should attempt to capture characteristics and behaviors of followers and leaders to an equal extent (Shamir, 2007). In dyadic studies the perceptions of followers and leaders on the same interaction might provide most comprehensive results.

#### **4.11.6. Future research**

In future research, the list of follower behaviors can be extended further and clustered according to branches: When collecting the data in specific branches like health-care or production, further behavioral categories might emerge. They could be added to the categorization system as “optional behaviors when investigating [branch]”.

Some work should be invested in a better conceptualization and operationalization of the nature of follower behavior. This measure needs to be short and straightforward enough to be applicable in designs as diaries. One idea was mentioned above: Operationalizing the level of activity by asking “who initiated the behavior”; for effectiveness it might be “To what extent did this behavior contribute to the achievement of the team’s/ section’s/ organization’s goal?”

Moreover, further “natures” of the behavior could be examined, such as “obedience” or “challenging” as suggested in literature (Chaleff, 2008; Zaleznik, 1965).

Importantly, antecedents and more consequences than well-being of follower behaviors can be examined in depth. To gain a greater insight on causal effects, the follower behaviors can be manipulated in experiments (see, Tee et al., 2013). In a laboratory team-work setting, followers (confederates) might be instructed to engage in certain behavior and the reaction of the leaders (participants) might be evaluated. In that way, one could test which behaviors of followers lead to follower emergence, to beneficial impact on the leader, to high performance evaluations, or further outcomes of interest.

For research on coproduction of leadership, the behaviors of followers might serve as mediators: Coproduction beliefs as antecedents of certain behaviors (see, Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2010), which in turn influence leaders’ affect and their evaluation of the follower. In both suggestions the effects might depend on organizational context and industry.

Regarding the AET, future research should examine moderators between the follower behavior (event) and the leaders’ affect (affective reaction). Personal characteristics of the leader might moderate the relationship (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), for example highly neurotic leaders might react more negatively to negative events than leaders with low neuroticism. Furthermore, the evaluation of the followers, for example, the evaluation of their competence, or the relationship quality with the leader might play a moderating role. Effects of liking (of the leader) on the perception of behavior (as effective) have been shown in leadership evaluation and could be reciprocal for followers (Brown & Keeping, 2005).

An event approach focusing on leader-follower interactions, as used in these studies, is promising for future dynamic conceptualization of followers’ fluctuating behavior and its effects during the time span of a working week (Johnson et al., 2012). For example, it might be



interesting to investigate patterns of follower behaviors and how they influence outcomes such as leaders' satisfaction. Also, the timing and duration of follower behavior might be essential to understand its effects (Shamir, 2011).

In a team context where followers switch between at least two roles – follower and colleague – a behavior-focused approach can help to understand how role views and identification evolve. Which follower behavior contributes to higher team identification might be investigated as identification is currently a hot topic in leadership (Miscenko & Day, 2016).

Finally, event-based approaches have been recently applied to explain LMX (Cropanzano et al., 2017). The insights from this study can contribute to advance the active role of the follower in the process of LMX development. Identifying the follower behaviors which influence leaders' affect might help to explain the development of the affective relationship between leaders and their followers. Furthermore, researchers might capture which behaviors are explicitly executed in which phase of LMX development.

#### **4.12. Conclusion**

The daily diary on follower behavior from leader perspectives empirically supports the assumption of followers' active impact in the leadership process. Followers do influence leaders' positive and negative affect depending on *What* they do and *How* they do it. Not only could this research propose a more comprehensive range of follower behaviors but also show its influence on leaders' affect. Further research on the event-level can build on the results incorporating them into a bigger picture of followers' and leaders' characteristics and beliefs, actual behaviors, proximal outcomes (affect) and distant outcomes as job satisfaction and performance. These insights will improve the image and understanding of the critical role of followership in organizations.

## 5. General Discussion

### 5.1. Summary

The well-being of the workforce is a decisive factor for a successful organization. Not only are happy workers more likely to be productive (Zelenski et al., 2008), they are also expected to remain in the organization more willingly (Wright & Bonnett, 2007) and to be hit less frequently by psychological health issues (Montano et al., 2017) than unhappy workers. As social relationships at the workplace can foster well-being, they increasingly attract the attention of organizational research. Yet, when investigating social relationships as a protective factor of well-being, research focused mostly on the role of leaders for long-term well-being of their followers, such as job satisfaction (Gooty et al., 2010; Halbesleben, 2006; Nielsen et al., 2009; van Dierendonck, et al., 2004). Are these findings sufficient to explain how well-being and, subsequently, performance evolve due to social interactions at the workplace? I argue that such a restricted focus hinders the development of a comprehensive view on the role of social support at work. As a result sound theory building and applicable implications for practice are challenging. Thus, recent calls urge for a stronger focus on the role of leaders for daily fluctuating well-being, namely affect (Gooty et al., 2010, Hernandez et al., 2011) and the role of follower behaviors for leaders' well-being (Hernandez et al., 2011, Kelly, 2008; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014).

The three parts of this dissertation contribute to reduce this research gap suggesting a behavioral mechanism for the variation of well-being and performance at the workplace. Four diary studies on leader behavior from followers' perspective and 2 diary studies on follower behavior from leaders' perspective revealed typical behaviors of both groups. Furthermore, we showed how these discrete behaviors of leaders *and* followers relate to daily affect and result in

higher job satisfaction. Going beyond single behaviors, two experiments revealed the positive impact of value-based alignment of leader behaviors on followers' trust and leaders' effectiveness in stimulating followers' performance. Moreover, we provided tools for future leadership researchers to continue in the same direction. After briefly summarizing the main results of the studies and their contribution to research and practice, the limitations are discussed and suggestions for future research are derived.

## **5.2. Main findings and theoretical contribution**

First, I discuss the contribution of our findings to the literature on leadership, followership, well-being and effectiveness at work. Summarizing the results in detail, the next section (5.2.1.) focuses on the specific insights on leaders' and followers' side, respectively. In the following section (5.2.2.) the overall contribution of the role of leader-follower interactions for research based on the AET is elucidated. Finally (in section 5.2.3.), I suggest an integrative view on leading and following, generalizing the findings of all studies. A comprehensive model illustrates how a happy productive workplace possibly evolves through daily interactions.

### **5.2.1. Leadership, followership and well-being**

The main result of this dissertation is that leader and follower behaviors can be seen as events causing the fluctuation of well-being of the respective other. We uncovered several distinct behaviors which related to positive or negative affect while others did not. In study 3.1, for example, a leader reported that his follower voiced a good idea. This event caused positive affect and was therefore a positive affective event for the leader. In this way we showed that well-being fluctuates due to certain single behaviors instead of follower-leader interactions as one whole as treated in prior research (e.g., Basch & Fisher, 1998; Miner et al., 2005). How is this finding positioned in the organizational theory? Theoretically, the concept of leader and follower

behavior as affective event combines two prominent research areas: Leadership<sup>5</sup> and daily well-being. While leadership research has shown that affect depends on leadership (e.g., Bono et al., 2007; Dasborough, 2006), an explaining mechanism was not specified. The most current view referred to emotional contagion (Sy et al., 2005). Even though a valid approach, we doubt it is the only explanation for the relationship of leadership and affect. At the same time, the literature on affect explained its variation due to events (e.g., Dimotakis et al., 2011; Fisher, 2002; Ohly & Schmitt, 2015). Specifically, work related affect can be triggered by events (Sonntag, 2015). From our point of view, both approaches seemed to lend themselves to integration. Therefore, we conceptualized distinct leader (and follower) behaviors as events explaining the fluctuation of affect.

This dissertation builds on previous attempts to classify distinct leader behaviors (Amabile et al., 2004) and focuses on their affective nature. Additionally, the same assumptions were also applied to classify follower behaviors. These distinct behaviors are necessary to gain a deeper insight into how leaders and followers actually influence affect at the workplace beyond mere emotional contagion. The studies compiled in this dissertation showed the relationship of distinct leader and follower behaviors and daily affect.

#### **5.2.1.1. What we learned about leaders**

After the brief overview of the relevant literature, in the following, the detailed insights for leaders are summarized and discussed. First, we showed that leaders primarily engage in enhancing goal pursuit by setting clear goals. This is not surprising and has been part of other taxonomies as well (Yukl et al., 2002). Other frequent behaviors were socializing with the follower, increasing strain and giving feedback. Those leaders who are perceived as transformational engaged more often in positive feedback, clear goal setting and participation

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<sup>5</sup> For followership, there is not enough research in the area of well-being. Yet, when speaking about behaviors as events causing affect, I suggest that the general insights in this section apply equally to leaders and followers.

than in any other behavior. The latter two are relatively rare behaviors and both were deduced as daily associations of the transformational facet named *intellectual stimulation* (Bass, 1985a). Thus, in this study, intellectual stimulation specifically accounted for the beneficial effects of transformational leaders on affect. The frequencies of the behaviors typical for leaders, in general, and transformational leaders, in particular, allow to estimate the likelihood of their occurrences.

Furthermore, leaders' affect and job satisfaction were associated with distinct behaviors of followers. Relatively few behaviors were related to positive affect; among them task-related work behaviors were prevalent. The clearest negative effect was associated with resistance. An effective way to execute the behavior was shown to be beneficial for leader's affect. Finally, positive affect aggregated to higher levels of job satisfaction at the end of the week. This result goes in line with other diary studies (e.g., Dimotakis et al., 2011) but has not been explicitly shown in the context of followership and leaders' job satisfaction. In sum, we showed that follower behavior can represent affective events for leaders and are therefore distally related with leaders' job satisfaction.

#### **5.2.1.2. What we learned about followers**

Next, the detailed insights for followers are summed up. Followers primarily engage in task execution, planning, problem solving and receiving feedback or information. To a certain extent, these behaviors are in line with the intuitive idea of followers' typical behavior. Comparatively, they contact their leader (e.g., demanding support) and engage in extra-role behavior (e.g., voice) infrequently. These two groups of behaviors have been of more interest in prior research, as they are associated with an active impact of the follower on the leadership process (Carsten, & Uhl-Bien, 2015). In sum, we showed that – beside typical work behaviors –

followers engage in specific behaviors, such as OCB, voice or demanding support to a small but still perceivable amount.

Furthermore, we confirmed the prior findings that followers of transformational leaders generally perceive more positive affect (Bono et al., 2007; Breevaart et al., 2015) than followers of less transformational leaders. Moreover, the two behaviors associated with transformational leadership – participation and positive feedback – were related to positive affect. At the same time, other beneficial behavior related to less negative affect (e.g., socializing and solving conflicts). Increasing strain, provoking conflicts and negative feedback were associated with negative affect. In sum, daily behaviors of leaders as well as general perception of a leader as transformational had an impact on followers' positive and negative affect.

### **5.2.1.3. Beyond single behaviors – What we learned about alignment and trust**

When thinking beyond the single behaviors and its effects, events rarely come alone. In real life, prior events have an impact on the reaction to recent events. For example, when a leader engaged only in work-related behavior, such as goal setting, organizing and giving feedback, it might be irritating when the leader suddenly asks for your personal well-being. The irritation would not result from the behavior itself but from its unusual character. To account for this aspect, we investigated a short sequence of two leader behaviors and showed favorable effects of their value-based alignment on followers. The alignment of a leader's vision communication and goal setting increased trust in the leader. Subsequently, it was trust which explained leaders' effectiveness to stimulate followers' performance. It was not the alignment itself leading to leaders' effectiveness but the trust followers perceived towards their leader. Apart from social relationships at work, this study contributes to research on consistency of behaviors as well as behavioral integrity<sup>6</sup> (Johnson et al., 2012; Simons, 2002). Prior research relied mostly on

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<sup>6</sup> Behavioral integrity refers to the alignment of a leader's words and actions and is explained in study 2

perceived alignment of the behaviors (Leroy et al., 2012; Prottas, 2013), whereas in our investigation an actual alignment was created. In sum, we showed that when considering several behaviors, it appears that value-based alignment fosters social relationships in the workplace.

### **5.2.2. Overall contribution to the AET**

In this section, I argue how the classification of the distinct behaviors explained above contributes to research based on the AET. The taxonomies of daily behavior as events render the AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) testable. What does that mean for research? According to the AET, work environment is the antecedent which determines the likelihood of the occurrence of work events. Hence, equipped with the behavioral taxonomies, components of the work environment can be linked to their distal outcomes. Uncovering typical workplace behavior in the leadership process allows explaining existing relationships via the AET. In other words, that means filling the black box of an established relationship with a behavioral mechanism, e.g., the relationship between transformational leadership and affect (Bono et al., 2007). When considering our findings, transformational leadership is actually the antecedent of daily behaviors which, in turn, result in affect. The AET further suggests that the relationship of affect and event depends on personal characteristics. It is now possible to examine if the event-affect relationships hold true for any individual or differ depending on personal characteristics, such as gender or emotional competence.

Furthermore, according to the AET work-related behaviors result from affective reaction to an event. In the work context several behaviors might be directly linked to performance. This view is supported when defining job performance as “the total expected value to the organization of the discrete behavioral episodes that an individual carries out over a standard period of time” (Motowidlo & Kell, 2003, p. 96). Therefore, our uncovered behaviors could be seen as daily components of performance. Then again, when following this line of reasoning, affect is a

predictor for daily performance. Such insight contributes to the growing research on fluctuating performance and performance evaluations (Fisher, 2008). The daily distinct behaviors of leaders and followers can therefore serve as antecedents *and* outcomes in the framework of the AET: Leader behaviors are antecedents of followers' affect and follower behaviors (as outcomes and performance-components). At the same time, follower behaviors are antecedents of leaders' affect and leader behaviors (as outcomes and performance-components).

In sum, the insight about the daily level event-affect-relationship might provide a deeper understanding of higher level relationships in organizational research. The events represent the mediating mechanism, explaining how, for example, work climate finally results in performance over a certain period of time. In this way, the taxonomies of daily behavior and the insight on their affective component complete missing links of established relationships based on the AET.

### **5.2.3. How leaders' and followers' perspective can be integrated based on AET?**

Finally, the next section attempts to integrate the general insight on interactions and well-being as well as the detailed insights we gained for leaders and followers. To bring all together, it is favorable in terms of well-being when followers and leaders perceive each other engaging in their typical work behaviors, such as setting goals and executing tasks. This supports the rather traditional view on leadership and followership: A task-oriented relationship is apparently favorable. As rediscovered by Judge and colleagues (2004), *initiation structure*<sup>7</sup> as well as *transactional leadership*<sup>8</sup> (Bass, 1985a) are effective for creating a happy productive workplace at a daily basis. Additionally, the general perception of transformational leadership as a follower-oriented leadership style (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014) was also beneficial for well-being. Furthermore, some behaviors, which are rather seen as relation-oriented behaviors (Judge et al., 2004; Tracy & Hinkin, 1998), were beneficial for affect: Participating in decision making, OCB and

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<sup>7</sup> Initiation structure: Leader defining and organizing roles, goals and communication structures.

<sup>8</sup> Transactional leadership: Leaders focusing on exchange of resources, e.g., pay for performance.



predominantly socializing. Therefore, we can conclude that task and relation-oriented are important for daily well-being, yet the effects of task-oriented behavior are less ambiguous.

Supporting the beneficial effects of relational aspects of leader interactions, we showed that leaders who manage to set goals in alignment with their communicated values create a trustful relationship with their followers. Daily affect also might depend on alignment of the behavior with communicated values in a vision (see, future research). Yet, neither have we nor prior research investigated shorted term effects of alignment on affect (Simons, 1999, Simons et al., 2015). The main finding from prior research is that several (daily) episodes of alignment *over time* lead to the perception of BI and trust. In line with these findings, I argue that alignment of communicated values and behavior need time to result in BI and trust, and finally performance.

Finally, to integrate both perspectives and accomplish the reunion of leader and follower behaviors on a daily basis, the results of all our studies are combined: The model considers (1) sequences of leader and follower behaviors and alignment with communicated values (at least on the leaders' side). (2) The behaviors provoke affective reactions of the respective. (3) The affect in turn result in behavior (of the other). An integrated model for the dynamics of a happy-productive workplace might look as suggested in Figure 7.

All components belonging to the follower are painted gray and all components belonging to the leader are painted white. The overall model represents a continuous process.

***Right part, characteristics.*** All behaviors and affective reactions depend on the workers' characteristics. They could be also placed as moderators between behavior and affect as well as affect and behavior. To keep the model simple I kept them on the right side as overall influence factors (Broad arrow).

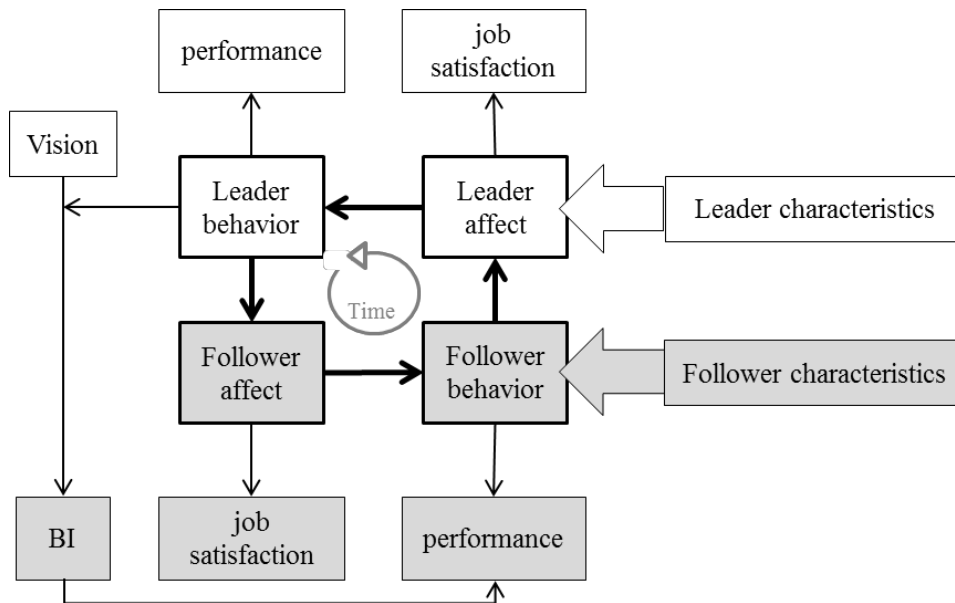


Figure 7. Suggested integrated model of leader-follower interactions. Because of its length the description follows in the text.

***Middle part, process of leading and following.*** Leader behavior is seen as affective event which leads to followers' affect. The follower's affect results in a behavior. Follower behavior can be seen as affective event for the leader, resulting in leader's affect. Leader's and follower's behavior in this model include *what* the actors do and *how* (the nature of behavior) they do it<sup>9</sup>. The behavioral-affective process of leading and following is continuous (see, gray time arrow) until the end of the work relationship.

***Left part, visions and alignment.*** The leader communicates values and attitudes in a vision. When leader behaviors are aligned with these values (moderator) the follower develops BI and trust (only BI in the model, as direct antecedent for trust). BI and trust result in an increase of follower's performance.

<sup>9</sup> We did not investigate *the nature of behavior* (how) for leader behavior but assume it might play a role as well.

*Frame part, outcomes.* The perception of affects throughout the events accumulate to job satisfaction (or a lack thereof) while the daily behaviors accumulate to a general job performance on the follower's (gray) and the leader's (white) side.

In the following, I give an example relying on the model. A transformational leader who cares for WLB sets a goal for the follower. The follower is happy about the goal setting; in particular, because it is done in a "good way"<sup>10</sup>. Additionally, it is aligned with the WLB value the leader communicated. Consequently, the follower executes the task effectively. The effective task execution makes the leader happy so he or she gives positive feedback, resulting in positive affect of the follower who, in turn, decides to help the leader water the flowers (OCB). In this process the job satisfaction of the leader and the follower increase.

This is a simplified scenario, but a valid idea to explain how a happy productive workplace can be built in daily interactions. At the same time, it represents an application of the AET for leader and follower behaviors in a continuous process. Such a model gives consideration to important requests of recent research. First, it represents a dynamic approach to leadership, taking chronology into account (Roe, 2008; Shamir, 2011). Second, it represents a process-oriented view of leadership and followership, taking actions and reactions into account (Dinh & Lord, 2012; Fischer et al., 2017).

### **5.3. Methodological contribution**

In the following I describe how event-based methods benefit from our new tools, namely the taxonomies of leader and follower behavior. Moreover, the insights on the gains and challenges of the application of diary designs in leadership and followership research are addressed.

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<sup>10</sup> "Good way" stands for a nature of leader behavior which should be addressed in future research (footnote 8).

### **5.3.1. Event-based approaches in leadership and followership**

The dissertation contributes to advancing event-based approaches in leadership and followership research. The two taxonomies consist of visible behaviors which are discrete and bounded in space and time. Thus, they can be used as checklists for further event-based studies. We showed a first successful application of the taxonomies: The events (i.e., follower and leader behavior) explained a significant amount of variance of the fluctuating affect within a person during up to two work weeks. In this way, we answered questions, such as “is positive feedback associated with more positive affect than all other perceived behaviors?” When capturing data with these tools, participants do not need to rely on their memory and heuristics to fill the gaps but can directly report what they observed and experienced (Hansbrough et al., 2015; Hoffman & Lord, 2013). Such direct observations facilitate the interpretation of the results compared to survey designs (Dinh & Lord, 2012; Hoffman & Lord, 2013). In addition to that, biases produced by general perceptions, e.g., liking, were mitigated because the within-person approach captures the variation around a person’s mean and not the total variation. In sum, the new tools to capture event-level leadership and followership can advance the current stream of dynamic process oriented research.

### **5.3.2. Event-sampling in leadership and followership research**

We successfully applied diary studies to capture events and reactions to events in the context of leadership and followership. In the following, I summarize our experiences and give two suggestions contributing to future research. First, open reports *are* useful to acquire rich information (Ohly & Gochmann, 2017). Most participants elaborately reported on the events, indicating for their high engagement. Moreover, coding the events by objective raters instead of the participants themselves, biases of self-reports might be reduced. Objective raters are not biased by the affect perceived in the reported situation and have no reason to emphasize certain

passages of the report more than others. Therefore, they are able to categorize the content due to standardized rules. Yet, objective or not, they still rely on the participants reports. Hence, the instructions on the content participants should report have to be detailed and comprehensible. Structured diaries or training sessions might facilitate obtaining the information of interest (see Bono et al., 2013 for an example). Finally, checklists (see study 3) diminish issues linked to open reports. Yet, in particular in new research fields I recommend to leave one open option to capture forgone categories of daily behavior.

Furthermore, to fully explain the effects of an event, the content might not be sufficient. Additionally, the characteristics of the event, such as novelty or valance (Hoffmann & Lord, 2013; Morgeson et al., 2015) should be captured. Some characteristics can be deduced from the reports, but a more thorough method to capture characteristics of the events is indispensable. In sum, diary designs provide a deeper insight into leadership and followership. However, they have to be further refined, accounting for new insight and theory on event-based research (Hoffmann & Lord, 2013; Morgeson et al., 2015).

#### **5.4. Practical Implications**

The insight that daily behaviors of leaders and followers matter for well-being, trust and performance is crucial to include in organizational interventions or coaching. In fact, general leadership skills are important and have to be trained, in particular for critical situations (e.g., termination interview). However, the daily work life should not be forgone or overshadowed while focusing on special functions of the leader. When considering daily life the followers' role in trainings becomes more relevant. In order to argue for such trainings including the whole workforce prior literature and our studies provide several arguments elaborated below.

**5.4.1. Why implementing trainings on daily interactions for the whole workforce?**

First, although on organizational level leaders have comparably more influence, as they are responsible for several followers (Chaleff, 2008); on daily level their influence is rather both-sided. As shown in our studies, leader's socializing behavior might decrease the negative affect of the follower, while same works also vice versa. Besides, usually, a leader has to deal with more different followers than a follower with different leaders. Reacting and handling a large range of behaviors from diverse followers might be especially challenging (Lohmann-Haislah, 2012). It is even more challenging, when followers are not trained in effective following. Therefore, leader and follower should be at least made aware of how they are impacting each other's well-being on a daily basis.

In trainings for a whole workforce, followers can gain a feeling of their importance and their impact on organizational outcomes (Raffo, 2013; Hopton, 2014). In general, being a follower is directly linked to negative stereotypes (Kellerman, 2008). Yet, followers are inherently important for effective leadership (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). When followers are aware of their role in the leadership process, they show more beneficial behaviors (Carstens & Uhl-Bien, 2015). Besides, for organizations, such trainings are not costlier than leadership development seminars and additionally they reach the whole workforce. Such trainings potentially flatten the hierarchy and boost a cooperative work climate. In sum, followers and leaders have to be aware of their mutual influence which is particular perceivable at daily level.

**5.4.2. How to implement such trainings?**

The two taxonomies on daily behaviors, the insight on the frequency of the behaviors and their relationship to affect can advance interventions in several ways. Distinct behaviors are learnable (Antonakis et al., 2011; Avolio et al., 2009; Felfe, 2009). Thus, a trainer might choose those behaviors which are relevant for affect and discuss with the trainees in which specific

situations this behavior might be displayed as well as how it might look like in a concrete organization or team. Every trainee can reflect on the frequency he or she uses such a behavior and develop ideas how to foster the behaviors leading to positive affect and reduce the behaviors leading to negative affect. In role plays, these contextualized behaviors can be trained. As the daily behavior taxonomies exist in form of a checklist, they can be applied by coaches or mentors to observe if the behaviors are really executed at work after the coaching and subsequently give behavior-based feedback.

For the leaders, in particular those in top management positions, it is important to understand the role of value-based alignment of the daily behaviors. Values can be communicated in visions and evidence on how visions can boost motivation exists (Baum et al., 1998; Shamir et al., 1993; Halevy et al., 2011; Stam, et al., 2010 a, b). Yet, visions must be reflected in daily behaviors to create trust and enhance the effectiveness of the leader. Thus, when creating such visions, top managers should consider if the value-loaded content of the vision can be implemented in daily work life, for example, by appropriate goal setting. Leaders from all levels should then discuss how the visions values might be demonstrated in daily behaviors. Critical situations might be thought through and the implementation of such behaviors might be trained. If relevant, such trainings might take place before the whole workforce's training. As a result, leaders can take into account the values they have to represent while training their daily behaviors.

### **5.5. Limitations**

The limitations of the dissertation are an accumulation of the specific issues of every single study. In the following, I focus mostly on the most significant limitations and those referring to the overall idea of the dissertation.

First off, when aiming to capitalize on the entire benefit of event-based approaches, events should be captured from all perspectives as shown in Figure 1 in the introduction. In our studies, we already provided parts of the whole picture, namely the perspective of one interaction partner on the behavior of the other interaction partner. To complete the picture, a self-rating of the own behavior would be of additional use. The perspective on all actions and reactions of leaders and followers would describe an event properly.

According to the model I suggested in the discussion section 5.2.3. (Figure 8), behaviors of leaders and followers influence the affective reactions of the respective other, in turn resulting in affect-driven behaviors. In the designs of the studies compiled in this dissertation, we were not able to test such a model. First of all, to test the continuous alteration of behavior and affect, dyads of leaders and their followers are necessary. Although one might ask for the reactive behavior of the counterparts in the diary, the affective reaction of the counterparts can only be reliably reported by themselves. Therefore, the diary studies from both perspectives have to be conducted simultaneously. Yet, a dyadic approach brings about new challenges, for instance, the matching of the reports from the diaries. On the one hand, one can just brief the leaders and followers to report on the same event. Yet, consequently the data will be most probably heavily biased as the anonymity is not completely guaranteed: At least leaders and followers would know they are reporting on each other. On the other hand, when trying to conduct this study more concealed, the matching of the reports becomes technologically costly. From an ethical point of view, it is furthermore difficult to justify unapproved evaluations among the coworkers. Therefore, the separated diaries and theoretical combination of the results might be an acceptable alternative.

Moreover, the suggested model contains causal pathways. In diary designs with only one source reporting on predictors and outcomes simultaneously, it is not appropriate to make causal



claims. One danger is that the behavioral report depends on the current affect. Apart from the discussed dyadic design to separate the sources of the predictor and outcome, also time lags have been used to reduce the common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Yet, for the affective reaction, a time lag is not appropriate, as per definition it follows the event immediately. For other outcomes, though, it can be an effective solution (e.g., perceived effectiveness). One approach might be to create experimental designs based on all information we can attain from the naturalistic work setting. In this way, a causal picture on behaviors and affective reactions might be found. Yet, it is difficult to judge if such affective reactions in experiments can indicate well-being as it is in real life. Even though we managed to induce trust in our experiment, experiments which aim to provide insight into social relationships as protective factors of well-being need to apply a longitudinal design, constructing a situation as realistic as possible for the participants. Such designs like a longitudinal experimental diary design are challenging to set up and maintain but might be a promising combination.

## **5.6. Future research**

While studying daily behaviors, alignment, well-being and performance in different studies many ideas for their extension come to mind. These extensions were discussed in the single papers. Therefore, the recommendations for future research in this section serve the integration of the results from all parts of the dissertation.

### **5.6.1. Future research on the happy productive worker on a daily basis**

In future diary studies on the happy productive workplace, performance should be actually measured on daily level. We exclusively argued that higher well-being leads to productivity, relying on prior studies (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001; Hersey, 1932; Zelenski et al., 2008). In future studies, researchers could either find an objective measure for daily productivity or at least use additional performance ratings from several sources. Subsequently, it would be

possible to analyze if individuals actually perform better on days they feel happy (due to events) than on days they do not. In a long-lasting diary study, it might be useful to capture performance at the end of the week to investigate a weekly variation in performance, since this might be easier to evaluate than daily performance. Most probably, performance has to be measured differently for leaders and followers as well as different occupations. One way or another, performance or productivity should be the outcome in further diaries on the happy productive worker.

Further research on the effects of alignment on trust and performance might also rely on diary methods and include several value-transmitting behaviors apart from goal setting (e.g., giving feedback). This might be particularly interesting in organizations where a new vision was communicated or in a setting where visionary communication might be manipulated (e.g., in project teams, leaders might be taught to communicate a vision). Subsequently, the followers can report in a diary to what extent the daily behaviors of leaders, including goal setting, were aligned with the vision. Such a field study might help to understand how easily followers perceive alignment and how it finally leads to the increased trust and performance. Investigating effects of alignment on trust and performance might also account for the temporal dimensions of visions (long-lasting) and goals (immediate).

### **5.6.2. Future research on social relationships and well-being**

To advance research on social relationships as a protective factor of well-being, event-based approaches with our behavioral taxonomies could first show how these relationships are genuinely established (Cropanzano et al., 2017). For example, in future studies, researchers might test how long it takes for value-based aligned behaviors to result in trust and how fast this trust is violated again (Simons, 2002). For concepts, such as LMX, researchers could investigate which events are crucial in which development stage (Cropanzano et al., 2017). Are certain behaviors of leaders and/or followers more valuable in the beginning of the acquaintanceship or more crucial

to connect deeply? In a recently suggested model, based on the AET, Cropanzano and colleagues (2017) discussed the role of discrete emotions in the development of LMX. They treated the displays of emotion as affective events resulting in LMX. They differentiated which emotional processes are relevant for the different stages of LMX-development. Our research might extend their model by adding concrete, emotion-evoking, behaviors to the different LMX-stages. To combine both ideas the effects of behaviors on *discrete* emotions (not affect) need to be investigated in the first place. Additionally, it might be interesting to analyze to which extent good social relationships contribute to well-being in the different stages of their development. For example, they might not be beneficial in the building phase, as leaders and followers have to put extra effort into interacting with an unknown person. Such insight is important to understand at which point in time new coworkers are more susceptible to events harming their well-being. Event-based diaries might explain how social relationships develop at the workplace and to which extent they can increase or protect well-being during the collaboration.

Taking digitalization and other new developments into account, further context variables might influence the relationship between daily leader-follower interactions and well-being. For example, the channel of the communication (e.g., e-mail, telephone or face-to-face) might influence the impact of the message: Person-related communication might have a stronger positive impact when done face-to-face rather than via e-mail. The geographic location of leaders and followers and the regularity of their personal meetings might moderate the effects on well-being. Such research would be particularly interesting in the context of leadership, followership and trust in virtual teams (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002; Jarvenpaa, & Leidner, 1999). In such a setting our suggested events might be of different meaning and therefore, should be adapted and re-validated in the context.

### **5.6.3. Future research on a process model of leadership and followership**

As suggested in Figure 8 and by other researchers (e.g., Dinh & Lord, 2012; Fischer et al., 2017), leading and following can be seen as a process model. In a process time plays an important role. As events are bound to time, the timing and duration of such events is an interesting topic to investigate (Shamir, 2011; Roe, 2008). Therefore, variables, such as starting time and duration of the event, should be added to the diaries. The timing and duration of an event is possibly responsible for short-term and long-term well-being. For example, a short lending hand of the leader might be very welcomed by the follower and lead to positive affect. Yet, when leaders help for a long time, the follower might feel controlled or underestimated and react rather negatively. Investigating patterns or sequences of behaviors might also help to get an understanding of their effects. Maybe leaders who engage in a large variety of behaviors during the week are perceived as inconsistent and unpredictable, resulting in less well-being. A process perspective (Dinh & Lord, 2012) will advance leadership research, as it assumes that leader behavior is unstable but adapts to the context and task at hand. Therefore, accounting for behaviors as events, considering time and prior behaviors might allow more precise predictions of the outcomes of interest.

Furthermore, an event-based perspectives might be appropriate when aspiring to understand the interdependence of general perceptions of leaders (e.g., transformational) and followers (e.g., yes-people) and daily enactment of behaviors associated with these styles. One could first capture general perceptions and implicit theories of followers and leaders (Carsten et al., 2010; Schyns & Meidl, 2005; Sy, 2010). In the next step diary studies might capture the process of leading and following in terms of events. This way, it could be analyzed to what extent one concept evolves on individual level due to daily level measures (Hansbrough et al., 2013). As a result, one could first understand if daily behaviors construe general perceptions and second,

investigate more closely how the daily component affects followers' well-being beyond the general perception. Same ideas apply also for general perceptions of followers and follower behavior.

## **6. Conclusion**

In the previous decades, increasingly more attention has been paid to well-being at work. Organizational research mostly focuses on the well-being of the followers, which is influenced by leaders. Needless to say, the responsibility for followers also puts the leaders' well-being at risk. In daily interactions in particular, leaders and followers might mutually boost or diminish each other's well-being. Therefore, in this dissertation I aimed to advance the research in this area, uncovering concrete behaviors of leaders and followers and their affective nature. Additionally, we showed that value-based alignment of a leader's words and actions increases trust in the leader and their effectiveness in stimulating the performance of their followers. The different parts of the dissertation shed a light on the importance of daily behaviors of leaders and followers for well-being and performance on different temporal dimension. The pursuit and deepening of our research can contribute to further developments of the process view of leadership. The primary objective of the dissertation was to derive valuable implications for the workplace. Therefore, I hope to motivate organizations to involve followers more actively in interventions, which have generally been reserved for only leaders of late, and make leaders aware of the importance that they walk their talk.

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**Conference Contributions and Scope of Responsibility**

	<b>Conference contributions</b>	<b>Responsibility</b>
1	<p>Gochmann, V., &amp; Ohly, S. (2017). What’s going on? Evaluating Event Taxonomies of Daily Leader-Follower Interactions. In <i>Academy of Management Proceedings</i>. Atlanta, USA.</p> <p>Gochmann, V., &amp; Ohly, S. (2015). Be a Good Leader – Everywhere, Every Time, for Everyone! Multilevel analysis of followers’ affect in daily leader interactions. Presentation at <i>Future of Leadership Research Symposium</i>, Amsterdam.</p> <p>Gochmann, V, Ohly, S., &amp; Hertwig, T. (2015). Quality of personal leader-follower relationship and daily affect. A multilevel analysis on explaining mechanism of daily behaviors and transformational leadership style. Presentation at <i>European Association of Work and Organizational Psychology Congress</i>, Oslo.</p> <p>Gochmann, V. &amp; Ohly, S. (2014). Analyse des Zusammenhangs von Führungsstil, täglichem Führungshandeln und affektiven Reaktionen der Mitarbeiter. Vortrag bei <i>Kongress der Deutschen Gesellschaft für Psychologie</i>, Bochum.</p>	<p>Jointly responsible for conceptual development. Solely responsible for data collection and data analyses.</p> <p>Primary responsible for manuscript development.</p>
2	<p>Gochmann, Stam &amp; Shemla (2018). When Visions and Goals go Hand in Hand – Investigating the Effects of Vision-Goal Alignment on Follower Performance. <i>International Organizational Behavior Conference</i>, Tel Aviv.</p> <p>Gochmann, Stam &amp; Shemla (2017). Visionen und Zielsetzung – zwei Motivationskonzepte verbünden sich. Vortrag bei <i>Tagung der Fachgruppe Arbeits-, Organisations- und Wirtschaftspsychologie (AOW) der Deutschen Gesellschaft für Psychologie (DGPs)</i>, Dresden.</p>	<p>Jointly responsible for conceptual development and data collection. Solely responsible for data analyses.</p> <p>Primary responsible for manuscript development</p>
3	<p>Gochmann, V. (2017). Switching perspectives: Daily affective work events from leaders’ viewpoint. Presentation at <i>European Association of Work and Organizational Psychology Congress</i>, Dublin.</p> <p>Gochmann, V. (2016). Switching perspectives: daily affective work events from leader's viewpoint. Vortrag bei, <i>Kongress der Deutschen Gesellschaft für Psychologie</i> Leipzig.</p>	<p>Solely responsible for conceptual development, data collection, data and manuscript development</p>



**APPENDIX**

**Appendix A: Excerpt of the reported events (follower behavior) from study 1**

Examples of open reports categorized in TALB (study 1)
<b>Feedback</b>
Ich habe eine Email von meiner Chefin mit Kritik an einem Entwurf, den ich ihr zugesendet hatte, bekommen
Feedback positive
Lob! Vom Chef vor den Kollegen: Im gegengensatz zu Ihnen war meine Planung professionell
Alle Mitarbeiter dürfen sich uf Kosten des Chefs etwas zum Mittagessen bestellen, da die Woche sehr gut lief, als er nicht da war
Feedback negative
Ich wurde darauf aufmerksam gemacht, dass wir (eine Kollegin und ich) nicht gut genug aufgeräumt haben. Es wurde mit einem Trick überprüft
Die Chefin zitierte mich gestern kurz angebunden in ihr Büro und befragte mich nach einem Fehler, den sie in meiner Arbeit gefunden hatte. Im Laufe des Gesprächs stellte sich heraus, dass es gar kein Fehler war sondern sie die Daten falsch gelesen hatte.
<b>Supporting</b>
Task oriented
Ich musste heute in der Mittagspause auf die Kinder aufpassen. Da ich alleine war, hat mich meine Führungskraft unterstützt. Die Aufgaben haben wir aufgeteilt.
Hilfestellung bei Technikfrage
Dringende aber ungeplante Besprechungsanfrage wurde sehr schnell und formlos akzeptiert.
person oriented
Meine Führungskraft hat mich unterstützt bzw. beruhigt, als ich festgestellt habe, dass mein Klient mir gegenüber unehrlich war. Zudem habe er mir Hinweise gegeben, wie ich mit diesem Klient zukünftig umgehen soll.
die frage nach einer halbstündigen arbeitsbefreiung zum privaten zweck wurde positiv freundlich beantwortet.
<b>Increasing strain</b>
Task oriented
Arbeitsaufträge werden durch das Telefon gegeben. Diese Sachen sind wichtig, meine Fragen werden als nicht so wichtig behandelt. Bis alls Sachen zu seiner Zufriedenheit geklärt sind, muss er 3x anrufen.
Es war viel Arbeit heute, der Unternehmungsleiter ist zu mir gekommen und hat gesagt, dass ich ca. 1 Stunde länger arbeiten soll. Er ist einfach weiter gegangen und wollte mich nicht mal anhören, ob ich zugestimmt habe oder nicht.

Er hat mir einen Arbeitsauftrag gegeben, von der ich nicht denke, dass er zu meinen Tätigkeiten gehört. (Vermutlich eine höher qualifizierte Tätigkeit)
<b>Person oriented</b>
Heute haben wir mit meinem Unternehmungsleiter meine Arbeitstage Einteilungen besprochen. Ich habe vorgeschlagen, dass ich mehr unter Woche zu Arbeit kommen werde, aber dafür weniger am Wochenenden. Mein Vorschlag würde ohne wichtige Gründe abgelehnt.
Bei Essen Gruppe an zwei Tische verteilt, alle angespannt, da Chef wieder schlechte Laune. Das spüren leider auch die Kinder
<b>Enhancing goal pursuit</b>
<b>Setting goal</b>
E-Mail Anfrage wichtiger Unterlagen mit Deadline
Eigentlich nichts Besonderes, nur ein übliches Telefonat, um die Arbeitsaufträge durchzugeben
<b>Informing</b>
Es ging um eine Besprechung an der ich gestern nicht teilnehmen konnte. Er hat mir davon berichtet.
Haben kurz über Eintragungsvorgaben in WinLims gesprochen. War lediglich informativ.
es wurden gewisse Änderungen besprochen - eine kurze Begegnung mit Info seitens der FK
<b>Monitoring</b>
Meine Führungskraft kam heute morgen in meinen Arbeitsbereich und sagt freundlich guten Morgen Herr ..... (was für eine Seltenheit, aber man freut sich) Dann fragt er nach dem Probeneingang und sagt na da haben Sie ja genug zutun und verlässt wieder
Eine Berechnung musste kurzfristig und unter Zeitdruck erstellt und an das Ministerium versandt werden. Die Führungskraft hat mein Arbeitsergebnis erhalten und es sorgfältig auf Fehler geprüft, bevor es versandt wurde.
Freundliche Nachfrage zum Feldstart einer Studie und ob alles ok sei, interessiert
<b>Solving problems</b>
Ein Meeting mit der Führungskraft, in dem eine Lösung ausdiskutiert wurde. Es wurden von beiden Seiten Lösungsvorschläge für anstehende Problematik gemacht und ausdiskutiert. Nun sind die weiteren Schritte festgelegt
Als ich zur Arbeit kam, hat mir die Führungskraft erzählt, dass es bei der Arbeit ein Problem mit Kunden gegeben hat. Bevor die Führungskraft nach Hause ging, erzählte sie mir detailliert, worum es sich handelt und welche Maßnahmen man ergreifen wird, um das Problem zu beheben.
<b>Planning and organizing</b>
Ich habe heute mit meinem Chef Absprachen zwecks Vorhaben im nächsten Jahr getroffen. Es kam darauf an, Material und Personal abzustimmen.
Leitungskraft ist neu; erstes Personalgespräch wegen Abstecken zukünftiger Aufgaben und Zuständigkeitsbereichen

Vorstellung des neuen Organigramms im Gesamtteam; ich merke für wie wichtig ich die neuen Strukturvorgaben halte und ich bin der Ansicht, dass das nicht nur Makulatur sondern realistisch ist und umsetzbar. Das gefällt mir.
<b>Participation in decisions</b>
erste gemeinsame Teamsitzung, die ganz gut verlief. In einer Gesprächssituation gab es guten Kontakt, informativ und auf Augenhöhe. Auch hat sie meine Meinung eingeholt und ich konnte meine Position vertreten und Zustimmung ernten
Teamsitzung mit Chef, konnte mich gut einbringen, beraten, wurde gehört
<b>Socializing</b>
Ich habe Geld für das hochzeitgeschenk unserer kollegin gesammelt, besprochen, wie das geld überreicht werden soll und mitgeteilt, dass ich ab 11:30 abwesend werde (daher schreibe ich zuerst heute).
Erster Tag nach Krankheit. Vorgesetzter wollte wissen wie die Operation verlief und nach allg. Wohlbefinden gefragt.
Besprächung wg der Hochzeit einer Arbeitskollegin - ganz kurz.
<b>Managing conflicts</b>
Konfliktgespräch mit dem Chef wegen mangelndem Informationsaustausch
Heute haben wir uns nach dem Streit ausgesprochen. Jetzt ist wieder Frieden eingetreten.
<b>Unethical behavior</b>
Besprechungstag mit Führungskraft und anderen Mitarbeitern. Eine Mitarbeiterin wurde für Ihren Arbeitsstil gerügt obwohl sie zu dieser Besprechung nicht anwesend war.
Auf eine Rückfrage eine spöttische Antwort und ein Kollege einen Rüffel bekommen
Situation mit allen Kindern und Mitarbeitern beim Mittagessen. Blöde Sprüche und Kommentare von direktem Vorgesetztem, die die Kinder noch nicht verstehen können und die auf Koten der Kinder stattfinden

*Notes.* These are original reports including the typology

## **Appendix B: Two vision manipulations of study 2 part 1**

*What follows is an excerpt of the guidelines of the Erasmus University Rotterdam. Please read these attentively.*

### **Vision Performance**

Are you looking for an excellent program, which allows you to compete with the best graduates upon completion? A program in which you can show that you've got what it takes? Then you've come to the right place!

We are convinced that our programs provide a foundation for you to use and display your personal potential and talents. The acquired knowledge will offer you a professional roadmap on the steep way to the top of the career ladder.

Our university offers you a goal-oriented education, which will guide you to an excellent degree and a successful career rather than distracting you with additional tasks and offers. In an atmosphere that rewards top performance, our students develop into competent and self-aware individuals that distinguish themselves from the crowd.

We expect you are willing to acquire the necessary expertise to successfully complete the course. We invite you to become part of university life, to display your extra-curricular skills, and thereby polish your CV.

Take the first step and start your education at Erasmus University of Rotterdam.

### **Vision Learning**

Are you looking for a multi-faceted program, which allows you to match experienced professionals upon completion? A program which you can develop your skills and talents in the best possible way? Then you've come to the right place!

We are convinced that our programs provide a foundation to utilize your personal potential and further your interests. The acquired knowledge will offer you a professional roadmap through the jungle of the complex modern world.

Our university offers you a comprehensive education, which will empower you to take on challenges and try new ways rather than fear risks. In a fun learning environment, our students develop into responsible and self-reflecting individuals.

We expect you are willing to critically deal with a variety of topics to develop a broad range of skills. We invite you to become part of university life, and to help shape it in order to leave your mark on the academic community.

Take the first step and start your education at Erasmus University of Rotterdam.

## **Appendix C: Vignettes of study 2 part 2**

### **Scenario 1: Work-Life-Balance – Work-Life-Balance**

You work as an indefinite full-time software developer for a company that creates IT-services for other companies. Your supervisor's name is Helen Williams. When she was appointed as manager two years ago she announced her vision for your team: "For me the balance of professional and private lives is the most important. I believe that every one of us works best and have the highest motivation when work and free time is balanced satisfactorily. I want you to have the working hours which fit to everyone personally. In particular, I will support you in part-time working, home office arrangements and sabbaticals if you like. Work-life-balance is our key component to have a healthy workplace and achieve success."

At present you modify and enlarge with a colleague an existing German headquarters' ERP-system (Enterprise-Resources-Planning) of a worldwide company that produces engines. You have worked hard on the purchasing, production and logistics modules because their processes gear so strongly into each other. It was challenging but you've enjoyed it and the huge insight into these departments. The modules operate well separately and together so that you have done a really good job. Now you meet the challenge of adapting the modules for human resources, financing and sales separately and then connecting each with the other modules. The launch of the renewed system was covenant in one months' time but the duration of your duties and responsibilities to finish the project are estimated approximately five to six weeks.

At the moment you are sitting in the team meeting with Helen and your colleagues. Helen is telling you: "Unfortunately, I cannot assign other team members to your ERP project. We will not meet this project's deadline if we continue to work as planned. So, please, quickly write a realistic suggestion of our schedule for the project until 4 p.m. today. The aim is to finish the project and start the launch in six weeks' time on Friday at 3 p.m. at the latest so that you won't have to work overtime. To reach this goal let's work concentrated and keep energized by enough free time activities. Let's hope our customer will understand that we cannot work us to death."

### **Scenario 2: Work-Life-Balance – Excellence**

You work as an indefinite full-time software developer for a company that creates IT-services for other companies. Your supervisor's name is Helen Williams. When she was appointed as manager two years ago she announced her vision for your team: "For me the balance of professional and private lives is the most important. I believe that every one of us works best and have the highest motivation when work and free time is balanced satisfactorily. I want you to have the working hours which fit to everyone personally. In particular, I will support you in part-time working, home office arrangements and sabbaticals if you like. Work-life-balance is our key component to have a healthy workplace and achieve success."

[The middle part is the same in all scenarios]

At the moment you are sitting in the team meeting with Helen and your colleagues. Helen is telling you: “Unfortunately, I cannot assign other team members to your ERP project. We will not meet this project’s deadline if we continue to work as planned. So, please, quickly write a new suggestion of our schedule for the project until 4 p.m. today. The aim is to finish the project and start the launch as planned in one month on Friday at 3 p.m. at the latest so it might happen that you have to work overtime. To reach this goal let’s not leave the office until the scheduled progress is reached - free time activities can wait a bit. Let’s prove our customer once more how excellent we are!”

**Scenario 3: Excellence – Excellence**

You work as an indefinite full-time software developer for a company that creates IT-services for other companies. Your supervisor’s name is Helen Williams. When she was appointed as manager two years ago she announced her vision for your team: “For me excellence is the most important. I believe that every one of us works best when customers’ satisfaction and production high quality solutions is driving us. I want you to perform always as best as you can no matter what and create amazing solutions. In particular I will support you in creating exquisite and innovative products by optimizing your workspace as you need it. Excellence is our key component to have a unique reputation and achieve success.”

[The middle part is the same in all scenarios]

At the moment you are sitting in the team meeting with Helen and your colleagues. Helen is telling you: “Unfortunately, I cannot assign other team members to your ERP project. We will not meet this project’s deadline if we continue to work as planned. So, please, quickly write a new suggestion of our schedule for the project until 4 p.m. today. The aim is to finish the project and start the launch as planned in one month on Friday at 3 p.m. at the latest so it might happen that you have to work overtime. To reach this goal let’s not leave the office until the scheduled progress is reached - free time activities can wait a bit. Let’s prove our customer once more how excellent we are!”

**Scenario 4: Excellence – Work-Life-Balance**

You work as an indefinite full-time software developer for a company that creates IT-services for other companies. Your supervisor’s name is Helen Williams. When she was appointed as manager two years ago she announced her vision for your team: “For me excellence is the most important. I believe that every one of us works best when customers’ satisfaction and production high quality solutions is driving us. I want you to perform always as best as you can no matter what and create amazing solutions. In particular I will support you in creating exquisite and innovative products by optimizing your workspace as you need it. Excellence is our key component to have a unique reputation and achieve success.”

[The middle part is the same in all scenarios]

At the moment you are sitting in the team meeting with Helen and your colleagues. Helen is telling you: “Unfortunately, I cannot assign other team members to your ERP project. We will not meet this project’s deadline if we continue to work as planned. So, please, quickly write a realistic suggestion of our schedule for the project until 4 p.m. today. The aim is to finish the project and start the launch in six weeks’ time on Friday at 3 p.m. at the latest so that you won’t have to work overtime. To reach this goal let’s work concentrated and keep energized by enough free time activities. Let’s hope our customer will understand that we cannot work us to death.”

**Appendix D: Excerpt of the reported events (leader behavior) from study 3**

Examples of open reports in the follower behavior category (study 3.1)
<b>Executing task</b>
Mitarbeiter hat eine anspruchsvolle Aufgabe gut erledigt.
Vereinbarte Aufgabe wurde durch den Mitarbeiter nicht gemäß Absprache ausgeführt, andere Aufgaben bleiben zudem liegen.
Obwohl es eine genaue Anweisung für die diplomatische Wortwahl bei Absagen von Mietinteressenten gibt, ruft die Mitarbeiterin heute wieder bei einem an und sagt: Ich muss Ihnen leider eine Absage erteilen....
Probe Gewinnung bei einem wenig kooperativen Patienten [Tier] gut gelungen
Vorstellung einer erarbeiteten Präsentation
<b>Extra-role behavior</b>
<b>Voice</b>
Mitarbeiter bringt einen Verbesserungsvorschlag ein, den ich mir am Abend zuvor ebenfalls ausgedacht habe.
Mitarbeiter hat eigenständig ein Projekt weiterbearbeitet und gute Ideen eingebracht.
<b>Feedback seeking</b>
SL fragte mich wie ich es immer wieder schaffe, den Überblick über alle Projektprioritäten zu halten und dazu noch technische und strategische Beiträge zum Projekt-Thema und damit den Projekterfolg bringen kann. Er möchte gerne davon lernen und sein
<b>OCB</b>
Hat eigentlich Urlaub, war trotzdem schon sehr früh am Arbeitsplatz. Kurzes Gespräch gefuehrt
Nur ein kurzer Kontakt,. Sehr herzliche, fröhliche Begrüssung. Er initiierte die Adventdeko ( wie ich heute erfuhr ), da ich zZ sehr angestrengt bin. Ich war sehr beeindruckt, über die eigenständige Initiative und Hilfe mir diese Aufgabe abzunehmen.
PS hat mich heute unterstützt, da ich alleine im Büro war und mehrere Telefone klingelten, und mehrere Kunden im Büro waren. Er ist, ohne Anweisung an das Telefon gegangen und hat den wartenden Kunden einen Kaffee gemacht. Dafür hab ich mich bedankt
<b>Contacting the leader</b>
<b>Upward delegation</b>
Mitarbeiter hat zum wiederholten mal nach einer Gehaltserhöhung gefragt.
Meine Mitarbeiterin war zu einer Fortbildung und möchte mit mir den Ablauf des Prozesses besprechen und erwartet meine Entscheidung wie ich an die Sache herangehe. Ich muss mich zwischen 2 Verfahren entscheiden. Wir einigten uns, daa darüber am nächst
<b>Demanding support</b>
Ein Kunde hat sich grundlos beschwert und MS hat nach endloser Diskussion mit diesem Kunden um Hilfe gebeten. Dadurch dass die Situation bereits vor der Eskalation war und die Charaktere sich niemals einigen konnten, bin ich als Schlichter neutral dazwis
Die Kollegin hatte mehrere Rückfragen zur Preisgestaltung in Zusammenhang mit der Versendung von Material an eine Tochtergesellschaft. Die Fragen konnten geklärt werden, so



dass sie den Input an die Tochtergesellschaft weitergeben konnte.
<b>Expressing opinion</b>
Der Mitarbeiter hat mich überzeugt, dass einer seiner Kollegen schlechte Arbeit verrichtet und er damit nicht zufrieden ist.
<b>CWB</b>
WR hat einen sehr wichtigen Termin vergessen und behauptete auch noch einern nicht davon gewusst zu haben, obwohl alle per Mail dazu eingeladen worden sind.
Meine Arbeitskollegin hat heute gegen die Kleiderordnung verstoßen, ich musste ihr erklären, dass sie so nicht zur Arbeit kommen kann. Sie hatte zu enge Kleidung für ihren Körperumfang an. Wir haben ein Vorschrift, dass wir uns passend kleiden müsse
Der Mitarbeiter hat heute nicht die Aufgaben gemacht, die ihn zugewiesen wurde. Er hat sich mit vollkommen anderen Dingen beschäftigt. Als ich ihn darauf angesprochen habe, hat er gesagt, dass er sich mit der Aufgabe beschäftigt. Er hat mich angelogen.
<b>Conflict management</b>
Bereinigung eines Konflikts
Der Mitarbeiter hat sich heute nicht direkt entschuldigt aber versucht sein Fehlverhalten vom Vortag ungeschehen zu machen, ohne es konkret anzusprechen. Er versuchte business as usual zu leben.

*Notes.* These are original reports including the typology

**Eidesstattliche Erklärung**

Hiermit versichere ich, dass ich die vorliegende Dissertation selbstständig, ohne unerlaubte Hilfe Dritter angefertigt und andere als die in der Dissertation angegebenen Hilfsmittel nicht benutzt habe. Alle Stellen, die wörtlich oder sinn-gemäß aus veröffentlichten oder unveröffentlichten Schriften entnommen sind, habe ich als solche kenntlich gemacht. Dritte waren an der inhaltlich-materiellen Erstellung der Dissertation nicht beteiligt; insbesondere habe ich hierfür nicht die Hilfe eines Promotionsberaters in Anspruch genommen. Kein Teil dieser Arbeit ist in einem anderen Promotions- oder Habilitationsverfahren verwendet worden.

Viktoria Gochmann