THE TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP COMMUNICATION OF SOCIALLY CLOSE AND DISTANT LEADERS ON VISION INTEGRATION

by

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my mom, Sue Weaver. There is no one who sacrificed more, believed in me more, dreamed with me more, wanted this for me more, worried more, or prayed more than she did. This dissertation serves as a reflection of all of the time she spent reviewing and editing my homework and papers through high school, undergrad, and beyond. What a wonderful blessing to have a teacher as a mom. Her combination of compassion and no-nonsense was what I needed and what I now strive to emulate. The completion of this degree is also a testament to the countless hours she spent praying for me no matter how minor or seemingly impossible the challenge. "The effective, fervent prayer of a righteous person avails much" (James 5:16).

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CHAPTER 1

Scholars have spent centuries considering the merits of various leadership styles and behaviors in an attempt to discover the best approach to leadership (Burns, 2003; Hackman & Johnson, 2013). Over the past several decades, focus has turned to charismatic and transformational leadership given the theoretical framework describing these leadership styles accounts for a broad view encompassing the trait, power, behavioral, and situational variables often considered separately in past approaches to leadership research (Antonakis & House, 2013; Burns, 2003; Banks, McCauley, Gardner, & Guler, 2016; Fairhurst & Connaughton, 2013; Hackman & Johnson, 2013; Hunt, 1999; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1991). Further, these theories capture the intangibility of those who demonstrate extraordinary influence over masses of followers through the articulation of a clear and compelling vision of future success (Bono & Judge, 2003; O'Reilly, Caldwell, Chatman, Lapiz, & Self, 2010; Tourish, 2002).

While attention remains on transformational and charismatic leadership, the difference between the two is vague (Avolio & Bass, 1988; 2001; Fairhurst & Connaughton, 2013; Hackman & Johnson, 2013; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1991; Yukl, 2006). There is a growing consensus to blend transformational and charismatic leadership into a single framework due to considerable overlap in behaviors (Antonakis & House, 2013; Cavazotte, Moreno, & Bernardo, 2013; Khatri, 2005). At their core, both types of leaders inspire, motivate, empower, and cast a compelling vision (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Conger & Kanungo, 1992; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). However, fundamental differences surface when examining these behaviors through a communication lens. This work illuminates these distinctions and tests the extent to which they impact an organization's ability to work contemporaneously toward collective success. Importantly, the distinction being examined is not between the classic, sociological Weberian

conception of charisma (1947) and transformational leadership as first conceived of by Burns (1978), as those differences are obvious and well documented. Rather the objective is to clarify the difference between organizational behaviorists' neo-charismatic leadership paradigm and the theory of transformational leadership (Bass, 1984, 2010) that many contemporary scholars place within that paradigm.

This work forwards that the point of distinction between charismatic and transformational leadership surfaces in the communication patterns and behaviors accompanying the visioning process. The visioning process is the manner in which a leader aligns an organization around a common conception of future success. This process includes behaviors associated with inspiring organizational members to support the vision, empowering them to believe they can accomplish it, and providing the necessary knowledge, skills, and resources to achieve it (Bass & Riggio, 2010; Kohls, Bligh, & Cartsen, 2012). Within the transformational leadership framework, leaders cultivate vision within followers through a combination of charismatic and personalized communication behaviors (Ewing & Lee, 2009; Hackman & Johnson, 2013). Specifically, transformational leaders inspire followers to change their self-concept and relinquish their own personal desires for the good of the collective organization in mass settings through charismatic, persuasive communication (Wang & Howell, 2012). Concurrently, they empower and instruct their immediate followers on how to enact their role, as it relates to the vision, through personalized, dyadic communication behaviors (Kohls, Bligh, & Cartsen, 2012).

Similarly, charismatic leaders provide persuasive, inspirational messages to followers in mass settings. However, unlike transformational leaders, they do not empower and instruct their direct reports on how to enact their role in interpersonal settings. The personalized messages couched within charismatic leadership theory are not informational, developmental, or task

related messages delivered in symmetrical, dyadic communication relationships (Rafferty & Griffen, 2006). Further, they are not personally tailored for each individual follower's needs, desires, and role. Nonetheless, followers perceive their charismatic leaders know, care for, and hear them individually. These leaders are able to communicate to large audiences of followers in a manner that appears personalized for the intention of persuasion (Bass, 1985; Beyer, 1999). Thus, the primary distinction between these leadership types will be revealed in the presence or absence of two-way, dyadic communication patterns between leaders and direct reports. Notably, both types of leaders use charismatic communication in mass contexts; however, transformational leaders additionally employ personalized, symmetrical communication in dyadic contexts.

Personalized, symmetrical communication between a leader and his or her direct report is crucial for the follower to know how to enact the vision. A leader may cast an organizationally beneficial and compelling vision, yet it will remain inconsequential if employees cannot perform the behaviors necessary to achieve it or if they do not know which behaviors are needed to achieve it (Kohles, Bligh, & Carsten, 2012). Learning to enact these behaviors occurs in contexts where employees ask questions, receive coaching, gain feedback, and adjust behavior (Hackman & Johnson, 2013; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). Followers are not passive recipients of vision communication but are crucial actors in the adoption of the vision throughout the organization (Cartsen & Bligh, 2007; Kohles, Bligh, & Carsten, 2012; Meindl, 1995; Shamir, Pillai, Bligh, & Uhl-Bien, 2007). The follower response, termed vision integration, occurs when one moves beyond cognitive and emotional acceptance of the vision to behavior change as a result of the vision (Kohles, Bligh, & Carsten, 2012).

Transformational leadership is a unique type of leadership because the behaviors encompassed within it allow a follower to receive the persuasive and informational messages needed to accept and act on the vision (Bass & Riggio, 2010). Transformational leadership has been conceptualized as featuring four distinct but interrelated facets: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Avolio & Bass, 2001). It is only when the characteristics of transformational leadership are enacted in a balanced manner with fairly equal and competent exhibition of communication behaviors in each of the four, key characteristics that effective, strategically directed, and permanent transformation occurs within an individual and across the organization on whole. This assertion is based off of the notion present within diffusion of innovation theory that contends both persuasive communication and informative communication are required for an individual and an organization collectively to adopt an innovation or new way of thinking (Rogers, 1995, 2003). For an individual to integrate something new, such as an idea or vision, he or she must be inspired as to the importance of it, be empowered to believe he or she can accomplish it, and receive the necessary knowledge, skills, and resources to achieve it (Bass, 1985, 2010). Thus, the difference between charismatic and transformational leadership is not only displayed in the patterns of communication between leaders and followers but also in individual and organizational outcomes. The level of follower buy-in achieved from transformational leadership extends beyond employees believing in the vision or even recognizing its importance to followers using the vision as a guiding framework to make sense of their individual role, reduce equivocality in their organizational environment, formulate their actions, and share the vision with others (Hackman & Johnson, 2013; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996).

Conceptually, transformational leadership is uniquely more effective than other leadership styles because the behaviors encompassed within it can be theoretically shown to result in vision integration. However, the manner in which transformational leadership is currently measured is void of basic communication concepts such as audience and context, which likely lessons its impact on organizational outcomes. Careful mapping of the influence processes within transformational leadership theory in tandem with considering the underlying leadership behaviors from a communication perspective, reveals that the leader who inspires a follower as to the importance of the vision is likely not the leader who serves as the primary means of empowerment for the follower. There are no clear-cut divisions between charismatic, inspiration-evoking communication from executive leadership and personalized, empowering communication from immediate supervisors. Yet, socially close leaders, such as direct supervisors, will typically communicate on an individual basis with their subordinates at regular intervals. They possess knowledge of subordinates' strengths and weaknesses and can tailor encouragement and feedback based on specific details of the subordinate's behavior and performance (Yagil, 1998). Alternatively, subordinates will rarely, if ever, meet with or interact directly and individually with socially distant leaders (Shamir, 1995). Recent research (e.g. Wang & Howell, 2012) indicates followers receive portions of their inspiration and empowerment in group communication environments and portions in individual communication environments. Further, employees have preferences regarding from whom they receive organizational information in addition to the context and channel through which the information is delivered. Employees prefer role related information from direct supervisors and vision related information from leaders at higher levels in the organization (Grunig et al., 1992; Ruck & Welch, 2012; Van Riel, 1995; Welch & Jackson, 2007). As such, this work contends employees are

likely to integrate the vision into their work more fluidly and completely when messages are appropriately delivered by each of these leaders. Thus, the behaviors encompassed in transformational leadership theory are unlikely to be enacted by any one leader toward an individual employee but rather by leaders at multiple levels of the organization. This proposition is in stark contrast to much of the extant leadership literature (e.g. Bottomley, Burgess, & Fox, 2014; Khatri, 2005; Pearce & Sims, 2002; Podsakoff, 1990; Posner & Kouzes, 1993) which measures transformational leadership by the extent to which a leader's direct subordinates view him or her as enacting all four of the key behaviors.

Employing the theories of distributed leadership (Copland, 2003; Gronn, 2002; Spillane et al., 2004) and diffusion of innovations (Rogers, 2003), this study suggests an organization's transformation around a common vision involves the behaviors of multiple leaders each of whom may display all four of the characteristics of transformational leadership. Yet, each leader likely employs specific leadership behaviors and associated communication behaviors at different times to different audiences based on the leader's position in the organization and his or her role in relation to the follower. Executive leaders with the responsibility to inspire the masses will employ idealized influence and inspirational motivation in the form of charismatic communication. These same leaders will display individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation in the form of personalized, symmetrical communication when coaching direct reports on how to enact the vision. The dyadic communication between the top, executive leader and his or her subsidiary top leaders is the impetus that prompts the vision to spread dyadically from supervisor to subordinate throughout the ranks of the organization. When an organization's leadership structure over-emphasizes one of the transformational leadership characteristics at the expense of the others, the change process will likely be hindered at both the individual and

organizational level. For instance, employees may know about the vision but not be motivated to achieve it; they may believe they can achieve the vision but not be empowered to possess the necessary skills to accomplish it; an employee may have the necessary skills but remain unclear on his or her specific role in helping to accomplish the vision; or he or she may understand his or her role but not recognize the need to share the vision with others.

Thus, the objective of this research is threefold. First, it will highlight the difference between charismatic and transformational leadership through explicating the leadership and communication behaviors enacted by both types of leaders and the associated outcomes of those behaviors. Second, this research will empirically test the extent to which multiple organizational leaders are required for vision integration. Third, this study will articulate the diffusion processes involved in the flow of certain vision related ideas from the executive level through middle management.

Specifically, at the individual level, this work will test the extent to which two-way communication between supervisor and subordinate is crucial for instilling confidence in the follower, instructing him or her on how to incorporate the vision into daily actions, and guiding him or her on how to pass on the vision to others. Past research on transformational leadership has emphasized the importance of the leader-follower relationship. While some have recognized the necessity of this relationship being dyadic (Kark & Shamir, 2013; Howell & Wang, 2012) and symmetrical (Farmer, Slater, & Wright, 1998; Grunig & Grunig, 1992), scholars have yet to conclude precisely why two-way communication impacts the influence process of transformational leaders (Kohles, Bligh, & Carsten, 2012). Further, for vision integration to occur, this research forwards that in addition to dyadic communication between supervisor and

subordinate, an employee must hear about the vision and be inspired toward it by the executive leader in a group setting (Howell & Wang, 2012; Postumes, Spears, & Lea, 1999).

From a system-level perspective, this work will test the extent to which two-way communication between the executive leader and his direct reports – meaning subsidiary top leaders in vice president level roles impacts a subsidiary top leaders' willingness to communicate the vision on to his or her staff. Further, it will test the extent to which transformational leadership begins with an executive leader who selects specific, key influencers throughout the organization to influence while simultaneously inspiring the masses. Equally important to understanding how leaders influence is considering whom transformational leaders influence (Kark & Shamir, 2013). The notion that there is an order or priority to who receives vision communication for effective vision integration is not widely considered within leadership research. This work proposes that subsidiary top leaders are critical brokers in the flow of vision related information throughout the organization.

The present study extends the field of organizational communication in several ways. It first provides a comparison between charismatic and transformational leadership and demonstrates the differing impact that these leadership styles may have on an organization's alignment around a vision. Second, it demonstrates the primary difference between transformational and charismatic leaders is the use of personalized, symmetrical communication. Employing the theories of distributive leadership (Copland, 2003; Gronn, 2002; Spillane et al., 2004) and diffusion of innovations (Rogers, 2003), this study suggests not only why two-way communication is imperative for vision integration but also between whom the vision communication should be taking place. Third, transformational leadership theory is advanced by suggesting it is a form of distributive leadership, where the behaviors required for vision

integration involves multiple leaders working interdependently. Fourth, because structure is critical to diffusion of innovations and distributive leadership, this work illuminates the importance of subsidiary top leaders in the vision diffusion process - a portion of leadership structure that has not been widely studied but is arguably central to vision integration.

Consideration of communication processes has been largely ignored in the study of leadership and vision (Ewing & Lee, 2009; Kohles, Bligh, & Carsten, 2012), and there continue to be calls for research to investigate the composition of effective vision communication (e.g. Stam et al., 2010). The proposed study aims to provide theoretical and empirical explanation of several of the key communication characteristics of transformational leadership. It is expected that this research will substantiate the importance of a combination of personalized, symmetrical leadership communication and charismatic, mass leadership communication and thus prompt future scholars to avoid blending those leadership styles that endorse only charisma with others that include actual dyadic, personalized leadership.

CHAPTER 2

The continued prevalence of interest in leadership throughout history speaks to humanity's inherent presentiment regarding leadership as a powerful yet elusive phenomenon. Leadership is a force that individuals regardless of industry, culture, and class desire to understand and harness (Burns, 2003). Despite the ever-growing body of scholarship and pragmatic evidence showing leadership's strong impact, disagreement remains concerning the extent to which leadership, specifically executive leadership, directly influences the success of an organization (e.g. Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996; Bono & Judge, 2003; Delbecq, House, de Luque, & Quigley, 2013; Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). Empirical support for cause and effect linkages between leadership variables and organizational outcomes has proven difficult to quantify (Wang, Oh, Courtright, & Colbert, 2011). However, there is growing evidence substantiating a relationship between organizations with a clearly defined vision, a culture aligned to meet objectives, and favorable organizational outcomes (Baum, Locke, & Kirkpatrick, 1998; House, Spangler, & Woycke, 1991; Howell & Frost, 1989; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996; Kohles, Bligh, & Carsten, 2012). To this end, there is a renewed interest over the past two decades in the visionary, inspirational, and cultural aspects of leadership and subsequently on the new paradigm of charismatic and transformational leadership across disciplines (Hoch, Bommer, Dulebohn, & Wu, 2016).

Visionary Leadership

Several scholars have suggested the processes leaders use to inspire, empower, and motivate toward a common vision are still ambiguous (Kark & Shamir, 2013; Yukl, 1989, 2006). Scholars speak in generalities as opposed to deciphering and empirically dissecting the dynamics that underlie the visioning process. While the combination of the key transformational leadership

behaviors has proven to lead to positive organizational outcomes (e.g. self-efficacy, collective efficacy, satisfaction, organizational citizenship, reduced turnover, organizational commitment, job performance, etc.), research has yet to map specific behaviors to outcomes (Bono & Judge, 2003; Ewing & Lee, 2009; Kark & Shamir, 2013).

Without a clear path between various leadership processes and outcomes, researchers expectedly continue to notice and draw attention to a widening organizational issue termed the "implementation gap" (Floyd & Wooldridge, 1992; Kleinbaum & Stuart, 2014). This gap exists when management has developed a strategic direction or vision for the organization, yet inconsistencies remain between its conception and the manner and degree to which the strategy is implemented across the organization. A recent, multi-industry survey indicates 80% of leaders feel their company is effective at crafting strategy but only 44% consider their company as successful in implementing strategy. Moreover, leaders suspect only 5% of employees have a basic understanding of the company strategy and attribute this number to lack of middle management buy-in (Speculand, 2013). The muddying of concepts within charismatic and transformational leadership into one paradigm likely prompts leaders to assume they are being transformational even if they overemphasize charisma and subsequently mutate the other core transformational leadership behaviors. Thus, it is not surprising that leadership theorists and practitioners are left wondering why, after countless leadership books and decades of research, the primary problem in organizations remains the gap between the leader's vision and the organization's implementation of the vision (Floyd & Wooldridge, 1992; Riccò & Guerci, 2014; Speculand, 2013).

Research on transformational and charismatic leadership does not explicitly measure an organization's transformation, prompting some scholars (e.g. Antonakis & House, 2013; Kohles,

Bligh, & Carsten, 2012, 2013) to suggest the term transformational is overly ambitious for the phenomenon it describes. While it is vital that a leader communicates vision and inspires the recipient of the vision communication to enact it, additional focus needs to be on the dynamics that exist to help the follower internalize the vision, integrate it into everyday life, compel and equip him or her to pass the vision on to others, and ultimately align the entire organization around a common vision. The current study answers, in part, calls by Kohles, Bligh, and Carsten (2012, 2013) for researchers to consider new outcome variables when analyzing the effectiveness of various leadership styles. While the concept of *transformation,* meaning the outcome or change that results from transformational leadership, is understood conceptually to be effort above and beyond expectation, transformational leadership research should measure whether that effort is (1) strategically directed toward a common vision and (2) integrated throughout the entire organization.

Scholars (e.g. Cartsen & Bligh, 2007; Kohles, Bligh, & Carsten, 2012; Meindl, 1995; Shamir, Pillai, Bligh, & Uhl-Bien, 2007) have emphasized the need to go beyond employing a leader-centric, top down approach to studying vision casting and communicating. Instead, researchers must consider the extent to which a leader is able to transform the entire organization around a common vision. A transformational leader prompts the diffusion of vision by orchestrating a visioning process where he or she serves as the impetus for vision communication and individualized mentorship behaviors to flow through middle management. This type of leadership communication ultimately empowers every follower to use the vision as a guide to align his or her individual cares, concerns, values, and tasks with the overall direction of the organization.

Vision

A vision is the articulation by a leader of a desired future state (Bennis & Nanus, 1997). Some conceptualize it as a blueprint of the future (Tichy & DeVanna, 1986), a roadmap (Barge, 1994), agenda (Kotter, 1982), or a set of beliefs about how followers' should act to achieve the desired future state (Strange & Mumford, 2002, 2005). If an organization has fully achieved its objectives and is operating in a manner that unequivocally fulfills the leaders' ideals of organizational success, then the vision is realized. However, vision integration is sometimes difficult to achieve. Vision statements are often considered inconsequential words on the break room bulletin board with little applicability to present-day decisions or tasks (Oswold, Mossholder, & Harris, 1994). Follower disillusionment and distrust occurs because followers see the vision as divorced from reality - mere rhetoric, unfounded talk meant to motivate them to work harder toward the preverbal carrot (Coulson-Thomas, 1992). Further, no one is providing instruction or help on how to achieve the vision, and there are inconsistencies with regard to its importance - considered crucial in some contexts and absent in others, and by some managers it is regularly cited and by others repeatedly discredited. Scholars have thus begun to differentiate between the generic term "vision" and "strategic vision". The latter is an envisioned future state that is integral to the strategic planning process (Coulson-Thomas, 1992; Oswald, Mossholder, & Harris, 1994).

Charismatic Leadership

The concept of vision is central to charismatic leadership (Berson et al., 2001; Hackman & Johnson, 2013). Charismatic leadership is used to describe an authority seen by followers as possessing an extraordinary and divinely-bestowed ability to transcend the realm of the known and envision a better future state (Weber, 1947). Charismatic leadership was first considered by

sociologists and political scientists (e.g. Burns, 1978; Eisenstadt, 1968; Geertz, 1977; Shils, 1965; Weber, 1947) who emphasized the attributes of charisma as they observed politicians, religious leaders, and other authorities who evoked great emotion and unfettered loyalty among followers. Within these early conceptions, much emphasis was placed on the locus of charisma – some emphasizing the relationship between leader and follower (e.g. Dow, 1969; Marcus, 1961) and others the socio-historical context as the source of charisma (Blau, 1963; Chinoy, 1961; Friedland, 1964; Wolpe, 1968).

Organizational scholars have aimed to illuminate specific behaviors of charismatic leaders, namely their proclivity to emerge during times of crises and present an appealing vision that is radical, to act in unconventional ways (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2011; Conger, 1989; Martin & Siehl, 1983, Weber, 1947), to sacrifice all for the sake of the espoused vision, to inspire others to follow by way of unquestioning trust in the leader, and to evoke action based on aroused confidence (Conger & Kanungo, 1987). Despite the centrality of communication skills within numerous conceptions of charismatic leadership (e.g. Conger & Kanungo, 1987, 1988, Trice & Beyer, 1993; Waldman, Ramirez, House, & Puranam, 2001), the predominant scale used to measure the construct – Conger-Kanungo Charisma Scale (Conger & Kanungo, 1988) does not factor in communication behaviors (Levine, Muenchen & Brooks, 2010).

In a study conducted by Levine, Muenchen and Brooks (2010), 422 respondents were asked to describe in open-ended form the behaviors of charismatic leaders, and communication was unsurprisingly a predominant theme. The specific characteristics mentioned included possessing the ability to speak well in front of a group; the characteristics of being loud, outgoing, poised, confident, humorous, charming, influential, positive, interesting, having a large vocabulary, and a genuine speaking style; and the ability to listen and empathize with others.

Within the same study, a second open-ended question asked respondents specifically about the communication behaviors of charismatic leaders, and the researchers found responses incorporated most elements of communication. Public speaking proved to be the most important ability of a charismatic leader, specifically "ease and comfort when speaking", "able to be effective and appealing in front of a group", "able to present ideas with confidence", "has a pleasant and positive vocal style", and "able to motivate a group". After public speaking, importance centered on "being persuasive", "having ideas", "being a strong leader", and "having definite opinions and setting and achieving goals". The third factor concentrated on "being perceptive and affective verbally and nonverbally". The fourth emphasized how the leader interacted with others, namely the ability to generate ideas and a willingness to listen to the ideas of others. The final factor similarly emphasized the relational aspect of leadership, specifically the leader "communicates effectively to other people", "asks for others to share ideas and opinions", and "is interested in what others think and feel".

Transformational Leadership

Whereas charismatic leadership's impetus is eliciting emotion and followers' identification and commitment to the leader (House, 1977), theories of transformational leadership consider emotion and the leader necessary but not sufficient components. Burns (1978) first presented transformational leadership as a process between follower and leader where action is not motivated on the basis of transaction (transactional leadership), or meeting current, felt needs (the charismatic) but by appealing to higher ideals where the follower understands the larger situation and the importance of his or her contribution to the greater good. Bass (1985) contends transformational leaders dramatically increase follower effort to a level above and beyond expectation, and they do so through behaviors associated with two core

processes – first, inspiring each follower to change the value he or she places on his or her own individual needs and second empowering each follower to increase his or her confidence. Within the first of these two processes, transformational leaders elevate followers' needs by raising their awareness of the consequences of achieving only their current, individual needs. They help followers transcend their self-interests for the betterment of the larger group or organization. These leaders show followers by sacrificing individual needs they will receive intrinsic reward, which surpasses the short-term, less-fulfilling extrinsic reward. The individual follower realizes great value should be placed in satisfying these higher order needs. Subsequently, with increased value, followers escalate their desire to meet these needs. Concurrently, transformational leaders increase followers' confidence in their ability to achieve higher order needs through a combination of social support in the form of encouragement and developmental support through increased skills, opportunities, and resources (Avolio & Bass, 2001; Bass, 1985, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1990).

Followers are compelled to elevate needs and increase confidence due to specific behaviors and attributes of their leader termed the four I's of transformational leadership: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Avolio, Waldman, & Yammarino, 1991). Other scholars have found similar behaviors to be exemplary and constructed categories that closely mirror the four I's of transformational leadership. Bottomley, Burgess, and Fox (2014) summarize transformational leadership behaviors into vision builder, standard bearer, integrator, and developer. Kouzes and Posner (2003) contend effective leaders challenge the process, inspire a shared vision, enable others to act, model the way, and encourage the heart. Pearce and Sims (2002) include the behaviors of vision, idealism, inspirational motivation, and intellectual stimulation. Podskoff's

(1990) conception of transformational leadership encompasses the leader identifying and articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model for employees, fostering acceptance of group goals, setting high performance expectations, providing individual support, and intellectual stimulation. While these groupings align closely with Bass and Avolio's (1990) original conception, discrepancy exists. Bass and Avolio include only two behavior sets in the charismatic portion of their scale (e.g. idealized influence and inspirational motivation), and others divide out charisma into additional categories to account for the construction of the vision, inspiring others toward the vision, and idealism of the leader and the vision (e.g. Khatri, 2005). Further, Pearce and Sims (2002) omit the individualized consideration component of Bass and Avolio's original model and Kouzes and Posner (1988; 2003) divide out individualized consideration into two behavior sets (e.g. enabling others to act and encouraging the heart).

Within Bass and Avolio's (1990) conception, inspirational motivation is considered the extent to which a leader inspires followers about the possibility of a better future through the articulation of a clear and compelling vision. In doing so, the leader motivates followers to place great value in the future and willingly forego their self-serving, short-term needs and desires for the benefit of something perceived as greater, nobler, and intrinsically satisfying. Thus, the leader changes the value individuals place on their needs and desires by redefining success. The leader convinces followers that each one has the opportunity to gain something superior to that which he or she could achieve working individually, but greater gain can only be attained if the follower willingly foregoes his or her personal desires and values the group's collective success. The leader points to shared goals and creates mutual understanding of what is important and what the group should be striving toward. The vision is thus perceived as a state where the group benefits and the individual benefits. In the articulation of an appealing future, some leaders will

point out the flaws in followers' current situation as a means to emphasize the splendor of the envisioned future where the vision painted is opposite of followers current circumstances. In addition to the leader redefining the group's success and values, inspirational motivation includes behaviors associated with the leader's articulation of his or her confidence in the group's ability to achieve the vision if members work together (Avolio, Waldman, & Yammarino, 1991).

Idealized influence, the second component of the charismatic portion of transformational leadership, explains how leaders connect with followers and solicit their support. Through the behaviors encompassed within idealized influence, leaders demonstrate they have the long-term wellbeing of the group in mind. Followers view the leader as having extraordinary capabilities, as one who knows more than they do, enthusiastically takes risks, and suffers personal loss for the benefit of the group. The leader is viewed by followers as being larger than life – almost god like. Yet simultaneously, he or she is perceivably humble and willing to sacrifice for followers. This dichotomous combination of superiority and humility draws followers to idealize the leader, trust and identify with him or her, and imitate what the leader says and does. The leader serves as a role model, and thus followers desire to emulate him or her and are willing in like manner to sacrifice for the group. The behaviors within the category of idealized influence include acting with integrity, consciousness, dominance, moral judgment, self-control, optimism, and self-efficiency. Idealized influence contains leadership attributes associated with building trust, admiration, and respect. Leaders displaying idealized influence do not take shortcuts and are not swayed by short-term, superfluous gain, instead they consider moral and ethical consequences and always strive for that which is ideal for everyone under their leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2001).

Individualized consideration is the extent to which a leader directs individual attention and understands the distinctive needs of his or her followers as opposed to treating all as having the same needs. The leader listens to each follower, spends time with him or her, and builds confidence through encouragement, developing skills, and providing resources. The behaviors of individualized consideration are consistent with a mentor who learns the strengths and weaknesses of his or her mentee and provides training to help him or her achieve optimal potential (Yammarino, Spangler, & Bass, 1993). Further, individualized consideration is considered in theory to include behaviors where the leader serves as a personal advocate willing to draw from his or her own resources and connections to remove obstacles and help the follower develop (Avolio, Waldman, & Yammarino, 1991). Bass (1985) explained individualized consideration as a mindset that permeates all of a transformational leader's behaviors - from the construction of the vision, to empowering followers to build confidence, to developing followers' with the skills needed to enact vision related behaviors. In his original model of transformational leadership, he included social and developmental support within the framework of individualized consideration. However later conceptions of individualized consideration and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X) (Bass & Avolio, 1990) include items on social support but exclude developmental support. This conception of support behaviors more closely mirrors those described in charismatic leadership, namely providing encouragement and showing general acceptance and support of follower efforts.

The category of intellectual stimulation includes behaviors that prompt followers to understand the entirety of a given situation through the use of logic and reason. Followers are encouraged to see both their current situation and the future from a new perspective untainted by past social influences and repetition. They are compelled to recognize the deficiencies in their

present circumstances and are empowered to think outside of the box and discover new ways to move beyond the present to achieve the leader's vision of the future. Intellectual stimulation involves the leader's explanation of why his or her vision of the future is ideal and why the current situation is lacking (Avolio, Waldman, & Yammarino, 1991).

In the original conception of transformational leadership, the four I's were considered to be exclusively enacted by leaders in the upper levels of an organization's hierarchy (e.g. Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978). Specifically, idealized influence and inspirational motivation, the two core behavior sets within charisma, were understood as innate and enacted by those in executive positions. This perspective on charisma began to shift in later conceptions of transformational leadership contending charisma can be enacted by leaders at all levels of the organization (e.g. Bass 1999; Conger, 1989; Hunt, 1999). Further, scholars disagree on whether charisma is inherent or learned (Antonakis, Fenley, & Liechti, 2011). While uncertainty remains on these fundamental issues, transformational leadership continues to be measured at the direct supervisor level within each of its primary measures (e.g. Bottomley, Burgess, & Fox, 2014; Khatri, 2005; Pearce & Sims, 2002; Podsakoff, 1990; Posner & Kouzes, 1993). In order to allow transformational leadership to be independent of organizational level, scholars reconcile the inherent dichotomy that exists between charismatic behaviors and individualized behaviors by either taming charisma to a point where it can be enacted by middle level managers (Beyer, 1999) or redefining individualized consideration to behaviors that even distant executives can perform (Avolio, 1995). This led scholars to question why charisma as originally conceptualized by Weber (1947) and House (1977) is not measured (Levine, Muenchen, & Brooks, 2010) and why individualized consideration as defined conceptually by Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) is

likewise not measured within the predominant transformational leadership scales (Rafferty & Griffen, 2006).

Charismatic and Transformational Leadership Compared

In Conger's (1999) evaluation of the three dominant models of charismatic and transformational leadership (e.g. Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Bass & Avolio, 1993; and Shamir & colleagues, 1993), he notes several areas of similarity. All three models center on transforming the attitudes, beliefs, values and subsequently the behaviors of followers as opposed to using control strategies. All three models emphasize the use of vision and the articulation of the need and/or benefit of working toward a better future state. Both charismatic and transformational leaders appeal to higher order needs and help the follower realize the benefit in looking beyond their current circumstances. Both types of leaders serve as role models. Both employ intellectual stimulation, meaning making, empowerment, the setting of high expectations, and the fostering of collective identity. Yet, within the areas of overlap, there are a several key differences in how the leader enacts these behaviors.

While both leadership types rely on formulating and articulating an appealing vision, one of the chief distinctions between charismatic and transformational leadership is the composition of the vision espoused. In Conger and Kanungo's behavioral model of charismatic leadership (1998), they assert the charismatic leader is less likely to consider the individual follower in the formation of the vision. Instead, he or she considers the external environment and opportunities. The charismatic leader uses this information to present a vision opposite of the current status quo, naming only the negative characteristics of the current situation and the positives of the future vision state. Contrarily, the transformational leader knows his or her followers

individually and the vision is a combination of the individual followers' collective needs (Bass, 1985).

Additionally, both leaders use empowerment strategies, but again there are important differences. The charismatic leader empowers by using individualized consideration in the form of social support, encouragement, showing respect, trust, and letting followers know he or she believes in their capability to accomplish the task (Conger and Kanungo, 1998). This does not necessarily mean the leader spends individualized time with his or her followers. Rather, the follower perceives the leader as sensitive to his or he needs. Transformational leaders likewise show individualized consideration in the form of social support, but they additionally emphasize developmental activities - mentoring and coaching. The transformational leader knows the unique strengths and weakness of each follower and then coaches the individual to improve and perform above and beyond expectation to achieve the vision (Bass, 1985).

The distinction in influence strategies centers on the differing levels of importance attributed to the identification of the follower with the leader. Charismatic leadership centers on followers looking solely to the leader for direction and following in a non-rational manner; followers trust the leader unreservedly and consider him or her as superhuman with the divine ability to know and see what is best (House, 1977). While both types of leaders enact the behavior of role model, charismatic leadership takes it much further. Gardner and Avolio (1998) suggest charismatic leaders will knowingly exaggerate their ability in order to ensure followers view them as extraordinary. Subsequently, for the charismatic leader there is potentially a large discrepancy between his or her actual and perceived competence because the leader's influence is based on followers viewing the leader as all knowing and larger than life. The centrality of the leader within charismatic leadership is the basis for the leader's extreme, risky behaviors

(Conger and Kanungo, 1998). He or she must act in a manner that differentiates him or her from the masses in order to prove his or her extraordinary ability and unwavering commitment to the vision he or she is propagating.

Where a charismatic leader uses emotional appeals, a transformational leader uses intellectual stimulation, explaining the underlying logic behind the vision casted (Bass, 1985). Intellectual stimulation in the form of explicating the logic behind the vision requires a willingness to be transparent and have one's reasoning and intentions questioned. Both House (1977) and Conger and Kanungo (1989, 1998) underline the use of impression management by the charismatic leader. Allowing a follower to be aware of the leader's reasoning makes the leader vulnerable and his or her reputation (the linchpin of his or her influence) to be potentially weakened. Bass asserts the charismatic leader oversimplifies problems causing followers to make hasty, unsound responses. The transformational leader elevates followers and structures problems for their easier comprehension. The transformational leader directs focus to the vision as opposed to him or herself. Conger (1999) notes in his review of transformational leadership "While the leader plays a crucial role in articulating and generating excitement about the mission, the goals can be as influential as the leader. As a matter of fact, if the leader were to become too much of the centerpiece, it is implicitly assumed that this would undermine their ability to develop leaders below and to effectively empower followers" (Conger, 1999, p. 158). It is worth noting that the charismatic leader likewise uses a form of intellectual stimulation but in the sense of encouraging followers to "intellectually challenge" their current situation and become so disgusted with their current state that they recognize the necessity of change at all (including risky and irrational) costs (Conger, 1999).

Society's understanding of exemplary leadership would be enhanced through stepping back to re-examine the conceptual framework of transformational leadership. This includes a dissection and delineation of the processes explained within transformational leadership, the behaviors associated with those processes, and the likely outcomes. The discrepancy that exists across models indicates there is confusion as to the distinction in processes within this leadership type (Hackman & Johnson, 2013; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1991). It appears scholars do not have a firm grasp on which transformational leadership behaviors are empowering, inspiring, and motivating. They include similar behaviors in their conception and measurement of transformational leadership, yet they theorize those behaviors as serving diverse purposes. Subsequently, behaviors and processes become blended across models, and the overall body of scholarship is distorted (Van Knippenberg, 2013). Further, charismatic leadership is included as another form of transformational leadership because it borrows concepts and terms from transformational leadership. In response, this work begins at the core of transformational leadership and attempts to organize the behaviors encompassed within it by using fundamental communication concepts as the conduit to link each of the transformational leadership behavior with its corresponding influence processes and outcomes. Further, by examining transformational leadership through the lens of communication theory, we see specific factors within it that are in direct opposition to the tenants of charismatic leadership.

Transformational Leadership Communication

Several processes take place concurrently to transfer the vision from leader to follower. In the original conception of transformational leadership, House (1977) and later Bass (1985) explain two specific criteria used in influencing followers to perform above and beyond expectation. The first centers on employees' values being elevated to recognize the betterment of

the group as an end superior to one's own individual gain. The second emphasizes increasing followers' confidence so they believe they can contribute to the accomplishment of the lofty, far-reaching, self-sacrificial vision. Within the second process of building confidence, Bass also includes the need to develop employees so they not only have the confidence to accomplish the vision but have the necessary skills. While Bass contends individualized consideration, inspirational motivation, idealized influence, and intellectual stimulation are enacted by the leader to bring about these two criteria of elevated values and increased confidence, the mapping of leadership behaviors associated with the four I's to these two criteria remains vague (Bono & Judge, 2003; Ewing & Lee, 2009; Kark & Shair, 2013; Wang & Howell, 2012; Yukl, 1998, 2006).

By layering communication scholarship, specifically the concept of social distance (Antonakis, 2002), with the most recent work on transformational leadership, this study will suggest the specific transformational leadership behaviors that are inspiration evoking and those that are empowering. Each of the two overarching processes of transformational leadership (elevating values and building confidence) contain sub processes (e.g. changing follower identity, increasing follower confidence and commitment, and developing follower skills) of which some require two-way communication from a close, direct leader and others require one-way communication from a distant leader. The latest research in transformational leadership indicates the leadership behaviors of individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation are dyadic-level, individual focused behaviors and idealized influence and inspirational motivation are group-level behaviors (Wang & Howell, 2012; Wu et al., 2010). Thus by employing a communication approach to leadership behaviors encompassed within transformational leadership theory, we are able to see which behaviors lead to specific outcomes. Moreover, it is

possible to establish which leaders within the organization should be inspirationally elevating values and which should be focused on empowering confidence in followers in order to achieve individual and organizational transformation. See Table 1 for a summary of the transformational leadership influence processes, behaviors, source and direction of leader communication, and the associated organizational outcomes.

Table 1: Social Distance Indicates Transformational Leadership Behavior

Process	Source[a]	Direction	Behavior	Outcome
Elevating Needs	Socially Distant	Asymmetrical	Idealized Influence Inspirational Motivation	Social Identity
Building Confidence	Socially Distant	Asymmetrical	Idealized Influence Inspirational Motivation	Collective - Efficacy
	Socially Distant	Asymmetrical	Idealized Influence Inspirational Motivation	Org. Commitment
	Socially Close	Dyadic	Individualized Consideration Intellectual Stimulation	Role Breadth Self- Efficacy
	Socially Close	Dyadic	Individualized Consideration	Job Commitment
	Socially Close	Dyadic	Individualized Consideration	Development

[a] *Note*. Socially close leader denotes a direct supervisor and socially distant leader denotes one who is two or more organizational levels above a given employee.

Message Direction and Message Source

The bulk of research conducted over the past three decades on transformational leadership and the primary measure of transformational leadership (The Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire – MLQ 5X; Avolio & Bass, 2001) suggest a leader exhibits all four of the key transformational leadership behaviors to all of his or her followers (Ewing & Lee, 2009). Transformational leadership is considered by most a individual level of leadership between immediate supervisor and subordinate (Antonakis, 2002); however transformational leadership scholars have yet to account for some of our most basic communication concepts such as audience and context. They do not consider the possibility that a leader adjusts behavior based on his or her relationship to the follower, the setting, the leader's role in the organization, etc.

(Antonakis, 2002). Transformational leadership theory does not include the notion that certain communication behaviors are enacted by leaders when communicating to the masses and other leadership behaviors are enacted when communicating to direct reports. Communication scholarship readily supports the notion that any given employee will receive specific leadership behaviors from his or her direct supervisor in dyadic settings and other leadership behaviors from his or her executive leader in mass settings (Yagil, 1998). Thus, some transformational leadership behaviors are enacted by an executive leader and others are more likely enacted by a direct supervisor. Further, it is worth noting that from the perspective of a leader, he or she may be an executive to many while simultaneously being a direct supervisor to a few. Accordingly, a leader may display all dimensions of the transformational leadership behaviors, yet at different times to different followers.

The notion that leaders have differing relationships and thus enact different behaviors with various followers has often been tied to leader-member exchange theory (Dansereau, Graen, Haga, 1975; Diensch & Liden, 1986; Graen & Scandura, 1987), a dyadic level theory within organizational communication scholarship. This work aims to demonstrate that the behaviors encompassed in transformational leadership theory are not exclusively enacted in dyadic relationships and thus cannot be fully explained through leader-member exchange theory. Within this study, leader-follower relationships are not measured on the basis of quality but rather distance. A leader's distance is recognized as combination of physical distance between leader and follower, perceived social distance - the variation in power and status between leader and follower, and perceived interaction frequency - the regularity of communication between leader and follower (Antonakis, 2002). Based on these criteria, close leaders are likely those in direct

supervisory roles and distant leaders are executives in higher levels of the organization (Shamir, 1995).

While research measuring transformational leadership at the direct supervisor level has established it is a predictor of numerous organizational outcome variables among subordinates (e.g. self-efficacy, commitment, identity change, performance, job engagement, job satisfaction, trust, etc.) more variance could potentially be explained if specific behaviors within transformational leadership were measured at the executive, distant leader level as the conceptual explanation of transformational leadership originally outlined (e.g. Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978). Avolio, Zhu, Koh, and Bhatia (2004) support this assertion and demonstrate social distance between an employee and leader had a moderating effect on employees' level of commitment. Specifically, distant, executive leaders had a greater effect on employees' affective organizational commitment than close leaders. Very few scholars (e.g. Wang & Howell, 2012; Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005; Wang, Oh, Courtright, & Colbert, 2011) are heeding Avolio et al.'s research by applying the concept of leadership distance and organizational level in their predictive models of transformational leadership. This may be because scholars continue to find significant relationships between transformational leadership, measured at the direct supervisor level, and various outcome variables (e.g. Cavazotte, Moreno, & Bernardo, 2013; Ismail, Mohamed, Sulaiman, Mohamad, & Yusuf, 2011; Nielsen & Munir, 2009; Rajnandini, 2004; Yucel, McMillan, & Richard, 2014).

Despite the conceptual definition of transformational leadership, it is measured as a single construct, not parsing out the individual subscales that comprise it. Researchers might consider extracting these subscales and measuring each's unique effect on specific outcome variables. In doing so they would likely find some behaviors lead more to certain outcome

variables than others. In other words, transformational leadership on whole may not lead to a given outcome, rather only one behavior within transformational leadership serves as the primary predictor. Further, considering transformational leadership behaviors separately may illuminate that certain behaviors are likely enacted by a close leader and others behaviors by a distant leader. While transformational leadership positively predicts numerous outcomes, the relationships being examined may be strengthened if the behavior was performed by a socially close versus distant leader.

In addition to transformational leadership being measured as a single construct, outcome variables often have several subscales within the overarching measure. Only portions of the outcome variables might be impacted by a close, direct supervisor and other portions may require a distant leader. For instance, in the measure of organizational commitment, affective commitment may be best predicted by a distant leader where normative and continuance commitment by a close, direct supervisor (Avolio et al., 2004). All three of the commitment subscales are included in the measure of organizational commitment, but it is possible that only the normative portion may be affected when transformational leadership is measured at the direct supervisor level (Yucel, McMillan, & Richard, 2014).

In order to delineate the processes and associated behaviors included within transformational leadership theory, the below analysis first details the concepts included within the two overarching processes of transformational leadership (e.g. elevating values and increasing confidence). Next, key sub processes associated with the two overarching processes are extracted (e.g. group identity, self-efficacy, commitment, development). Then, the concept of leadership distance is applied to each of those sub processes (Antonakis, 2002). Some of the sub processes require the action of a socially distant leader and others require socially close leader

(Postumes, Spears, & Lea, 1999). Further, leadership scholarship has recently established a portion of the transformational leadership behaviors are inherently group level and others individual level behaviors (Wang & Howell, 2012), and group level behaviors are enacted by a distant leader and individual level behaviors by a close leader (Shamir, 1995; Yagil, 1998). Thus by aligning extant leadership and communication scholarship, hypotheses are furthered regarding which transformational leadership behaviors fall within which sub process, lead to which outcomes, and are best enacted by which leader.

Inspiring followers to elevate values. The first of the two core processes of transformational leadership encompasses a leader's ability to inspire followers to forego their own personal desires by valuing the group's success over their own. Using social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986) and social identity theory (Ashforth & Mael, 1989), Shamir, House, and Arthur (1993) contend the leader elevates values by tying followers' self-concept to the values associated with the vision and to the group collectively. Similarly, Avolio and Bass (1995) suggest it requires a leader to understand the unique needs, desires, and values of each follower in order for the leader to then demonstrate to the individual that helping the group achieve its goals will allow the individual to receive something even greater than if he or she were to simply strive for his or her own gain. Wang and Howell (2012) and Wu et al. (2010) furthered Shamir and associates original self-concept based model of transformational leadership influence by showing the dual influence processes used by transformational leaders result in differential follower outcomes. A transformational leader is able to help the follower identify with the collective group and also the leader simultaneously (Wu et al., 2010). The specific behaviors associated with the two charismatic characteristics of transformational leadership – idealized influence and inspirational motivation lead to followers' association with the collective group.

Individual focused transformational leadership behaviors – individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation allow the follower to identify with the leader.

Wang and Howell (2012) found charismatic, social identification provoking transformational leadership behaviors happen in group settings where the leader speaks in generalities about the collective, and individual-level transformational leadership happens in dyadic leader member relationships where the leader is in regular contact with the follower. Others (e.g. Oswald, Mossholder, & Harris, 1994; Miao, Newman, Schwarz, & Xu, 2013) disagree and explain transformational leaders' influence processes via the tenants of participative leadership asserting followers are motivated when they are involved in the visioning process. For one to be inspired and committed to the vision, the follower must feel as though he or she is in the know, has a voice, can ask questions, offer ideas, believe he or she has contributed to the vision, and know his or her concerns are included (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Farmer, Slater, & Wright, 1998; Oswald, Moss, Holder, & Harris, 1994). Within the organizational change literature, communication scholars from an interpretive perspective see the organization as a symbolic field and view change toward a vision as the framing and reframing of meaning. Fairhurst (2009) emphasizes the importance of reciprocal discourse in the selection of a new point of reference and the transformation of underlying symbolic patterns that influence the culture of an organization and schemas by which individuals construct a shared meaning.

While many emphasize the importance of dyadic communication whether from a critical perspective with the shared construction of meaning or a functionalist approach considering behaviors, processes, and outcomes, when underlying constructs are parsed, it becomes apparent that two-way, symmetrical communication only explains a portion of the influence that transformational leaders exert. Scholars have found that dyadic communication does not lead to

group identification or commitment (Hogg, 1992; Lee & Oh, 2012; Postomes, Spears, & Lea, 1999; Turner, Hogg, & Oakes, 1987; Wang & Howell, 2012).

A central tenant of transformational leadership is the ability of the leader to elevate followers' individual needs to that of the collective group. The charismatic behaviors of transformational leadership (i.e., idealized influence and inspirational motivation) correspond with group identification and are likely to occur in group settings. Distant leaders have different charismatic effects than close, interpersonal leadership (Shamir, 1995) and are better able to change an individual's collective identity and commitment (Avolio et al., 2004). Further, depersonalized communication is a better predictor of social identification than individualized, personal communication (Postomes, Spears, & Lea, 1999; Wang & Howell, 2012). Persuasion requires only two-way, asymmetrical communication, where the communication is perceived as bi-directional when in reality it is top-down. Thus, employees' willingness to forego their own personal ambitions in support of the leader's collective vision for the organization is influenced to a greater extent by charismatic leadership behaviors than individualized leadership behaviors and by socially distant leaders more so than socially close leaders.

Hypothesis 1A: Idealized influence and inspirational motivation of socially distant leaders will have a stronger, positive relationship with employees' vision support than individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation of socially distant leaders.

Whereas the previous hypothesis asserts that certain transformational *leadership behaviors* likely have a stronger relationship with employees' vision support than other transformational leadership behaviors, the following hypothesis conjectures that there is greater variance in vision support when those behaviors are enacted by a *socially close* versus *distant leader*. See Figure 1 for a model depicting the hypothesized relationship between variables.

Hypothesis 1B: Social distance of the leader moderates the relationship inspirational motivation and vision support whereas inspirational motivation of a socially distant leader will have a stronger, positive relationship with vision support than a socially close leader.

Similarly, concerning idealized influence:

Hypothesis 1C: Social distance of the leader moderates the relationship between idealized influence and vision support whereas idealized influence of a socially distant leader will have a stronger, positive relationship with vision support than a socially close leader.
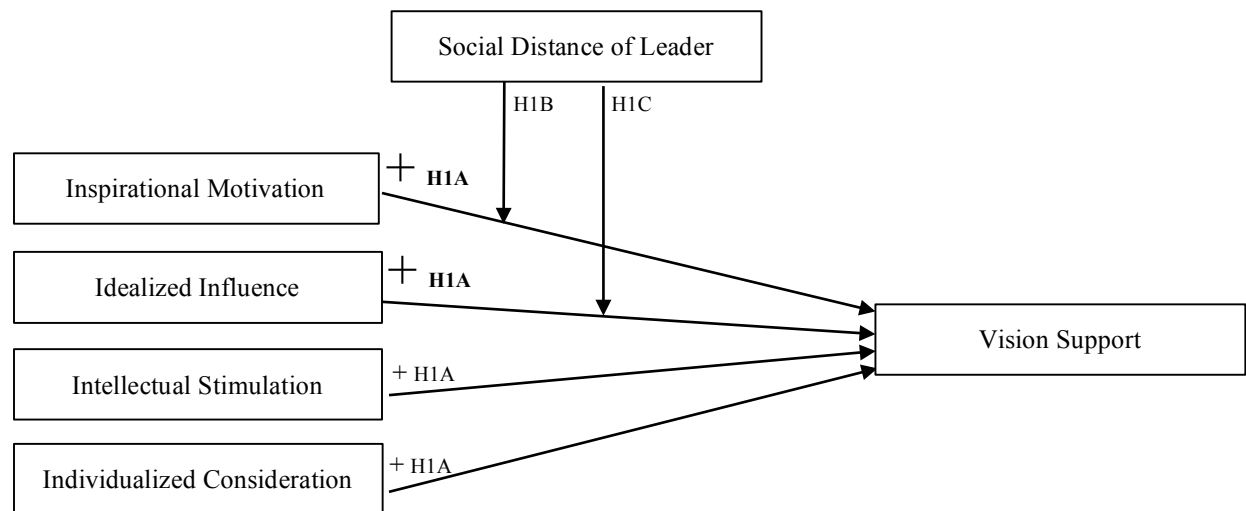
Figure 1: Predicted relationships between transformational leadership behaviors, social distance of leader, and vision support.
Note. small + indicate a weak positive relationship while large + indicates stronger, positive relationship, the impact of inspirational motivation and idealized influence will be greater when enacted by socially distant leaders rather than socially close leaders.

Inspiring a follower's support of a vision occurs through the sub process of changing his or her identity from that of an individual to a group member (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). Communication scholarship asserts changing one's identity in this manner is more likely to occur in depersonalized, mass settings by a distant leader (Postomes, Spears, & Lea, 1999). Leadership scholarship forwards that idealized influence and inspirational motivation are group level behaviors that happen in mass contexts (Wang & Howell, 2012). Thus, idealized influence

and inspirational motivation fall within the core transformational leadership process of inspiration, they likely lead to identity change and vision support, and are best enacted by a distant, executive leader. The communication concept of social distance helps isolate the behaviors encompassed within the transformational leadership process of inspiration. Further, it demonstrates that the source of the leadership behavior is an important component to be considered within transformational leadership. In the following analysis, the same framework is applied to the second core process within transformational leadership – building confidence.

Empowering followers to confidence, commitment, and competence. In addition to elevating followers' values and in doing so persuading them as to the importance of the vision, a transformational leader also motivates, empowers, and equips followers to achieve vision through social support and by helping to develop their skills through individualized attention (Bass, 1985). One of the primary outcomes associated with both charismatic and transformational leadership is the increase in the self-efficacy of followers (e.g. Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996; Nandal, & Krishnan, 2000; Shamir, House, & Arthur 1993; Shea & Howell, 1999). Self-efficacy is part of the larger construct of empowerment (Avolio et al., 2004).

Considered from a multilevel perspective, empowerment can be organizational and individual (Wang & Howell, 2012). When a follower receives communication from an executive leader in a group setting, he or she can be empowered toward the collective organizational values. Contrarily, vision related communication from the immediate supervisor yields task specific empowerment (O'Reilly et al., 2010). Charismatic leadership behaviors mediated by social identification with the group leads to followers' collective efficacy, mutual help, and group performance (Wang & Howell, 2012; Wu et al., 2010). Individual-focused transformational leadership behaviors (individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation)

result in individual level outcomes of self-efficacy, empowerment, personal initiatives, and individual task performance (Wang & Howell, 2012). Thus, in order to be motivated and empowered in a way that leads the follower to use the vision as a guiding framework for his or her daily tasks, he or she must be in regular contact with socially close leader, likely his or her immediate supervisor, regarding the organization's vision (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Wang, et al., 2011).

Rafferty and Griffin (2006) considered the relationship between self-efficacy and transformational leadership and charismatic leadership and discovered specific leadership behaviors lead to different types of self-efficacy. These conclusions support Wang and Howell's (2012) findings that charismatic and individualized leadership behaviors lead to differing types of empowerment. While both supportive leadership behaviors and developmentally-oriented leadership behaviors lead to self-efficacy, developmental support ignites a specific type of self-efficacy; role breadth self-efficacy (Rafferty & Griffin, 2006). Role breadth self-efficacy refers to the perceived capacity of enacting a broad and proactive array of work tasks exceeding prescribed role requirements. Further, role breadth self-efficacy is strongly related with developmentally-orientated leadership behaviors, it is unrelated with leader enacted supportive behaviors.

These findings further the work of Bandura (1986), which established four mechanisms that promote self-efficacy, namely (1) enactive mastery, defined as repeated performance accomplishments; (2) modeling, meaning an individual's opportunity to watch another enact the targeted behaviors; (3) verbal persuasion, meaning convincing one that he or she can perform the task; and (4) judgment of physiological states. Bandura (1986; 1997) found mastery leads to stronger and more generalized, self-efficacy expectations than any of the other three mechanisms

described. Parker (1998) found organizational variables, including leader support, influence mastery through behaviors such as training, feedback, coaching, etc. These developmentally-oriented behaviors are consistent with the individualized consideration behaviors of a transformational leader (Bass, 1985). Further, Parker (1998) found organizational practices including the quality of communication between leader and subordinate, specifically the promotion of two-way communication, results in higher levels of role breadth self-efficacy. The amount of communication conversely had no association. To this end, while past research strongly supports the relationship between both charismatic and transformational leadership behaviors with self-efficacy, theory suggests the difference in behaviors between executive leaders and direct supervisors is displayed in the variance in follower's role breadth self-efficacy. Where socially distant leaders influence employee's perception that the organization on whole can accomplish the vision, a socially close leader's individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation are required for an employee to believe he or she has the ability to uniquely contribute the vision. The following is forwarded:

Hypothesis 2A: Individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation of socially close leaders will have a stronger, positive relationship with employees' role breadth self-efficacy than idealized influence and inspirational motivation.

Certain transformational *leadership behaviors* likely have a stronger relationship with employees' role breadth self-efficacy than other transformational leadership behaviors, and there is likewise a greater variance in role breadth self-efficacy when those behaviors are enacted by a *socially close* versus *distant leader*. See Figure 2 for a model depicting the hypothesized relationship between variables.
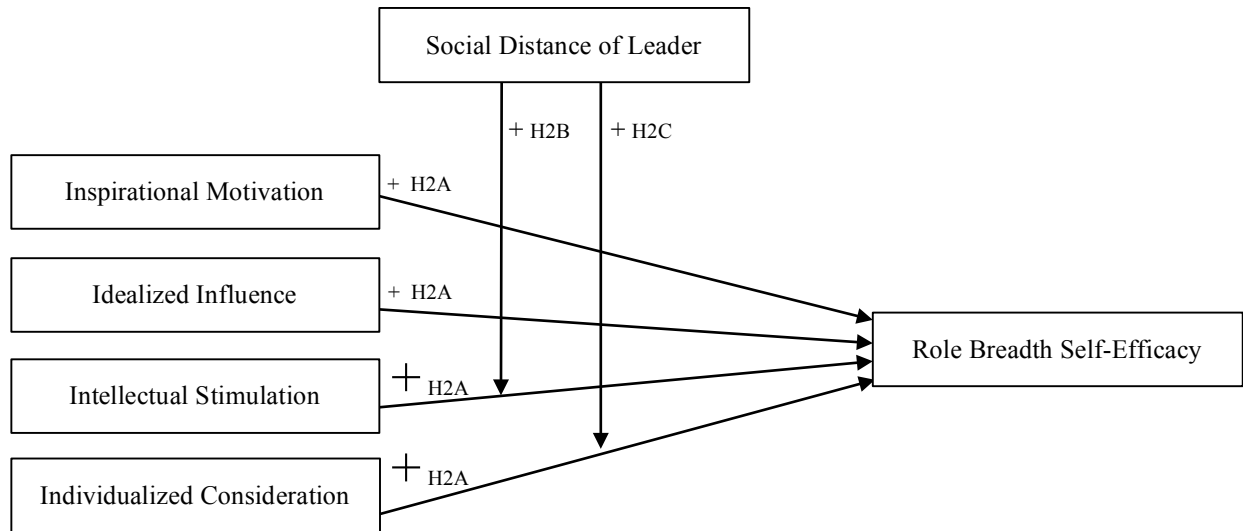
Figure 2: Proposed relationship between transformational leadership behaviors, social distance of the leader, and role breadth self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 2B: Social distance of the leader will moderate the positive relationship between intellectual stimulation and role breadth self-efficacy whereby the positive relationship between intellectual stimulation and role breadth self-efficacy will be stronger with socially close leaders than socially distant leaders.

Similarly, concerning individualized consideration:

Hypothesis 2C: Social distance of the leader will moderate the positive relationship between individualized consideration and role breadth self-efficacy whereby the positive relationship between individualized consideration and role breadth self-efficacy will be stronger with socially close leaders than socially distant leaders.

The individualized transformational leadership behaviors enacted by a socially close leader likely have a stronger relationship with employees' role breadth self-efficacy than the charismatic leadership behaviors enacted by a distant leader; however, the opposite is expected when considering employees' level of collective efficacy.

Hypothesis 3A: Inspirational motivation and idealized influence of socially distant leaders will have a stronger, positive relationship with employees' collective efficacy than individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation.

While certain transformational *leadership behaviors* likely have a stronger relationship with employees' collective efficacy than other transformational leadership behaviors, there is a greater variance in collective efficacy when those behaviors are enacted by a *socially close* versus *distant leader*. See Figure 3 for a model depicting the hypothesized relationship between variables.
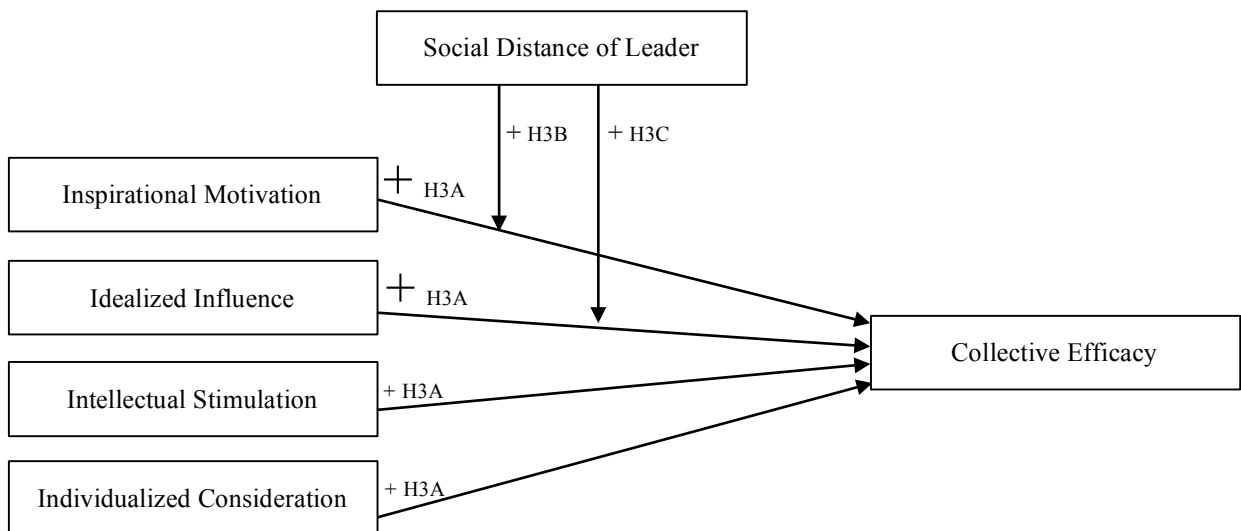
Figure 3: Proposed relationship between transformational leadership behaviors, social distance of the leader, and collective efficacy.

Hypothesis 3B: Social distance of the leader will moderate the positive relationship between inspirational motivation and collective efficacy whereby the positive relationship between inspirational motivation and collective efficacy will be stronger with socially distant leaders than socially close leaders.

Similarly, concerning idealized influence:

Hypothesis 3C: Social distance of the leader will moderate the positive relationship between idealized influence and collective efficacy whereby the positive relationship between idealized influence and collective efficacy will be stronger with socially distant leaders than socially close leaders.

In addition to the importance of dyadic, supervisor communication for raising an individual's self-efficacy, transformational leaders influence followers' commitment by developing their potential (Avolio, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Yammarino, et al., 1993) and encouraging them to become more involved in their work (Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003). Avolio, Zhu, Koh, and Bhatia (2004) suggest social distance between follower and leader mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. However, the relationship is contrary to previous research which demonstrates closer leader-follower relationship yield stronger organizational commitment. Instead, Avolio and associates (2004) found distant relationships had the stronger positive impact on organizational commitment and inferred this may be due to followers seeing inconsistencies in immediate supervisors' speech and actions. Other research (e.g. Baker, & Omilion-Hodges, 2013; Zhu, Newman, Miao, & Hooke, 2013) also demonstrated that employees have different relationships with their organization, close leader, and work unit members. As such, certain behaviors enacted by the close leader may engender goodwill and commitment from an employee toward that leader, their goals, and the execution of the organizational vision as it relates to the work unit but not necessarily the organization as a whole. Characteristics exhibited by socially distant leaders may illicit commitment more readily toward the overall organization and vision.

Hill, Seo, Kang, and Taylor (2012) found executive leadership is positively related to employees' organizational commitment. Yet, the distance from the follower to the leader had a

negative impact on the employees' perception of the change being proposed by the executive leader. This is consistent with the notion that executive leaders rarely articulate particular changes for a work unit, but instead they rely on middle level management to interpret the vision and initiate appropriate changes within their respective divisions and smaller units. Thus, the behaviors of executive leaders and immediate supervisors' both impact employees' commitment, and employees need to receive vision related communication from both to be committed to the organization's vision as well as the enactment of it. Hence, the following is forwarded:

Hypothesis 4: The individualized consideration of socially close leaders moderates the impact of socially distant leaders' charismatic behaviors of idealized influence and inspirational motivation on followers' level of organizational commitment. Whereby:

Hypothesis 4A: At higher levels of individualized consideration by socially close leaders, the positive relationship between inspirational motivation by socially distant leaders and organizational commitment is stronger than at lower levels of individualized consideration by socially close leaders. A similar relationship is expected between idealized influence and organizational commitment. See Figure 4 for a model depicting the hypothesized relationship between variables.
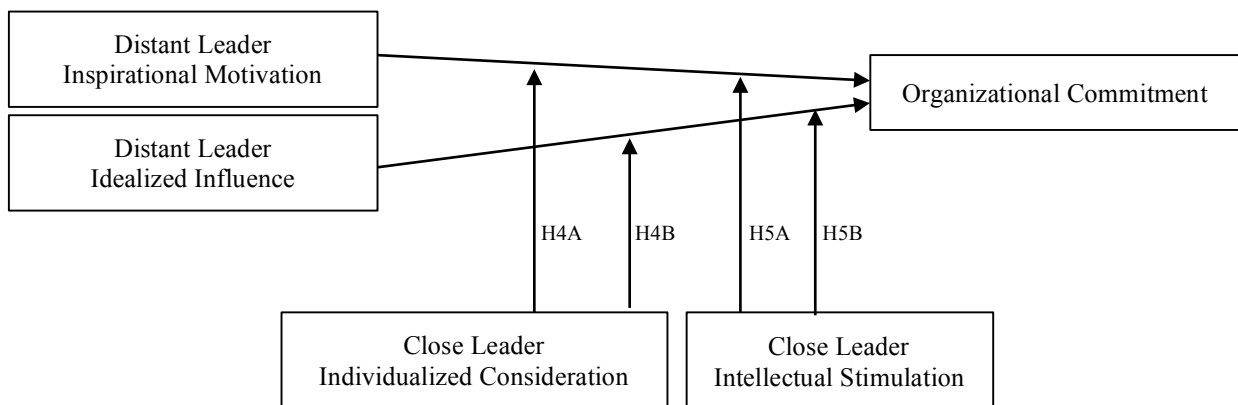
Figure 4: Proposed relationship between transformational leadership behaviors, leader distance, and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 4B: At higher levels of individualized consideration by socially close leaders, the relationship between idealized influence by socially distant leaders and organizational commitment is stronger than at lower levels of individualized consideration by socially close leaders.

Intellectual stimulation of socially close leaders is expected to moderate the relationship between socially distant leaders' charismatic behaviors and organizational commitment in a similar way as individualized consideration.

Hypothesis 5: The intellectual stimulation of socially close leaders moderates the impact of socially distant leaders' charismatic behaviors of inspirational motivation and idealized influence on followers' level of organizational commitment. Whereby:

Hypothesis 5A: At higher levels of intellectual stimulation by socially close leaders, the positive relationship between inspirational motivation by socially distant leaders and organizational commitment is stronger than at lower levels of individualized consideration by socially close leaders.

Further, the relationship between idealized influence and organizational commitment will also be moderated by intellectual stimulation.

Hypothesis 5B: At higher levels of intellectual stimulation by socially close leaders, the relationship between idealized influence by socially distant leaders and organizational commitment is stronger than at lower levels of intellectual stimulation by socially close leaders.

The two charismatic transformational leadership behaviors enacted by a socially distant leader likely have a stronger relationship with employees' organizational commitment than the individualized leadership behaviors enacted by a close leader. As shown in Figure 5, the opposite is expected when considering employees' level of job commitment.

Hypothesis 6: The inspirational motivation of socially distant leaders moderates the impact of socially close leaders' individualized behaviors of individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation on followers' level of job commitment. Whereby

Hypothesis 6A: At higher levels of inspirational motivation by socially distant leaders, the positive relationship between individualized consideration by socially close leaders and job commitment is stronger than at lower levels of inspirational motivation by socially distant leaders.
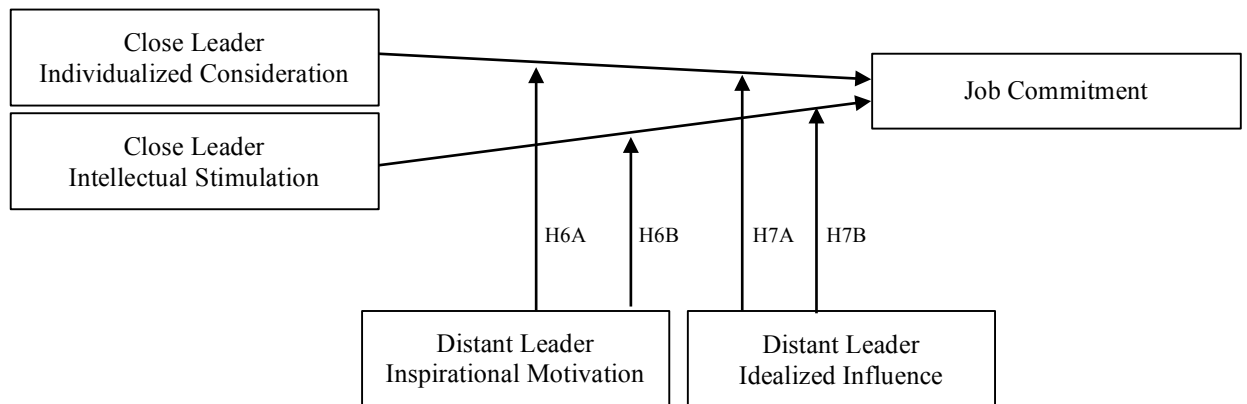
Figure 5: Proposed relationship between transformational leadership behaviors, leader distance, and job commitment.

Similarly, inspirational moderates the relationship between intellectual stimulation and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 6B: At higher levels of inspirational motivation by socially distant leaders, the relationship between intellectual stimulation by socially close leaders and job commitment is stronger than at lower levels of inspirational motivation by socially distant leaders.

Idealized influence of socially distant leaders is expected to moderate the relationship between socially close leaders' individualized behaviors and job commitment in a similar way as inspirational motivation.

Hypothesis 7: The idealized influence of socially distant leaders moderates the impact of socially close leaders' individualized behaviors of individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation on followers' level of job commitment. Whereby:

Hypothesis 7A: At higher levels of idealized influence by socially distant leaders, the positive relationship between individualized consideration by socially close leaders and job commitment is stronger than at lower levels of idealized influence by socially distant leaders.

Idealized influence is likewise predicted to impact the relationship between intellectual stimulation and job commitment.

Hypothesis 7B: At higher levels of idealized influence by socially distant leaders, the relationship between intellectual stimulation by socially close leaders and job commitment is stronger than at lower levels of idealized influence by socially distant leaders.

One area that arguably must be administered by one's direct supervisor is developmental activities. In his original conception of transformational leadership, Bass (1985) emphasizes the importance of coaching an individual to not only believe that he or she can accomplish the tasks necessary to contribute to the vision, but strengthen followers' abilities and skills. Rafferty and Griffen (2006) contended a key component of a transformational leaders' ability to influence is through developmental activities, where the follower is given opportunity to learn new skills, practice, and receive feedback. Further, Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996) emphasize the importance of task related communication by providing clarity as to what is to be accomplished or how the task is to be done for vision implementation. Thus, the exhibition of individualized consideration by socially close leaders is required for followers to perceive they have the development opportunities necessary to contribute to the organizational vision.

Hypothesis 8A: Individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation of socially close leaders has a stronger, positive relationship with followers' perception of personal development than inspirational motivation and idealized influence.

The previous hypothesis predicts employees' perception of personal development has a stronger relationship with certain transformational *leadership behaviors* than other transformational leadership behaviors as depicted in Figure 6. The following hypothesis conjectures that there is likewise a difference in variance in perception of personal development when those behaviors are enacted by a *socially close versus distant leader*.
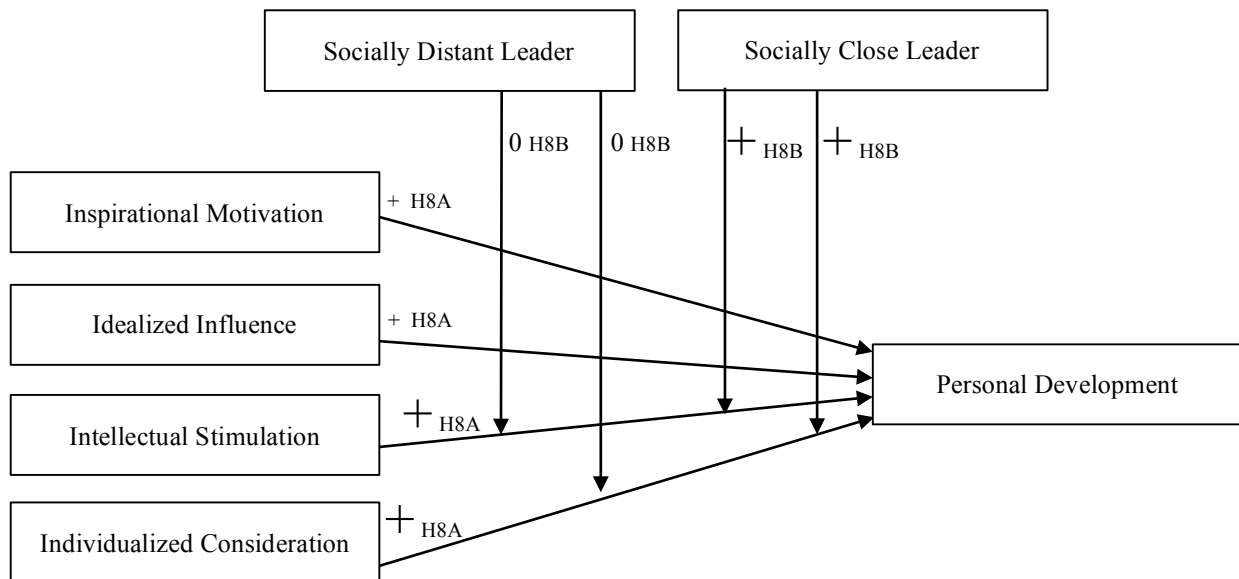
Figure 6: Proposed relationship between transformational leadership behaviors, leader source, and followers' perceived, development opportunities.

Hypothesis 8B: Individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation of socially distant leaders is unrelated to followers' perception of personal development.

The process of empowering followers' confidence toward achieving the vision contains the three sub processes of building confidence, commitment, and competence. Communication scholarship asserts employees build confidence, commitment, and competence via dyadic communication where the employee receives coaching and mentoring (Rafferty & Griffen,

2006). Leadership research informs us that individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation are individual level behaviors and are enacted by a close leader (Wang & Howell, 2012). Thus, much of an employee's empowerment likely occurs as a result of the behaviors of a close leader who enacts the transformational leadership behaviors of individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation. While one's direct supervisor is the primary means for developmental support and is integral in building follower confidence and commitment, the executive leader may contribute portions of the social support required to empower confidence in the follower and commitment to the vision. Accordingly, both the executive leader and the direct supervisor likely contribute in part to a follower's empowerment. However, through the concept of social distance, we see that these two leaders have specific, non-redundant leadership behaviors to enact.

Proving further clarity to the structure of transformational leadership through the use of the communication concepts of social distance, audience, and context is valuable to our understanding of leadership. Transformational leadership scholarship is wavering due to ill-defined processes and behaviors (Van Knippenberg, 2013). Mapping specific behaviors to processes provides needed refinement for the field (Bono & Judge, 2003; Kark & Shamir, 2013; Yukl, 1989, 2006). Establishing the transformational leadership behaviors best enacted by an executive leader versus a direct supervisor is also useful for organizational communication scholars. It establishes a critical characteristic of leadership communication - the source of a message. There continues to be calls for a communication-specific measure of transformational leadership (Levine et al., 2010). However, if a measure does not take into account that an effective leader adjusts his or her communication behaviors based on audience and context, then it is ineffectual. Inherent in the conception of transformational leadership is the contrasting

behaviors of charisma and personalized attention. That tension has been attenuated in more recent conceptions and measures (Beyer, 1999) yet some of the earliest leadership scholars (House, 1977; Weber, 1947) recognized there was great power in each of those behaviors sets. Diluting them in order to enable both to be enacted by a single leader lessens their impact. Hence, a communication scale of transformational leadership that aligns with the original conception of transformational leadership will include dichotomous behaviors. Some behaviors will likely be best enacted by a close leader and other behaviors by a distant leader.

Communication Behaviors of Transformational Leaders

Few scholars have attempted to match specific communication behaviors to transformational leadership behaviors (Ewing & Lee, 2009), and the primary measure of transformational leadership (The Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire – MLQ 5X) (Avolio & Bass, 2001) does not measure leaders' communication behaviors. However, communication is undoubtedly central to transformational leadership. Levine et al. (2010) argue the verbs most often used to describe the behaviors defined within Bass' original (1985) transformational leadership model include "influence", "inspire", "communicate", and "motivate"- skills that are central to being an effective communicator. Further, Hackman and Johnson (2004) provide broad conceptual descriptions of transformational leadership communication behaviors - creative, interactivity, visionary, empowerment, and passion. Ewing and Lee (2009) developed and empirically validated a measure of 42 transformational leadership communication behaviors derived from Hackman and Johnson's (2004) categorization and also the four I's of the MLQ 5X.

Ewing and Lee (2009) found two underlying dimensions of transformational leadership communication to be personalized communication and prophetic communication. The first

contained the behaviors associated with Hackman and Johnson's notions of creative, interactivity, and empowerment. The prophetic dimension included behaviors associated with the categories of visionary and passion. Ewing and Lee (2009) also examined the relationship between the five categories of transformational leadership communication behaviors and the two dimensions of personalized and prophetic communication with the quality of leader member relationships using leader-member exchange theory (Dansereau, Graen, Haga, 1975; Diensch & Liden, 1986; Graen & Scandura, 1987). Leader-member exchange (LMX) examines the interaction and subsequent quality of a relationship between leader and follower. This theory details the process between leader and follower to determine whether the follower will be considered within the leader's in-group where the follower receives greater access to information, opportunity, and trust or the out-group where the follower remains distant from the leader not receiving the benefit of a close relationship. Leader-member exchange assumes a level of dyadic communication and mutual influence between leader and follower.

While all the behaviors encompassed in Hackman and Johnson's (2004) five transformational communication categories were shown to correlate with LMX, the interactive and empowering related communication behaviors were the strongest predictors of the quality of leader member relationships. Further, when considering the two communication dimensions of personal and prophetic, only personal communication was a predictor of LMX. Thus, the findings of Ewing and Lee (2009) align with the previous hypotheses presented in this study suggesting followers experience different behaviors from their various leaders based on the social distance between the leader and the follower and the necessity of dyadic versus asymmetrical communication. Ewing and Lee's research is the first to substantiate that transformational leaders' role and relationship to the follower are related to their vision related

communication behaviors. While Ewing and Lee did not incorporate the notion of social distance in their study, it logically follows based on the hypotheses presented previously that socially distant leaders will be more likely to employ prophetic communication than personalized communication, whereas socially close leaders will be more likely to employ personalized communication than prophetic communication.

This work furthers the scholarship of Ewing and Lee (2009) to develop a revised measure of transformational leadership communication. This new measure includes several items found in Ewing and Lee's scale; however, items are reorganized into different behavioral categories based on a taxonomy that is consistent with Burns (1978) and Bass' (1985) definition of transformational leadership. Ewing and Lee crafted their measure based on Hackman and Johnson's (2004) categories of exemplary leadership. Hackman and Johnson created their categorization by examining the research findings of several different scholars who studied exemplary leaders' behaviors (e.g. Avolio & Bass, 2001; Bennis & Nanus, 1997; Kouzes & Posner, 1995; Neff & Citrin, 1999; Peters, 1992; Peters & Austin, 1985; Peters & Waterman, 1982). They observed areas of overlap and used those areas to comprise five dimensions of transformational leadership. Ewing and Lee developed communication behaviors to match Hackman and Johnson's taxonomy and then incorporated behaviors found within the MLQ 5X.

The transformational leadership communication measure forwarded in this study relies principally on Bass' (1985) conceptual definition of transformational leadership. Notably, it draws less from Bass and Avolio (1990) and others' measures of transformational leadership and instead includes Bass' theoretical conceptualization and explanation of transformational leadership as its foundation. This is in response to scholars' assertion that the manner in which transformational leadership is measured is inconsistent with its founders' conceptualization

(Hunt & Conger, 1999; Rafferty & Griffen, 2006; Van Knippenberg, 2013). Further, present day scholars (e.g. Kouzes and Posner, 2003) have clarified Bass' thinking and in some areas arguably measure Bass' theory more effectively than Bass and Avolio's standard MLQ measure. In those areas, the communication scale presented here incorporates these contemporary scholars' contributions with Bass original conception of transformational leadership to provide a comprehensive accounting of transformational leader communication behaviors.

In the original conception of transformation leadership, two core processes take place – inspiring individuals to elevate their desires through charismatic behaviors and empowering them toward increased confidence. A leader inspires individuals to change their desires by pointing out flaws in the current situation. This aligns with literature on persuasion which asserts a speaker first establishes the problem before detailing the solution (e.g. Monroe, 1943). Portions of the intellectual stimulation component within Bass and Avolio's model include behaviors associated with thinking creatively to recognize problems and new ways to overcome those problems. However, the MLQ 5X does not strongly represent the leaders' communication of the current problem. Other scholars do include this component within their model and label these types of behaviors as being creative (Hackman & Johnson, 2004) and challenging the process (Kouzes & Posner, 2003). Within the communication based model presented, the term *inquisitor* encompasses the behaviors associated with communicating to followers the need to question their current situation.

A transformational leader's inspiration is enacted through the articulation of the vision. The splendor of the vision itself and the manner in which the leader describes it compellingly inspires followers to desire it. Not only do followers see the deficiencies in their current state, they see the potential grandeur of the future. The transformational leader communicates through

detailed symbols an ideal state of existence that is far superior to followers' current situation - one where everyone gains something greater than they thought possible. Also present within the inspirational portion of transformational leadership theory is the leaders' call for followers to relinquish short term, individual needs in order to obtain the grander, lasting, intrinsically fulfilling success depicted in the vision. Both of these components are included into a single behavioral category of inspirational motivation in Bass and Avolio's (1990) model. Within the measure presented here, these two components will be divided out into separate behavioral categories termed *visionary* and *unifier*.

The leader then substantiates the worth of the future state and sacrifice required to achieve it by modeling the behaviors necessary to attain the vision. Followers perceive the leader as having great integrity - one who genuinely cares for their future success to the point where he or she is willing to personally sacrifice for it. The leader is a role model and his or her passion becomes the followers' passion. Idealized influence is the term used by Bass and Avolio (2001) to describe this behavior set. Others use the labels of "passionate" (Hackman & Johnson, 2004), "standard bearer" (Bottomley, Burgess, & Fox, 2014), and "model the way" (Kouzes & Posner, 2003). *Exemplar* is the term used within this new communication measure.

The second core process of transformational leadership is increasing employee confidence. As previously established, transformational leaders empower followers toward increased self-efficacy, confidence, and commitment, and they do so through developmental and supportive leadership behaviors. Where the inspirational component of transformational leadership compels employees toward the importance of the vision and the necessity of sacrificing for it, the empowerment component gives followers direction on their specific role and confidence in their abilities. Individualized consideration is the behavioral category used to

describe this coaching function within Bass and Avolio's measure. Others divide empowerment into more granular behavioral categories. Kouzes and Posner distinguish between developmental and social support with two behavioral categories termed "enabling others to act" and "encouraging the heart". Hackman and Johnson (2004) do not delineate among developmental and social support behaviors but instead include various individualized behaviors within the categories of "empowerment" and "interactivity". For Bottomley, Burgess, and Fox (2014) the term used is "developer". Within the measure presented, both developmental support and social support will be included separately as *developer* and *encourager*.

Within the empowerment portion of Bass' conception, he emphasizes the importance of helping followers become problem solvers who can think creatively. Followers are empowered to think creatively in part because they understand the reasoning that guides the leaders' decisions. They understand the logic behind the vision. With knowledge of the leaders' thought process, they are empowered to act on their own. The vision serves as the main guide, and thus followers are not micromanaged with additional rules but rather are encouraged to think creatively on how to integrate the vision into their role. Much of these behaviors are housed within the intellectual stimulation component of Bass and Avolio's measure. The measure developed and tested in this study will borrow from Bottomley, Burgess, and Fox (2014) and label these behaviors as *integrator.*

Charismatic communication behaviors. Building off of the previous arguments presented in this work, certain transformational leadership behaviors have a stronger relationship with various employee outcomes than other transformational leadership behaviors, so too will the communication behaviors that correspond with each of the transformational leadership behaviors. Moreover, specific behaviors within the new, communication based model of

transformational leadership will be enacted most effectively by a distant leader and others behaviors by a close leader.

Hypothesis 9A: The behaviors of inquisitor, unifier, visionary, and exemplar of socially distant leaders will have a stronger, positive relationship with employees' vision support than the communicative behaviors of developer, encourager and integrator.

Certain leadership *communication behaviors* likely have a stronger relationship with employees' vision support than other communication behaviors, and the following hypothesis conjectures that there is greater variance when those communication behaviors are enacted by a *socially close* versus *distant leader*. See Figure 7 for a model depicting the hypothesized relationship between these variables.
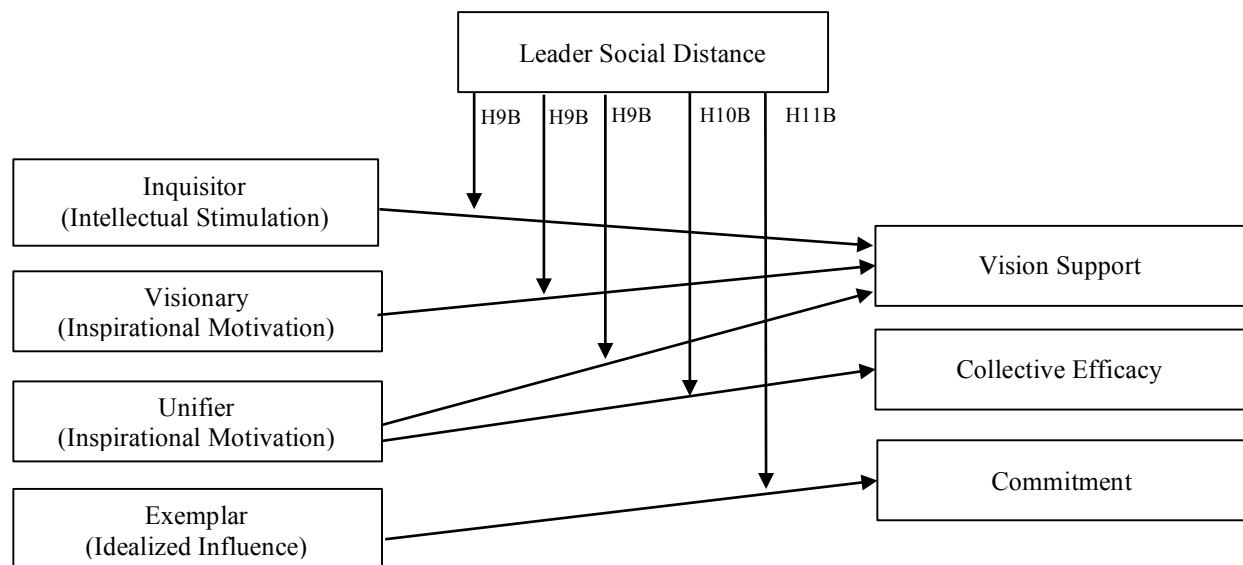
Figure 7: Predicted relationship between communication behaviors, leader source, and the outcomes of vision support, collective efficacy, and commitment.

Hypothesis 9B: Social distance of the leader moderates the relationship between inquisitor, unifier, visionary, and exemplar and vision support whereas inquisitor, unifier, visionary, and exemplar of a socially distant leader will have a stronger, positive relationship with vision support than a socially close leader.

While each of the charismatic communication behaviors is expected to relate with vision support, the behavior of unifier is hypothesized to be the strongest predictor of collective efficacy. Thus, the following is forwarded:

Hypothesis 10A: The unifier behaviors of socially distant leaders will have a stronger, positive relationship with employees' collective efficacy than the communicative behaviors of inquisitor, visionary, exemplar, developer, encourager or integrator.

Leaders' social distance is predicted to moderate the relationship between the unifier behaviors and collective efficacy.

Hypothesis 10B: Social distance of the leader moderates the relationship between unifier and collective efficacy whereas the unifier behaviors of a socially distant leader will have a stronger, positive relationship with collective efficacy than a socially close leader.

The communication behaviors encompassed within exemplar are predicted to have the strongest relationship with organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 11A: The exemplar behaviors of socially distant leaders will have a stronger, positive relationship with employees' organizational commitment than the communicative behaviors of inquisitor, visionary, unifier, developer, encourager or integrator.

Similar to the previous hypotheses, the social distance of a leader is predicted to moderate the relationship between the leaders' the communication behaviors of exemplar and employee outcomes. Specifically,

Hypothesis 11B: Social distance of the leader moderates the relationship between exemplar and organizational commitment whereas the exemplar behaviors of a socially distant leader will have a stronger, positive relationship with organizational commitment than a socially close leader.

Personalized communication behaviors. The personalized communication behaviors associated with the leaders' empowerment, namely developer, encourager, and integrator align with the transformational leadership behaviors of individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation and will thus likely be enacted by a close, direct supervisor. Further, just as individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation lead to specific outcomes, likewise will the personalized, communication behaviors of transformational leadership. The following relationships are forwarded:

Hypothesis 12A: The developer behaviors of socially close leaders will have a stronger, positive relationship with employees' perceived development opportunities than the communicative behaviors of inquisitor, visionary, exemplar, unifier, encourager, or integrator.

Leaders' social distance is predicted to moderate the relationship between the leaders' developer behaviors and employee development. See Figure 8 for a model depicting the hypothesized relationship between these variables.
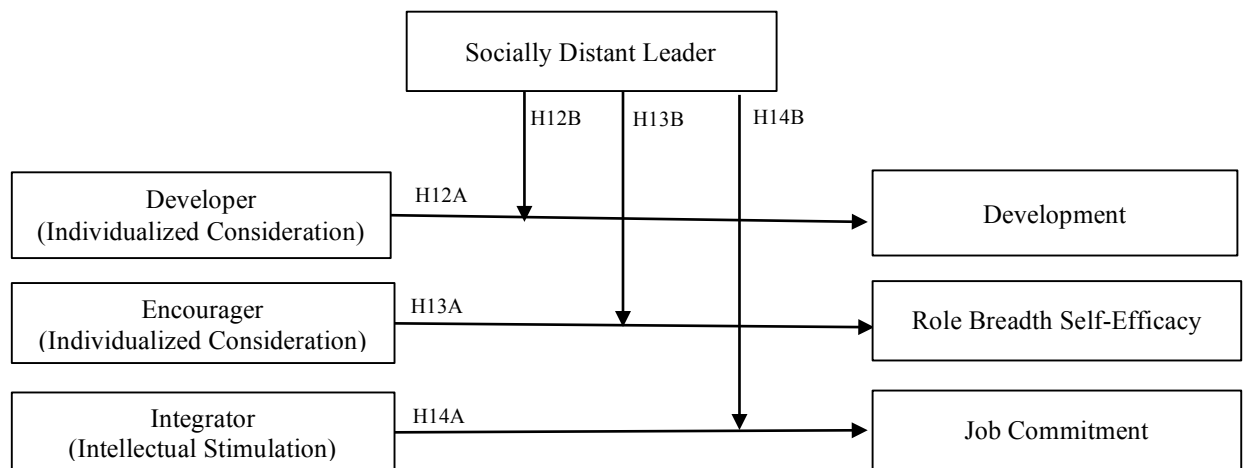
Figure 8: The relationship between communication behaviors, social distance of leader, and the outcomes of development, role breadth self-efficacy, and job commitment

Hypothesis 12B: Social distance of the leader moderates the relationship between developer and perceived development whereas the developer behaviors of a socially close leader

will have a stronger, positive relationship with perceived development than a socially distant leader.

The communication behaviors encompassed within encourager are predicted to have the strongest relationship with role breadth self-efficacy. Thus, the following is forwarded:

Hypothesis 13A: The encourager behaviors of socially close leaders will have a stronger, positive relationship with employees' role breadth self-efficacy than the communicative behaviors of inquisitor, visionary, unifier, exemplar, developer, or integrator.

Similar to the previous hypotheses, the social distance of a leader is predicted to moderate the relationship between the leaders' the communication behaviors of encourager and employee outcomes.

Hypothesis 13B: Social distance of the leader moderates the relationship between encourager and role breadth self-efficacy whereas the encourager behaviors of a socially close leader will have a stronger, positive relationship with role breadth self-efficacy than a socially distant leader.

Hypothesis 14A: The integrator behaviors of socially close leaders will have a stronger, positive relationship with employees' job commitment than the communicative behaviors of inquisitor, visionary, unifier, exemplar, developer, or encourager.

Similar to the previous hypotheses, the social distance of a leader is predicted to moderate the relationship between the leaders' the communication behaviors of integrator and employee outcomes.

Hypothesis 14B: Social distance of the leader moderates the relationship between integrator and job commitment whereas the integrator behaviors of a socially close leader will have a stronger, positive relationship with job commitment than a socially distant leader.

Clarifying the specific leadership and communication behaviors encompassed within each core process of transformational leadership and associated outcomes does not test the extent to which those behaviors lead to vision integration throughout the organization (Antonakis & House 2013; Kohles, Bligh, & Carsten, 2012, 2013). Vision integration occurs when one has adopted the organizational vision to the extent that it guides how he or she does his or her job – his or her priorities, effort, and aptitude. While conceptually transformational leadership is understood to unite followers around a common vision, the outcomes generally associated with transformational leadership do not measure vision integration. Limited scholarship (e.g. Kohles, Bligh, & Carsten, 2013) has empirically examined whether transformational leaders unite followers to the extent that they perform the behaviors associated with the vision. In essence, the concept of vision has been incorporated into transformational leadership theory as a motivational mechanism as opposed to a measure of success. Diffusion of innovations theory (Rogers, 2003) provides the framework to measure vision integration. Layering transformational leadership theory with diffusion of innovations demonstrates that transformational leadership does provide all of the necessary factors needed by an individual to adopt/integrate the vision. Thus, transformational leadership is not only exemplary leadership because it leads to multiple positive organizational outcomes; it encompasses the behaviors that coordinate an organization's collective effort around a common conceptualization of success.

Transformational Leaders Communicative Role in the Diffusion Process

Diffusion of innovations theory (Rogers, 2003) illuminates the means through which the core processes and communicative behaviors of transformational leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2001; Bass, 1985) influence one's adoption of an organization's vision. Diffusion of innovations (Rogers, 1995, 2003), a communication-based theory used in multiple fields of scholarship,

describes the process through which an innovation is adopted within an individual and social structure. For Rogers, "an innovation is an idea, practice, or project that is perceived as new by an individual or other unit of adoption" (1995). According to Roger's definition, a vision is an innovation. The four core components of the diffusion process include the innovation itself, communication channels, time, and social system. The combination of these components move an individual through a five stage decision/ adoption process, which is based on how the individual seeks and processes information and results in his or her adoption or rejection of the new innovation. The stages include (1) knowledge - the individual becomes aware of the innovation, (2) persuasion - he or she determines the value of the innovation (3) decision – decides to adopt or reject the innovation, (4) implementation – begins using the innovation, and (5) confirmation – determines whether he or she will continue to use the innovation. Juxtaposing the theories of transformational leadership and diffusion of innovations substantiates all four of the behavioral characteristics of transformational leadership enacted by a combination of socially distant and socially close leaders are required for an individual to adopt a vision.

The five stage diffusion of innovations decision process aligns conceptually with the core influence processes of transformational leadership and the associated outcome of those processes on followers. Specifically, a follower's willingness to elevate his or her values to recognize the betterment of the group corresponds with the knowledge and persuasion stages in the diffusion of innovations framework. The second transformational process of increasing follower confidence through self-efficacy mirrors the decision phase; increasing competence reflects the implementation phase; and commitment parallels the confirmation phase. Just as the social distance between leader and follower impacts various organizational outcomes, an individual's progression through the stages in the diffusion of innovations process is impacted by the role and

relationship of the leader and follower. See Table 2 for a diagram of the diffusion of innovations process transposed with the transformational leadership framework.

Table 2: Diffusion of Innovations and Transformational Leadership

Diffusion of Innovations Stages	Transformational Leadership Outcomes	
	Close Leader Behaviors: Individualized Consideration & Intellectual Stimulation	Distant Leader Behaviors: Idealized Influence & Inspirational Motivation
1. Knowledge	Knowledge	Knowledge
2. Persuasion	-	Identity Change/Vision Support
3. Decision	Role Breadth Self-Efficacy	Collective Efficacy
4. Implementation	Development	-
5. Confirmation	Normative Commitment	Affective Commitment

Kohles, Bligh, and Carsten (2013) found two-way symmetrical communication is associated with one's perception of the characteristics of the innovation (i.e. relative advantage, comparability, trialability, observability, and complexity) and move an individual through the first three stages of the innovation adoption process - from knowledge through persuasion to decision. Yet, as indicated previously, substantial current research (e.g. Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004; Postomes, Shamir, 1995; Spears, & Lea, 1999; Wang & Howell, 2012;) indicates persuasion is best accomplished through indirect means from socially distant leaders, those with whom the follower would not regularly see or dyadically communicate. Thus, it may require a combination of communication from a socially distant and socially close leader to perceive the innovation characteristics as favorable.

An individual's perception of the innovation characteristics depends on his or her evaluation of how the innovation will impact him or her. Perception is based on the data he or she receives and that data is altered based on how close or distant the individual is from the original generator of the innovation (Meyer, 2000). Therefore, for an individual to understand how the innovation will impact him or her and likewise perceive he or she is close to the generation of the innovation and integral in its achievement, it requires the communication from

both a socially close and distant leader. The generator of the innovation is unlikely to be able to connect with each individual on a dyadic basis where he or she can speak to the individual's stake in the innovation and role in accomplishing it.

Conceptually, the innovation characteristics outlined by Rogers (2006) align closely with the established outcomes of the four key transformational leadership behaviors and associated communication behaviors, which as previously established, are enacted by both socially distant and close leaders respectively. Specifically, inspirational motivation and the communication behaviors of unifier and visionary would likely lead to the innovation characteristic of relative advantage, idealized influence and exemplar to observability, intellectual stimulation and integrator to complexity, and individualized consideration, developer, and encourager to compatibility.

Layering transformational leadership theory with diffusion of innovations shows transformational leadership provides many of the necessary factors needed by an individual to adopt/integrate the vision. It likewise demonstrates that some of the needed steps in the adoption process require the communication behaviors and associated outcomes of a close leader and others of a distant leader. Not only do individuals require vision related communication from multiple leaders, employees need consistent messages from each of those leadership sources.

Vision diffusion through consistent communication. The final stage - the confirmation stage of diffusion of innovations indicates whether an individual will continue to use the innovation (vision) and depends on the consistency of messages he or she receives regarding the innovation. As indicated above, many of the outcome variables associated with transformational leadership and arguably the previous stages in the diffusion of innovations process require both charismatic and individualized communication from a socially distant (executive) leader in combination with

a socially close leader. Therefore there must be a consistency between what the top leader says about the vision and how an employee's immediate supervisor interprets and communicates the vision (O'Reilly et al., 2010). Internal corporate communication scholars have emphasized the importance of communication consistency between leaders (Kress, 2005; Sacks, 2006). Vision salience is an important antecedent to vision integration (Oswald, Mossholder, & Harris, 1994), and one of the central components of perceived vision salience is the extent to which there is perceived consensus among the organization's leadership. When inconsistency exists regarding the vision and strategic direction, followers will be confused as to the importance of the vision and how it should be implemented (Cha & Edmondson, 2006).

Hypothesis 15: Followers perception of the consistency of vision communication between socially distant leaders and socially close leaders is positively related to followers' integration of the vision.

The above postulates the communication behaviors required to be enacted by the executive leader and direct supervisors for vision integration to occur in a single follower; however, it does not explain how vision diffuses/spreads throughout the organization to the point where all organizational members are enacting the vision correctly and in accordance with each's individual role. One could surmise the diffusion of vision related messages throughout the organization is quite straightforward – the executive leader decides on a vision, communicates it charismatically to the masses, and then each individual supervisor throughout the organization develops his or her direct report toward incorporating the vision into his or her daily tasks. However, for vision integration to occur on an organizational level, vision related communication must start with the executive leader communicating the vision first to his or her subsidiary top leaders. The dyadic communication between the executive leader and his or her

subsidiary top leaders is the impetus that prompts the vision to spread dyadically from supervisor to subordinate throughout the ranks of the organization.

Vision diffusion through subsidiary top leadership. If a top leader bypasses the level of leadership directly below him or her in an attempt to present a vision and inspire the masses to achieve it, as would a leader adhering solely to charismatic characteristics, he or she risks failure in two ways. The first risk lies in persuading followers as to the salience of the vision without initiating the chain of communication and structure that would ultimately provide all employees with the needed developmental support to show how to implement the vision into daily tasks. The second risk lies in allowing individuals with great influence and potentially different ideas to offer competing visions (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978; Rothman, Kelly-Woessner, & Woessner, 2011) or propagate damaging opinions of the vision (Meyer, 2000).

Floyd and Wooldridge (1992) assert the extent to which subsidiary top managers feel as though they have participated in the construction of the vision and have a stake in the vision impacts their level of willingness to pass the vision on to their reports and implement the necessary processes to have their employees enact the behaviors needed to achieve the vision. A central component of strategy implementation is consensus by the subsidiary top leaders on both the importance of the vision and also the specific course of action to implement it (Kaplan & Norton, 2013) Diffusion of innovation theory (Rogers, 1995, 2003) demonstrates individuals will fall into one of five categories regarding when they will adopt an innovation in relation to others in the network, namely innovators, early adopters, early majority, late majority, and laggards. The first 16% of individuals adopt the innovation is comprised of the innovators (2.5%) and the early adopters (13.5%). After those two groups is a critical point termed the chasm - the phase where many innovations expire in the diffusion process and fail to gain full adoption by a

population (Moore, 2002). Maloney (2011) notes a key contributor to the chasm is the lack of knowledge by marketers (or executive leaders) about the necessity of communicating differently to the first 16% than the remaining 84% of individuals. The innovators and early adopters (16%) are motivated to adopt the innovation for different reasons than the remaining early majority (34%), late majority (34%) and laggards (16%). They want to feel as though they have something unique – a scarce resource, and thus they have no motivation to share information about the innovation with the remaining individuals within a network. However, if those individuals feel as though they have participated in the innovation, they are more likely to share information about it with others (Maloney, 2011). Thus, participation by the subsidiary top leaders in the construction of the vision is imperative.

Hypothesis 16: Subsidiary top leaders' perception of their participation in the construction of the vision will be positively related with their likelihood of communicating about the vision on to their departments.

The executive leader should be communicating dyadically with his or her subsidiary top leaders producing strong ties so they believe they have participated in the vision construction. This will prompt the subsidiary leaders to then bridge the gap and diffuse to the ranks of employees throughout his or her department the strategy on how to enact the vision. While the executive leader must be connected to all in the organization for the purpose of promoting awareness of the vision and inspiring the masses toward the salience of the vision, the executive should not be strongly connected to all in the organization with regard to how to enact the vision.

Where others in the organization will be persuaded as to the importance of the vision from the charismatic behaviors of the executive leader, subsidiary top leaders are unique in that they must participate in the construction of the vision to be convinced as to its importance. If

subsidiary top leaders do not participate in the construction of the vision, they will resist passing it down. If the chain breaks at the beginning and the subsidiary top leader does not communicate necessary vision related messages to his or her direct reports, it will hinder the vision from being spread dyadically from supervisor to subordinate throughout the ranks of the organization. As established, communication from supervisor to subordinate is a critical component to vision integration.

Hypothesis 17: Executive leaders' individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation will be positively related to subsidiary top leaders' perception of participation in the vision.

While subsidiary top leaders are motivated to pass on the vision because they have participated in the construction of it, middle managers throughout the organization are motivated because their identity has changed from individual to collective. This substantiates why the executive at the top of the organization must communicate dyadically to his or her direct reports while simultaneously communicating charismatically to the masses. Communication from the executive leader is not only needed to convince employees of the importance of the vision, but it also inspires them to share the vision with others. Communication from one's immediate supervisor not only shows followers how to enact the vision, it models for them how to pass the vision on to their subordinates. In order for vision to flow throughout the organization, leaders at all levels must be performing all four of the key transformational leadership behaviors, yet they should be enacting specific behaviors based on their role and relationship to the follower.

The hypotheses outlined are organized around three guiding questions. The first examines the extent to which transformational leadership is distributive leadership, meaning it encompasses the behaviors of both close and distant leaders who perform certain behaviors

based on audience and context. By determining the behaviors best enacted by close leaders and those enacted by distant leaders, these hypotheses also delineate which leadership behaviors are inspiring and which are empowering. The second question explores whether the communication behaviors of transformational leaders are similar to the leadership behaviors and vary in their impact depending on who is performing the behavior. The third considers the extent to which subsidiary top leaders are needed for organizational members to receive consistent communication that leads to vision integration.

CHAPTER 3

Method

Drawing from previous research and employing a survey design, the study first tested the extent to which specific transformational leadership behaviors included in the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire were accomplished by a socially distant, executive leader or a socially close, direct supervisor. Further, the study employed a newly developed, Transformational Leadership Communication Scale to test the extent to which the communication behaviors that parallel the transformational leadership behaviors are best accomplished by a socially close versus a socially distant leader and whether they lead to differing outcomes. Finally, the study juxtaposed diffusion of innovations theory with transformational leadership to determine whether transformational leadership behaviors led to vision integration. By aligning transformational leadership behaviors with the diffusion of innovations decision making process, this study tested whether consistent communication from both socially distant and close leaders is needed for an individual to integrate a new vision. It further examined the importance of subsidiary top leaders' in the reception and dispersion of vision related communication messages.

Participants and Procedure

Employees from three large, multi-level organizations in the United States served as participants. Two of the organizations selected were global, non profit mega-church organizations with several hundred employees on staff and several thousand organizational members, and the third was a global, for-profit corporation in the aerospace industry with over 8,500 employees. The organizations were selected based on convenience sampling. For the purposes of this study, each organization was required to have several layers of leadership to ensure there was social distance (at least two levels of leadership) between the majority of

employees and the chief executive leader at the helm of the organization. The participants within each of the organizations were considered "on staff" in either a paid or volunteer role and included employees from all ranks of the organization. It total, 292 participants completed the study. Of those completed, 13 were removed due to lack of completing at minimum one subscale. The participants represented departments across the organization and were in all levels from administrative assistant to senior vice president. Participants tenure at their respective organizations ranged from less than a year to thirty-eight years. 272 participants reported their gender of which 175 were males and 97 were females. Of the 263 individuals who provided their ethnicity, 197 were White, 29 were Hispanic, 9 were Asian/Pacific islander, and 21 identified as other. Further, the majority of the participants were between 45 and 54 years old.

The initial process of selecting participants began with telephone calls and emails to organizations that fit the size and organizational structure criteria. An organizational leader or administrator was asked whether the organization had a new vision implemented in the last five years. Only those organizations that met the vision timeframe criteria were invited to participate in the study. At the start of the study, each organization was assigned an ID in order to maintain anonymity while allowing the researcher to align subordinate responses with the appropriate leader responses. The second step required documenting the organization's vision. The executive leader was asked to provide his or her vision for the organization in 50 words or less. Next, two questionnaires were distributed based on respondents' status as paid employee or volunteer. The questionnaires were online. A link was provided to the organizational contact who emailed it to employees. A single link was used to access both questionnaires. The first question delineated whether the respondent was a volunteer or paid employee, and the subsequent questions were adjusted accordingly. The first questionnaire designed for paid employees included four sections:

(1) several descriptive questions including the employee's ID, his or her title, direct supervisor's title/ID, and years of service to the organization, (2) subscales to measure transformational leadership of immediate supervisor and executive leader, communication behaviors of the immediate supervisor and executive leader, vision support, role breadth self-efficacy, collective efficacy, organizational commitment, job commitment, and vision integration, (3) Likert-scale items to measure the participants' perceptions of developmental activities provided by the direct supervisor and perceived consistency of communication between one's supervisor and executive leader, and (4) portions of the Episodic Communication Channels in Organizations analysis (ECCO) to measure participants vision knowledge by providing several visions and asking the respondents to select the accurate vision for their church. The second questionnaire was designed for unpaid staff volunteers. This questionnaire was much shorter and measured vision knowledge, vision support, vision integration, and vision communication flow. The second survey captured subsidiary top leaders' support of the vision, perception of participation in the construction of the vision, and amount of communication exchanged with their supervisor and subordinates about the vision.

Instrumentation

Transformational leadership. Transformational leadership was measured via the validated and widely accepted measure - Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X) (Bass & Avolio, 1990). This scale in entirety includes 45 items and measures leadership style (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire). For the purposes of this study, only those items pertaining to individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and idealized influence were included (12 items). The rater form (as opposed to the self-rater form) of the MLQ-5X was used as it has been reported to have higher levels of

reliability and construct validity. Previously reported reliability coefficients for the individual factors range from .73 to .94. Cronbach's alpha for the 12 items at the close leader level was .94 and .97 at the distant leader level. Prior to the MLQ-5X, previous versions of the measure were criticized given researchers could not replicate the six factor structure. Further the measure combined perceived behaviors of leaders and attributes. To address these critiques, Bass and Avolio made revisions which collapsed certain factors, and several scholars have confirmed the most recent MLQ-5X model is a psychometrically sound instrument (e.g., Avolio et al., 1999; Carless, 1998). See Appendix A for the full scale.

Individualized consideration. Individualized consideration was measured via a subscale of the MLQ-5X. Three items comprise this subscale namely items 4, 11, and 18. The subscale was used at the close leader level (α = .83) and distant leader level (α = .89). An example of an item is "my leader helps others develop themselves." See Appendix A for the full scale.

Intellectual stimulation. Intellectual stimulation was likewise measured using the appropriate subscale within the MLQ-5X. Three items comprise this subscale, namely items 3, 10, and 17. The subscale was used at the close leader level (α = .90) and distant leader level (α = .95) to measure the behavior of intellectual stimulation. An example of an item is "my manager gets others to rethink ideas they had never questioned before." See Appendix A for the full scale.

Inspirational motivation. Inspirational motivation was measured using the appropriate subscale within the MLQ-5X (Bass & Avolio, 1990). Three items comprise this subscale, but only two were used due to cross factor loading, namely items 2 and 9. The subscale was used at the close leader level (α = .83) and distant leader level (α = .93) to measure the behavior of inspirational motivation. An example of an item is "my manager provides appealing images about what we can do." See Appendix A for the full scale.

Idealized influence. Idealized influence was measured using the appropriate subscale within the MLQ-5X. Three items comprise this subscale, namely items 1, 8, and 15. The subscale was used at the close leader level (α = .86) and distant leader level (α = .94) to measure the behavior of idealized influence. An example of an item is "others have complete faith in him or her." See Appendix A for the full scale.

Transformational leadership communication. Leaders' communication behaviors were measured via a 35 item sale created for this study. Cronbach's alpha for the 35 items at the close leader level was .98 and .99 at the distant leader level. The scale was developed based on Bass and Avolio's (1990) conceptualization of transformational leadership. The scale includes subscales to measure seven underlying communication behaviors of transformational leadership including inquisitor, unifier, visionary, exemplar, developer, encourager, and integrator. Using a five point Likert scale, respondents were asked about their supervisors' communication and their executive leaders' communication. Sample items include, "helps us realize that everyone can win if we work together," and "provides regular feedback on my performance offering healthy criticism and tips for improvement." See Appendix B for the full scale.

Inquisitor. The behavior of inquisitor was measured through five items. The subscale was used at the close leader level (α = .93) and distant leader level (α = .96). An example of an item is "asks questions that challenge our current practices, procedures, and beliefs." See Appendix B for the full scale.

Unifier. The behavior of unifier was measured through five items. The subscale was used at the close leader level (α = .91) and distant leader level (α = .92). An example of an item is "emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission." See Appendix B for the full scale.

Visionary. The behavior of visionary was measured through five items. The subscale was used at the close leader level ($\alpha = .95$) and distant leader level ($\alpha = .95$). An example of an item is "articulates to the masses an inspiring and achievable vision of the future." See Appendix B for the full scale.

Exemplar. The behavior of exemplar was measured through four items. The subscale was used at the close leader level ($\alpha = .92$) and distant leader level ($\alpha = .94$). An example of an item is "willingly sacrifices for the success of the organization." See Appendix B for the full scale.

Integrator. The behavior of integrator was measured through four items. The subscale was used at the close leader level ($\alpha = .91$) and distant leader level ($\alpha = .92$). An example of an item is "offers advice to me on how to prioritize my responsibilities to align with the direction of the organization." See Appendix B for the full scale.

Developer. The behavior of developer was measured through five items. The subscale was used at the close leader level ($\alpha = .93$) and distant leader level ($\alpha = .95$). An example of an item is "helps me find opportunities to continually develop my skills and knowledge." See Appendix B for the full scale.

Encourager. The behavior of encourager was measured through five items. The subscale was used at the close leader level ($\alpha = .96$) and distant leader level ($\alpha = .97$). An example of an item is "tells me that he or she believes in my abilities and is impressed by my potential." See Appendix B for the full scale.

Vision support. Respondents' level of support for the vision was measured via a modified version of O'Reilly et al.'s (2010) four item Support for Strategic Change measure ($\alpha = .90$). Items include, "I am personally excited about implementing our vision," and "I am

personally convinced that this strategy is the right one for our organization." See Appendix C for the full scale.

Role breadth self-efficacy. Parker's (1998) ten item scale measured respondents' level of role breadth self-efficacy (α = .93). The measure prompted respondents to rate their level of confidence in carrying out each of the ten items on the scale via a five point Likert scale where a score of one indicates a participant is not at all confident and five where he or she is very confident. Scores on each of the ten items were summed to provide an overall score of role breadth self-efficacy. The items were broad and are demonstrated to be applicable despite industry or organizational status (Parkers, 1998). Items include "how confident would you feel visiting people from other departments to suggest doing things differently?" and "how confident would you feel contributing to discussions about the company's strategy?" See Appendix D for the full scale.

Collective-efficacy. Respondents' level of collective efficacy was measured using a modified version of the ten item general self-efficacy measure (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995), which has been used for several decades and consistently shown to have high reliability and validity (α = .95). Collective efficacy is an individual's belief that the group that he or she is a part of is able to overcome challenges and achieve success. The general self-efficacy scale was reworded to reflect group level effectiveness, which is the consistent practice in other studies measuring collective efficacy. The measure prompted respondents to rate their agreement with each of the ten items on the scale via a five point Likert scale where a score of one indicates the participant considers the statement not all true and five indicates exact truth. Sample items include, "if someone opposes our church, we can still find the means and ways to overcome and achieve our goals" and "our church organization can always manage to solve difficult problems

if we try hard enough." For this study, two items were omitted from the original general self-efficacy scale and an additional two items were added. Those items include, "If we all work together, our church has the resources, knowledge, and skills needed to achieve our goals, and "I have real confidence in our church's ability to perform its mission." See Appendix E for the full scale.

Organizational commitment. The nine item Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979, 1982) was used to measure respondents level of organizational commitment (α = .94). Sample items include, "I really care about the fate of this organization" and "for me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work." See Appendix F for the full scale.

Job commitment. Employing Reeve and Smith's (2001) measure, respondents rated their level of job involvement via a nine item scale that solicited their perception of the level of internalization about the goodness and importance of their work (α = .83). This measure is a revision of the original job involvement scale (e.g. Lodahl & Kejnar 1965) and has been shown to have greater construct validity. All items are rated on a five point Likert scale. Sample items include, "some of the most important things that happen to me involve my work," and "sometimes I lie awake at night thinking ahead to the next day." See Appendix G for the full scale.

Followers' perception of personal development. A four item scale measured whether followers' perceive their manager provides opportunity to develop skills related to the vision of the organization (α = .88). Sample items include, "I am provided with the necessary training in order to perform my job well" and "my manager provides me with developmental opportunities to learn new skills that will help me perform my job better." See Appendix H for the full scale.

Consistency of vision communication. Follower perception of consistency of the content of leaders' communication about the vision was measured through a four item scale developed for this study (α = .80). Sample items include, "When my immediate supervisor and the executive leader of my organization speak about the organization's vision, there is consistency in what they say about the vision," and "My immediate supervisor and the executive leader share the same vision for the organization." See Appendix I for the full scale.

Vision integration. The extent to which respondents perceive they are using the vision as a guiding framework to perform their job was measured via the established (Kohls, Bligh, & Cartsen, 2012) four item scale (α = .87). Sample items include, "The vision serves as a 'mental guideline' for how to do my job" and "knowing the vision affects what I think is important when doing my job." See Appendix J for the full scale.

Knowledge of vision. A portion of the Episodic Communication Channels in Organizations analysis (ECCO) (Zwijze-Koning & De Jong, 2005) was used to measure the extent to which respondents are familiar with the organization's vision. Based on the specific organization, the leader's vision was provided and respondents were asked to select their organization's vision from a list of four vision statements three of which are foil statements. See Appendix K for the full scale.

Subsidiary top leaders are hypothesized as central to the flow of vision related communication messages. Thus additional questions will be administered to subsidiary top leaders to examine their level contribution in the diffusion of the vision related communication throughout the ranks of the organization. See Appendix L for the full scale.

CHAPTER 4

Results

Confirmatory factor analysis (Hunter & Gerbing, 1982) was utilized to examine all multi-item scales for parallelism and internal consistency. Items were removed if they demonstrated poor fit on their predicted factor (i.e., low homogeneity) or demonstrated high crossloadings with other predicted factors (i.e., high heterogeneity). Within the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire scale at both the immediate supervisor and executive leader level, the item "helps others find meaning in their work" from the inspirational motivation subscale was removed. Within the newly developed transformational leadership communication scale at both the immediate supervisor and executive leader level, the item "suggests new ways of looking at how to complete tasks" from the integrator subscale was removed. From the measure at the immediate supervisor level only, the item "lives so passionately that it makes me want to emulate him or her" from the exemplar subscale was removed. From the measure at the executive leader level only, the item, "regularly talks about his or her most important values and beliefs" from the exemplar subscale was removed. Each of the items were removed due to high cross loadings with other factors. After removal of these items, small errors were observed in tests of parallelism and internal consistency and the two scales (along with the remaining nine) were determined to be consistent with the hypothesized measurement model.

Where appropriate, estimates of normality, linearity, multicollinearity, homoscedasticity and autocorrelation were computed. No violations of assumptions were observed in any of these indices except where otherwise noted.

Social Distance Informs Transformational Leadership

Hypothesis 1A: Transformational Leadership Behaviors and Vision Support

Hypothesis 1A predicted that idealized influence and inspirational motivation of socially distant leaders will have a stronger, positive relationship with employees' vision support than individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation of socially distant leaders. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and multiple regression were utilized to test this hypothesis. Results supported a moderate, positive relationship between each of the four behaviors and vision support (see Table 3).

Table 3: Summary of Intercorrelations Among Vision Support and Transformational Leadership Behaviors

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Vision Support	4.17	0.81	-				
2. DL Idealized Influence	3.46	1.14	.43**	-			
3. DL Inspirational Motivation	3.65	1.12	.43**	.84**	-		
4. DL Intellectual Stimulation	3.43	1.14	.45**	.84**	.88**	-	
5. DL Individualized Consideration	3.17	1.18	.41**	.82**	.80**	.89**	-

Note. N=278
DL = Distant Leader
** $p < .01$

Simultaneous multiple regression analysis indicated that while all of the behaviors together predicted 21% of vision support, $F(4, 219) = 14.73$, $p < .001$, none of the variables were uniquely predictive (see Table 4).

Table 4: Multiple Regression Analysis of Transformational Leadership Behavior as Individual Predictors of Vision Support

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
(Constant)	4.17	0.05		86.26	.001	[4.07, 4.26]
DL Idealized Influence	0.12	0.09	.16	1.32	.19	[-0.06, 0.29]
DL Inspirational Motivation	-0.01	0.09	-.02	-0.13	.90	[-0.20, 0.17]
DL Intellectual Stimulation	0.08	0.10	.11	0.84	.40	[-0.11, 0.28]
DL Individualized Consideration	0.16	0.12	.22	1.33	.19	[-0.08, 0.39]

Note: $R = .46$, $R^2 = .21$ (p < .001)
CI = Confidence Interval

High intercorrelations among independent variables along with moderate tolerance levels indicated that there may be some issues with multicollinearity in the multiple regression model. Multicollinearity is known to cause instability in the estimates of predictors (Yoo et al., 2014).

Thus, hierarchical multiple regression was used to consider each of the four behaviors separately while statistically excluding the overlapping variance from the other three behaviors and indicated intellectual stimulation was the strongest, unique predictor, $F(1, 223) = 55.09, p < .001$, explaining 20% of the variance in respondents' vision support (see Table 5).

Table 5: Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Intellectual Stimulation Predicting Vision Support

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
(Constant)	4.17	0.05		86.29	.001	[4.07, 4.26]
DL Intellectual Stimulation	0.32	0.04	.45	7.42	.001	[0.23, 0.40]

Note: R=.44, R^2=.20 (p < .001)
CI = Confidence Interval

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Vision Support - Excluded Variables

Predictor	β	t	p
DL Idealized Influence	.20	1.78	.08
DL Inspirational Motivation	.18	1.44	.15
DL Individualized Consideration	.05	0.37	.72

The data did not support hypothesis 1A. The charismatic leadership behaviors of inspirational motivation and idealized influence do not have a stronger, positive relationship with vision support than the individualized behaviors of intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration.

While inspirational motivation and idealized influence were not significant unique predictors of vision support when considered together with all four of the transformational leadership behaviors, hierarchical regression indicated the two behaviors together explain 20% of vision support when intellectual stimulation is statically excluded, $F(2, 225) = 28.75, p < .001$ (see Table 6). A t-test of their comparative predictive utility indicated there was not a significant difference between the effect size (β) of idealized influence and inspirational motivation on the change in respondents' vision support $t(232) = .16, p =$ n.s.

Table 6: Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Vision Support from Idealized Influence and Inspirational Motivation

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
(Constant)	4.17	0.05		86.97	.001	[4.07, 4.26]
DL Idealized Influence	0.16	0.08	.23	2.14	.03	[0.01, 0.32]
DL Inspirational Motivation	0.17	0.08	.24	2.23	.03	[0.02, 0.33]

Note. $R = .45$, $R^2 = .20$ (p < .001)
DL = Distant Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

H1A Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Vision Support - Excluded Variables

Predictor	β	t	p
DL Intellectual Stimulation	.21	1.54	.12

Note. DL = Distant Leader

Hypothesis 1B: Close Versus Distant Leader Inspirational Motivation and Vision Support

Hypothesis 1B predicted that the inspirational motivation (i.e. casting a clear and compelling vision) of a socially distant leader will have a stronger, positive relationship with vision support than inspirational motivation of a socially close leader. Consistent with this hypothesis, a distant leader's inspirational motivation tended to have a stronger, positive relationship with vision support, $r = .43$, $n = 235$, $p < .01$, than a close leader's inspirational motivation, $r = .34$, $n = 276$, $p < .01$ (see Table 7).

Table 7: Summary of Intercorrelations Among Vision Support and Inspirational Motivation at the Distant and Close Leader Level

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3
Vision Support	4.17	0.81	-		
DL Inspirational Motivation	3.65	1.12	.43**	-	
CL Inspirational Motivation	3.60	1.01	.34**	.32**	-

Note. N = 278
** $p < .01$

Simultaneous multiple regression was conducted to investigate whether inspirational motivation at the distant leader level explained more variance in respondents' vision support than the same behavior at the close leader level. Results indicated the behavior was predictive at both levels and together explained 23% of employees' vision support, $F(2, 218) = 33.33$, $p < .001$ (see

Table 8). While inspirational motivation from distant leaders, β = .36, tended to have a greater influence on vision support than inspirational motivation from close leaders, β = .23, a test of their comparative predictive utility indicated that it was not statistically greater, $t(232)$ = 1.83, p = n.s. Thus, the data did not support hypothesis 1B.

Table 8: Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Vision Support from Inspirational Motivation at the Distant and Close Leader Level

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
(Constant)	4.17	0.05		87.30	.001	[4.07, 4.26]
DL Inspirational Motivation	0.26	0.05	.36	5.78	.001	[0.17, 0.35]
CL Inspirational Motivation	0.18	0.05	.23	3.65	.001	[0.08, 0.28]

Note. R = .48, R^2 = .23 (p < .001)
DL = Distant Leader; CL = Close Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

Hypothesis 1C: Close Versus Distant Leader Idealized Influence and Vision Support

Hypothesis 1C predicted that the idealized influence of a socially distant leader will have a stronger, positive relationship with vision support than the idealized influence of a socially close leader. This behavior at the distant leader level, r = .43, n = 235, p < .01, had a stronger, positive relationship with vision support than did the same behavior at the close leader level, r = .34, n = 277, p < .01 (see Table 9).

Table 9: Summary of Intercorrelations Among Vision Support and Idealized Influence at the Distant and Close Leader Level

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3
1. Vision Support	4.17	0.81	-		
2. DL Idealized Influence	3.46	1.14	.43**	-	
3. CL Idealized Influence			.34**	.23**	-

Note. N = 278
DL = Distant Leader; CL = Close Leader
** *p* < .01

Simultaneous multiple regression analysis indicated that idealized influence of both close and distant leaders was predictive, $F(2, 218)$ = 36.17, p < .001, and together explained 25% of vision support (see Table 10). The findings indicated that while the idealized influence of distant

leaders tended to have a greater influence on vision support than close leaders it was not statistically greater, $t(233) = 1.52$, $p = $ n.s. Based on these findings, hypothesis 1C is not supported. A leader, whether an executive or immediate supervisor, who displays self-sacrificing, confidence evoking, unabashed commitment to the success of the group (e.g. idealized influence), impacts followers' support of the vision.

Table 10: Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Vision Support from Idealized Influence at the Distant and Close Leader Level

Variable	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*t*	*p*	95% CI
(Constant)	4.17	0.05		88.17	.001	[4.07, 4.26]
DL Idealized Influence	0.27	0.04	.37	6.18	.001	[0.18, 0.35]
CL Idealized Influence	0.21	0.05	.26	4.28	.001	[0.11, 0.30]

Note. $R = .50$, $R^2 = .25$ (p < .001)
CL = Close Leader; DL = Distant Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

Further, while it was not hypothesized, the extent to which social distance of the leader moderates the relationship between intellectual stimulation and vision support was analyzed. Previous hierarchical regression analysis (H1A) tested each of the four transformational leadership behaviors separately while statistically excluding the other three and indicated intellectual stimulation (e.g. a leaders use of logic and reason to inspire followers) had the strongest influence on vision support. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient indicated intellectual stimulation from a distant leader, $r = .45$, $n = 228$, $p < .01$, had a stronger, positive relationship with vision support than did the same behavior from a close leader, $r = .41$, $n = 276$, $p < .01$ (see Table 11).

Table 11: Summary of Intercorrelations Among Vision Support and Intellectual Stimulation at the Distant and Close Leader Level

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3
Vision Support	4.17	0.81	-		
DL Intellectual Stimulation	3.43	1.14	.45**	-	
CL Intellectual Stimulation	3.50	1.12	.41**	.28**	-

Note. CL = Close Leader; DL = Distant Leader
** $p < .01$

Simultaneous multiple regression was conducted to investigate whether intellectual stimulation at the distant leader level explained more variance in respondents' vision support than the same behavior at the close leader level. Results indicated the behavior was predictive at both levels, $F(2, 224) = 39.31$ $p < .001$, and together explained 26% of vision support (see Table 12). While distant leaders' intellectual stimulation tended to have a greater influence on vision support than close leaders' intellectual stimulation, it was not statistically greater, $t(223) = 1.61$, p = n.s.

Table 12: Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Vision Support from Intellectual Stimulation at the Distant and Close Leader Level

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
(Constant)	4.17	0.05		88.17	.001	[4.07, 4.26]
DL Intellectual Stimulation	0.27	0.04	.37	6.18	.001	[0.18, 0.35]
CL Intellectual Stimulation	0.21	0.05	.26	4.28	.001	[0.11, 0.30]

Note. $R = .51$, $R^2 = .26$ (p < .001)
CL = Close Leader; DL = Distant Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

In sum, while not statistically definitive, the results tended to indicate the behavior of intellectual stimulation is the primary predictor of vision support. Thus, the leader who allows followers to know the reasoning behind his or her vision and prompts them to think for themselves, to question everything, to not settle, and to figure out a way to improve their current situation is the leader who invokes followers' support for the vision. The results of this study are inconclusive as to whether the behavior can be generalized to have stronger impact when enacted by a close, direct supervisor or a distant, executive leader. However, further clarification on the influence of a close versus distant leader on vision support is shown in the analyses used to test hypothesis 9.

Hypothesis 2A: Transformational Leadership Behaviors and Role Breadth Self-efficacy

Hypothesis 2A predicted that individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation of socially close leaders will have a stronger, positive relationship with employees' role breadth self-efficacy than idealized influence and inspirational motivation. The relationship between the four transformational leadership behaviors and role breadth self-efficacy (RBSE, employee's belief that he or she has the ability to uniquely contribute the vision) was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and multiple regression.

Consistent with the hypothesis, the data indicated a small, positive relationship between each of the four predictor variables and role breadth self-efficacy. Furthermore, individualized consideration, $r = .37$, $n = 275$, $p < .01$, and intellectual stimulation, $r = .33$, $n = 275$, $p < .01$, had stronger, positive relationships than idealized influence and inspirational motivation (see Table 13).

Table 13: Summary of Intercorrelations Among Role Breadth Self-Efficacy and Transformational Leadership Behaviors

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Role Breadth Self-Efficacy	4.04	0.84	-				
2. CL Idealized Influence	3.68	1.01	.28**	-			
3. CL Inspirational Motivation	3.60	1.01	.29**	.84**	-		
4. CL Intellectual Stimulation	3.50	1.12	.33**	.78**	.79**	-	
5. CL Individualized Consideration	3.39	1.15	.37**	.75**	.75**	.89**	-

Note. N = 279
CL = Close Leader
** $p < .01$

Simultaneous multiple regression analysis indicated that the overall model predicted 13% of respondents' RBSE, $F(4, 226) = 8.56$, $p < .01$. Consistent with the hypothesis, close leader individualized consideration was a significant predictor of RBSE, and intellectual stimulation, while not a significant predictor, was in the predicted direction (see Table 14). Based on these findings, the hypothesis is partially supported. Thus, employees' beliefs in their ability to uniquely contribute to the vision (e.g. RBSE) is influenced by the extent to which a close leader

engages in the development, emotional wellbeing, opportunities afforded, and resources provided to each employee (i.e. individualized consideration). It may be affected by a close leader explaining the rationale behind the vision (i.e. intellectual stimulation); however, the effect was not significant.

Table 14: Multiple Regression Analysis Individual Predictors of Role Breadth Self-Efficacy

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
(Constant)	4.06	0.05		76.23	.001	[-0.16, 0.24]
CL Idealized Influence	.04	0.10	.04	0.36	.72	[-0.17, 0.23]
CL Inspirational Motivation	0.02	0.10	.03	0.23	.82	[-0.18, 0.23]
CL Intellectual Stimulation	0.16	0.08	.21	1.88	.06	[-0.01, 0.32]
CL Individualized consideration	0.11	0.05	.16	2.36	.02	[0.02, 0.21]

Note. $R=.36$, $R^2=.13$ (p < .001)
CL = Close Leader; DL = Distant Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

Hypothesis 2B: Close Versus Distant Leader Intellectual Stimulation and Role Breadth Self-Efficacy

Hypothesis 2B predicted that the social distance of the leader will moderate the positive relationship between intellectual stimulation and role breadth self-efficacy whereby the positive relationship between intellectual stimulation and role breadth self-efficacy will be stronger with socially close leaders than socially distant leaders. Intellectual stimulation was not a significant predictor of RBSE when considered together with all four of the transformational leadership behaviors. However, hierarchical regression analysis was used to determine whether any of the transformational leadership behaviors contributed additional variance beyond that explained by individualized consideration. The analysis indicated intellectual stimulation was the only variable to contribute additional variance $\Delta F(1, 229) = 15.87$, $p < .001$. Thus, intellectual stimulation is worthy of investigation (see Table 15).

Table 15: Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Role Breadth Self-Efficacy from Individualized consideration and Intellectual Stimulation

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
Model 1						
(Constant)	4.08	0.05		74.86	.001	[3.97, 4.19]
CL Individualized consideration	0.19	0.05	.26	4.15	.001	[0.10, 0.28]
Model 2						
(Constant)	4.06	0.05		76.68	.001	[3.96, 4.17]
CL Individualized consideration	0.11	0.05	.16	2.38	.02	[.02, 0.21]
CL Intellectual Stimulation	0.20	0.05	.27	3.98	.001	[0.10, 0.30]

Note. $R = .26$, $R^2 = .07$ (p < .001) for Model 1; $R = .36$, $R^2 = .13$, $\Delta R^2 = .06$ (p < .001) for Model 2
CL = Close Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient indicated that intellectual stimulation at the distant leader level, $r = .32$, $n = 229$, $p < .01$, had a nearly identical, positive relationship with RBSE than did the same behavior at the close leader level, $r = .33$, $n = 277$, $p < .01$.

Table 16: Summary of Intercorrelations Among Role Breadth Self-Efficacy and Intellectual Stimulation at the Distant and Close Leader Level

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3
1. Role Breadth Self-Efficacy	4.04	0.84	-		
2. DL Intellectual Stimulation	3.43	1.14	.32**	-	
3. CL Intellectual Stimulation	3.50	1.12	.33**	.40**	-

Note. N = 279
CL = Close Leader; DL = Distant Leader
** $p < .01$

Simultaneous multiple regression analysis was used to investigate whether intellectual stimulation at the close leader level explained more variance in respondents' RBSE than the same behavior at the distant leader level. Results indicated the behavior was predictive at both levels, $F(2, 218) = 19.38$, $p < .001$, and together explained 15% of the variance in respondents' RBSE (see Table 17). A t-test of the difference in the predictive utility of intellectual stimulation from close and distant leaders revealed that there was no statistical difference, $t(226) = .14$, $p =$ n.s. Based on these findings, hypothesis 2B is not supported.

Table 17: Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Role Breadth Self-Efficacy from Intellectual Stimulation at the Distant and Close Leader Level

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
(Constant)	4.04	0.53		76.88	.001	[3.93, 4.14]
DL Intellectual Stimulation	0.17	0.05	.23	3.30	.001	[0.07, 0.27]
CL Intellectual Stimulation	0.18	0.05	.24	3.52	.001	[0.08, 0.28]

Note. $R = .39$, $R^2 = .15$ (p < .001)
DL = Distant Leader; CL = Close Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

Hypothesis 2C: Close Versus Distant Leader Individualized Consideration and Role Breadth Self-Efficacy

Hypothesis 2C predicted the social distance of the leader will moderate the positive relationship between individualized consideration and RBSE whereby the positive relationship between individualized consideration and RBSE will be stronger with socially close leaders than socially distant leaders. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient indicated that individualized consideration from close leaders, $r = .37$, $n = 278$, $p < .01$, had a stronger, positive relationship with RBSE than did the same behavior from distant leaders, $r = .26$, $n = 235$, $p < .01$ (see Table 18).

Table 18: Summary of Intercorrelations Among Role Breadth Self-Efficacy and Individualized consideration at the Distant and Close Leader Level

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3
1. Role Breadth Self-Efficacy	4.04	0.84	-		
2. DL Individualized Consideration	3.17	1.18	.26**	-	
3. CL Individualized Consideration	3.39	1.15	.37**	.40**	-

Note. N = 279
CL = Close Leader; DL = Distant Leader
** $p < .01$

Simultaneous multiple regression analysis indicated the individualized consideration of both close and distant leaders were predictive, $F(2, 231) = 20.93$, $p < .001$, and together explained 15% of RBSE (see Table 19). Further, a test of their comparative predictive utility revealed that the individualized consideration of close leaders had greater influence on RBSE

than the individualized consideration of distant leaders, $t(232) = 2.55$, $p < .05$. Based on these

findings, hypothesis 2C is supported.

Table 19: Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Role Breadth Self-Efficacy from
Individualized consideration at the Distant and Close Leader Level

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
(Constant)	2.94	0.18		16.36	.001	[2.59, 3.30]
DL Individualized consideration	0.10	0.05	.14	2.12	.04	[0.01, 0.19]
CL Individualized consideration	0.23	0.05	.32	4.78	.001	[0.14, 0.33]

Note. $R = .40$, $R^2 = .15$ (p < .001)
DL = Distant Leader; CL = Close Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

In sum, individualized consideration enacted by a close leader is the strongest predictor

of followers' RBSE. Put simply, the direct supervisor who serves as a mentor providing

developmental support, an advocate who draws upon his or her own connections, and a coach

who understands the strengths and weaknesses of his or her people (e.g. individual

consideration) has the strongest impact on his or her followers' belief that they can personally

contribute to the organization's success (e.g. RBSE).

Hypothesis 3A: Transformational Leadership Behaviors and Collective Efficacy

Hypothesis 3A predicted inspirational motivation and idealized influence of socially

distant leaders will have a stronger, positive relationship with employees' collective efficacy

than individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation. The relationship between the four

transformational leadership behaviors and collective efficacy (e.g. one's belief that the group can

together achieve success) was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient

and multiple regression analysis. Results supported a small, positive relationship between each of

the four variables and collective efficacy (see Table 20).

Table 20: Summary of Intercorrelations Among Collective Efficacy and Transformational Leadership Behaviors

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*
1. Collective Efficacy	3.80	0.82	-				
2. DL Idealized Influence	3.46	1.14	.55**	-			
3. DL Inspirational Motivation	3.65	1.12	.47**	.84**	-		
4. DL Intellectual Stimulation	3.43	1.14	.53**	.84**	.88**	-	
5. DL Individualized Consideration	3.17	1.18	.50**	.82**	.80**	.89**	-

Note. N = 279
DL = Distant Leader
** *p* < .01

Simultaneous multiple regression analysis indicated that the overall model predicted 33% of respondents' collective efficacy, $F(4, 220) = 26.46$, $p < .001$. Consistent with the hypothesis, idealized influence was a significant predictor of collective efficacy. While not hypothesized, intellectual stimulation was also a significant predictor (see Table 21). A t-test of the comparative predictive utility of idealized influence, $\beta = .36$, and intellectual stimulation, $\beta = .23$, indicated idealized influence has a stronger impact, $t(226) = 2.36$, $p < .05$. Based on these findings, the hypothesis is partially supported given idealized influence is a charismatic behavior and intellectual stimulation is not.

Table 21: Multiple Regression Analysis Individual Predictors of Collective Efficacy

Variable	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*t*	*p*	95% CI
(Constant)	3.80	0.05		83.66	.001	[3.71, 3.89]
DL Idealized Influence	0.29	0.08	.41	3.55	.001	[0.13, 0.46]
DL Inspirational Motivation	-0.11	0.09	-.15	-1.18	.24	[-0.29, 0.07]
DL Intellectual Stimulation	0.22	0.11	.31	1.97	.05	[0.00, 0.44]
DL Individualized consideration	0.01	0.09	.02	0.14	.89	[-0.16, 0.19]

Note. $R = .57$, $R^2 = .33$ (p < .001)
DL = Distant Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

While the estimates of multicollinearity were well within acceptable ranges, the predictor variables were highly correlated which could potentially produce unstable estimates for the strength of the predictors. In order to address potential issues with multicollinearity, two additional, simultaneous, multiple regression analyses were conducted where predictors were

deleted from the analyses (one predictor from each model) in an effort to eliminate potential redundancy.

In the first multiple regression analysis, intellectual stimulation was deleted. Theoretically, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration are similar given they are both considered individualized behaviors. Thus, they may be redundant in the original model causing potentially high levels of multicollinearity. However, with intellectual stimulation omitted, the regression coefficients of the other three predictors remained similar. The overall model predicted 31% of collective efficacy, $R^2 = 31$, $F(3, 222) = 33.70$, $p < .001$. Idealized influence remained a significant predictor, $\beta = .44$, $t(235) = 3.90$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.16, .48]. Inspirational motivation continued to have a negative regression coefficient, $\beta = -.02$, $t(234) = -2.03$, $p = .84$, 95% CI [-.17, .26]. Individualized consideration remained insignificant, $\beta = .16$, $t(234) = 1.53$, $p = .13$, 95% CI [-.03, .25].

In a second multiple regression analysis, idealized influence was deleted given it is theoretically similar to inspirational motivation as they are both considered charismatic behaviors. Results indicated the overall model predicted 29% of followers' collective efficacy, $R^2 = 29$, $F(3, 221) = 29.54$, $p < .001$. Inspirational motivation now had a positive regression coefficient; however, it was still not a significant predictor, $\beta = .01$, $t(234) = .11$, $p = $ n.s., 95% CI [-.17, .18]. Similar to the original model, intellectual stimulation remained a significant predictor, $\beta = .39$, $t(234) = 2.50$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.06, .51], and individualized consideration remained insignificant, $\beta = .14$, $t(234) = 1.12$, $p = $ n.s., 95% CI [-.07, .27]. Thus additional analyses allow for confidence in the stability of idealized influence and intellectual stimulation being the only two significant predictors of collective efficacy.

Hypothesis 3B: Close Versus Distant Leader Inspirational Motivation and Collective

Efficacy

Hypothesis 3B predicted that the social distance of the leader will moderate the positive relationship between inspirational motivation and collective efficacy whereby the positive relationship between inspirational motivation and collective efficacy will be stronger with socially distant leaders than socially close leaders. As reported in hypothesis 3A, inspirational motivation was not a significant predictor of collective efficacy when considered together with all four of the transformational leadership behaviors. It is only significant when included as a single predictor, $\beta = .47$, $t(234) = 8.20$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.26, .43] and explained 22% of the variance in collective efficacy, $R^2 = .22$, $F(1, 233) = 62.20$, $p < .001$. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient indicated a distant leader's inspirational motivation, $r = .47$, $n = 235$, $p < .01$, had a stronger, positive relationship with collective efficacy than a close leader's inspirational motivation, $r = .39$, $n = 276$, $p < .01$ (see Table 22).

Table 22: Summary of Intercorrelations Among Collective Efficacy and Inspirational Motivation at the Distant and Close Leader Level

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*1*	*2*	*3*
1. Collective Efficacy	3.80	0.82	-		
2. DL Inspirational Motivation	3.65	1.12	.47**	-	
3. CL Inspirational Motivation	3.60	1.01	.39**	.32**	-

Note. N= 279
DL = Distant Leader; CL = Close Leader
** *p* < .01

Simultaneous multiple regression was conducted to investigate whether inspirational motivation at the distant leader level explained more variance in respondents' collective efficacy than the same behavior at the close leader level. Results indicated the behavior was predictive at both levels, $F(2, 218) = 44.40$, $p < .001$, and together explained 29% of employees' collective efficacy (see Table 23). While inspirational motivation from distant leaders, $\beta = .39$, tended to

have a greater influence on collective efficacy than inspirational motivation from close leaders, β = .27, it was not statistically greater, $t(532) = 1.76$, $p = $ n.s. Thus, hypothesis 3B is not supported.

Table 23: Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Collective Efficacy from Inspirational Motivation at the Distant and Close Leader Level

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
(Constant)	3.80	0.05		81.18	.001	[3.70, 3.89]
DL Inspirational Motivation	0.28	0.04	.39	6.46	.001	[0.20, 0.37]
CL Inspirational Motivation	0.22	0.05	.27	4.49	.001	[0.12, 0.32]

Note. $R = .54$, $R^2 = .29$ (p < .001)
DL = Distant Leader; CL = Close Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

Hypothesis 3C: Close Versus Distant Leader Idealized Influence and Collective Efficacy

Hypothesis 3C predicted social distance of the leader will moderate the positive relationship between idealized influence and collective efficacy whereby the positive relationship between idealized influence and collective efficacy will be stronger with socially distant leaders than socially close leaders. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and multiple regression analysis were utilized to analyze this hypothesis. Results indicated idealized influence at the distant leader level, $r = .56$, $n = 236$, $p < .01$, had a stronger, positive relationship with collective efficacy than did the same behavior at the close leader level, $r = .31$, $n = 278$, $p < .01$ (see Table 24).

Table 24: Summary of Intercorrelations Among Collective Efficacy and Idealized Influence at the Distant and Close Leader Level

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3
1. Collective Efficacy	3.80	0.82	-		
2. DL Idealized Influence	3.46	1.14	.56**	-	
3. CL Idealized Influence	3.68	1.01	.31**	.32**	-

Note. N = 278
DL = Distant Leader; CL = Close Leader
** $p < .01$

Simultaneous multiple regression tested whether idealized influence at the distant leader level explained more variance in respondents' collective efficacy than the same behavior at the

close leader level. Results indicated that idealized influence of both close and distant leaders were predictive, $F(2, 218) = 56.70$, $p < .001$, and together explained 34% of collective efficacy (see Table 25). A test of the difference in the predictive utility of idealized influence from close ($\beta = .20$) and distant leaders ($\beta = .51$) revealed there was a statistically significant difference, $t(233) = 4.56$, $p < .05$. The data supports hypothesis 3C. The inspirational motivation of distant leaders had a stronger impact than close leaders on employees' collective efficacy.

Table 25: Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Collective Efficacy from Idealized Influence at the Distant and Close Leader Level

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
(Constant)	3.80	0.05		84.37	.001	[3.71, 3.89]
DL Idealized Influence	0.37	0.04	.51	9.00	.001	[0.29, 0.45]
CL Idealized Influence	0.16	0.05	.20	3.50	.001	[0.07, 0.25]

Note. $R = .59$, $R^2 = .34$ (p < .001)
DL = Distant Leader; CL = Close Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

In sum, the extent to which the leader portrays him or herself as someone worthy of emulation (e.g. idealized influence), has the greatest impact on followers' belief that the company can achieve success (e.g. collective efficacy). The leader who most effectively enacts that type of behavior is one in an executive level position.

Hypothesis 4A: Close Leader Individual Consideration Moderates Distant Leader Inspirational Motivation and Organizational Commitment

Hypothesis 4A predicted that individual consideration of a close leader would moderate the relationship between the inspirational motivation of a socially distant leader and organizational commitment. In order to test this moderated relationship, the independent variables were centered about their respective means, and an interaction term (close leader individual consideration X distant leader inspirational motivation) was computed. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was then utilized to test the model with the main effects entered in

step 1 and the interaction term entered at step 2. Overall, step 1 indicated the model was

significant and explained 30% of organizational commitment, $F(2, 222) = 45.30$, $p < .001$. The

model indicated a significant direct effect of individualized consideration from a close leader.

Distant leaders' inspirational motivation was not a significant predictor. Step 2 indicated no

significant interaction of close leader individual consideration X distant leader inspirational

motivation, $\Delta F(1, 221) = .82$, $p =$ n.s. (see Table 26).

Table 26: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Organizational Commitment from
Individualized Consideration, Inspirational Motivation, and an Interaction Term

Variable	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*t*	*p*	95% CI
Model 1						
(Constant)	3.94	0.05		75.84	.001	[3.84, 4.04]
CL Individualized consideration	0.29	0.07	.38	4.07	.001	[0.15, 0.42]
DL Inspirational Motivation	0.14	0.07	.18	1.90	.06	[-0.01, 0.29]
Model 2						
(Constant)	3.93	0.05		72.37	.001	[3.82, 4.03]
CL Individualized consideration	0.28	0.07	.38	3.97	.001	[0.14, 0.42]
DL Inspirational Motivation	0.15	0.07	.19	1.97	.05	[0.00, 0.29]
CL Individualized consideration X DL Inspirational Motivation	0.03	0.04	.05	0.90	.37	

Note. $R = .54$, $R^2 = .29$ (p < .001) for Model 1; $R = .54$, $R^2 = .002$, $\Delta R^2 = .02$ (p = .37) for Model 2
CL = Close Leader; DL = Distant Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

In order to further investigate this hypothesis, individual consideration was split into low,

moderate, and high levels, and the correlation between distant leader inspirational motivation and

organizational commitment was examined at each level. This analysis indicated that at high

levels of close leader individual consideration the relationship between distant leader's

inspirational motivation and organizational commitment was not significant, $r = .19$, $n = 78$, $p =$

n.s. At moderate levels, the relationship between distant leader's inspirational motivation and

organizational commitment was lower, $r = .31$, $n = 77$, $p < .01$, than at low levels, $r = .40$, $n = 79$,

$p < .01$, levels of individual consideration. The data therefore does not support hypothesis 4A.

The data indicate that perhaps the relationship between distant leaders' inspirational motivation

and organizational commitment is not affected by close leader individual consideration, or may possibly be strongest (rather than weakest) at lower levels of close leader individual consideration. Individualized consideration by a direct supervisor does not provide a moderating influence on the relationship between executive leaders' inspirational motivation and followers' commitment to the organization.

Hypothesis 4B: Close Leader Individual Consideration Moderates Distant Leader Idealized Influence and Organizational Commitment

Hypothesis 4B predicted that individual consideration of a close leader would moderate the relationship between the idealized influence of a socially distant leader and organizational commitment. In order to test this moderated relationship, the independent variables were centered about their respective means, and an interaction term (close leader individual consideration X distant leader idealized influence) was computed. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was then utilized to test the model with the main effects entered in step 1 and the interaction term entered at step 2. Overall, step 1 indicated the model was significant and explained 31% of organizational commitment, $F(2, 222) = 49.18$, $p < .001$. The model indicated both individual consideration and idealized influence had a significant, direct effect of on organizational commitment. While idealized influence from a distant leader, $\beta = .30$, tended to have a greater influence on organizational commitment than individualized consideration from a close leader, $\beta = .29$, a test of their comparative, predictive utility indicated it was not statistically greater $t(233) = .18$, $p = $ n.s. Step 2 indicated no significant interaction of close leader individual consideration X distant leader idealized influence, $\Delta F(1, 221) = .06$, $p = .81$ (see Table 27).

Table 27: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Organizational Commitment from Individualized Consideration, Inspirational Motivation, and an Interaction Term

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
Model 1						
(Constant)	3.92	0.05		76.17	.001	[3.82, 4.03]
CL Individualized consideration	0.21	0.07	.29	2.95	.003	[0.07, 0.36]
DL Idealized Influence	0.23	0.08	.30	3.04	.003	[0.08, 0.38]
Model 2						
(Constant)	3.92	0.05		73.60	.001	[3.82, 4.03]
CL Individualized Consideration	0.21	0.07	.29	2.96	.003	[0.07, 0.36]
DL Idealized Influence	0.23	0.08	.29	2.96	.003	[0.08, 0.37]
CL Individualized Consideration X DL Idealized Influence	0.01	0.04	.01	0.24	.81	[-0.07, 0.08]

Note. $R = .55$, $R^2 = .31$ ($p < .001$) for Model 1; $R = .55$, $R^2 = .31$, $\Delta R^2 = .00$ ($p = .06$) for Model 2
CL = Close Leader; DL = Distant Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

In order to further investigate this hypothesis, individual consideration was split into low, moderate, and high levels, and the correlation between distant leader idealized influence and organizational commitment was examined at each level. This analysis indicated that at high levels of close leader individual consideration the relationship between distant leader's inspirational motivation and organizational commitment was lower, $r = .26$, $n = 78$, $p < .01$, than at moderate, $r = .38$, $n = 77$, $p < .01$, or low, $r = .45$, $n = 79$, $p < .01$ levels of individual consideration. The data therefore does not support hypothesis 4B and indicates perhaps that the relationship between distant leader's idealized influence and organizational commitment is not affected by close leader individual consideration, or may be possibly strongest (rather than weakest) at lower levels of close leader individual consideration. Individualized consideration by a direct supervisor does not provide a moderating influence on the relationship between executive leaders' idealized influence and followers' commitment to the organization.

Hypothesis 5A: Close Leader Intellectual Stimulation Moderates Distant Leader Inspirational Motivation and Organizational Commitment

Hypothesis 5A predicted that intellectual stimulation of a close leader would moderate the relationship between the inspirational motivation of a socially distant leader and organizational commitment. In order to test this moderated relationship, the independent variables were centered about their respective means, and an interaction term (close leader intellectual stimulation X distant leader inspirational motivation) was computed. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was then utilized to test the model with the main effects entered in step 1 and the interaction term entered at step 2. Overall, step 1 indicated the model was significant and explained 36% of organizational commitment, $F(2, 229) = 64.76$, $p < .001$. A test of their comparative, predictive utility indicated there was no significant difference between the influence of a close leader's intellectual stimulation and a distant leader's inspirational motivation, $t(232) = 0.00$, $p = $ n.s. Step 2 indicated no significant interaction of close leader intellectual stimulation X distant leader inspirational motivation, $\Delta F(1, 228) = .10$, $p = $ n.s. (see Table 28).

Table 28: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Organizational Commitment from Intellectual Stimulation, Inspirational Motivation, and an Interaction Term

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
Model 1						
(Constant)	3.88	0.05		83.87	.001	[3.79, 3.97]
CL Intellectual Stimulation	0.29	0.04	.37	6.55	.001	[0.20, 0.37]
DL Inspirational Motivation	0.29	0.04	.37	6.68	.001	[0.21, 0.38]
Model 2						
(Constant)	3.88	0.05		80.31	.001	[3.79, 3.98]
CL Intellectual Stimulation	0.29	0.04	.37	6.52	.001	[0.20, 0.37]
DL Inspirational Motivation	0.29	0.04	.37	6.67	.001	[0.21, 0.38]
CL Intellectual Stimulation X DL Inspirational Motivation	-0.01	0.03	-.02	-0.32	.75	[-0.08, 0.06]

Note. $R = .60$, $R^2 = .36$ (p < .001) for Model 1; $R = .60$, $R^2 = .36$, $\Delta R^2 = .00$ (p = .75) for Model 2
CL = Close Leader; DL = Distant Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

In order to further investigate this hypothesis, intellectual stimulation was split into low, moderate, and high levels and the correlation between distant leader inspirational motivation and

organizational commitment was examined at each level. This analysis indicated that at high levels of close leader intellectuals stimulation the relationship between distant leader's inspirational motivation and organizational commitment was slightly higher, $r = .41$, $n = 93$, $p <$ .01, than at low, $r = .37$, $n = 93$, $p < .01$, or moderate , $r = .29$, $n = 93$, $p < .05$ levels of intellectuals stimulation. While data tends to indicate that perhaps the relationship between distant leader's inspirational motivation and organizational commitment is slightly affected by a close leader's intellectual stimulation, the behavior does not provide a statistically significant moderating influence. Thus, hypothesis 5A is not supported.

Hypothesis 5B: Close Leader Intellectual Stimulation Moderates Distant Leader Idealized Influence and Organizational Commitment

Hypothesis 5B predicted that intellectual stimulation of a close leader would moderate the relationship between the idealized influence of a socially distant leader and organizational commitment. In order to test this moderated relationship, the independent variables were centered about their respective means, and an interaction term (close leader intellectual stimulation X distant leader idealized influence) was computed. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was then utilized to test the model with the main effects entered in step 1 and the interaction term entered at step 2. Overall**,** step 1 indicated the model was significant and explained 41% of organizational commitment, $F(2, 230) = 79.00$ $p < .001$. While a distant leader's idealized influence, $\beta = .42$, tended to have a stronger influence than a close leader's intellectual stimulation, $\beta = .37$, on organizational commitment, a t-test comparing their predictive utility confirmed there was no significant difference, $t(233) = .80$, $p =$ n.s. Step 2 indicated no significant interaction of close leader intellectual stimulation X distant leader inspirational motivation, $\Delta R^2 = .003$, $\Delta F(1, 229) = 1.20$, $p =$ n.s. (see Table 29).

Table 29: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Organizational Commitment from Intellectual Stimulation, Idealized Influence, and an Interaction Term

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
Model 1						
(Constant)	3.88	0.04		87.25	.001	[3.79, 3.96]
CL Intellectual Stimulation	0.29	0.04	.37	7.03	.001	[0.21, 0.37]
DL Inspirational Motivation	0.33	0.04	.42	8.02	.001	[0.25, 0.41]
Model 2						
(Constant)	3.89	0.05		84.36	.001	[3.80, 3.98]
CL Intellectual Stimulation	0.29	0.04	0.37	7.03	.001	[0.21, 0.37]
DL Inspirational Motivation	0.34	0.04	0.43	8.09	.001	[0.25, 0.42]
CL Intellectual Stimulation X DL Inspirational Motivation	-0.04	0.03	-0.06	-1.10	.27	[-0.11, 0.03]

Note. $R = .64$, $R^2 = .41$ ($p < .001$) for Model 1; $R = .64$, $R^2 = .41$, $\Delta R^2 = .003$ ($p = .27$) for Model 2
CL = Close Leader; DL = Distant Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

In order to further investigate this hypothesis, intellectual stimulation was split into low, moderate, and high levels and the correlation between distant leader idealized influence and organizational commitment was examined at each level. This analysis indicated that at high levels of close leader intellectual stimulation the relationship between distant leader's idealized influence and organizational commitment was slightly higher, $r = .48$, $n = 92$, $p < .01$, than at low, $r = .44$, $n = 93$, $p < .01$, or moderate, $r = .35$, $n = 93$, $p < .01$ levels of intellectual stimulation. The data tends to indicate that perhaps the relationship between distant leader's idealized influence and organizational commitment is slightly affected by a close leader's intellectual stimulation, where at high levels of intellectual stimulation, the relationship between idealized influence and organizational commitment is stronger than at low or moderate levels. However, the behavior does not provide a statistically significant moderating influence. Thus, the data did not support hypotheses 5B. Intellectual Stimulation by a direct supervisor does not provide a moderating influence on the relationship between executive leaders' idealized influence and followers' commitment to the organization.

To add further insight to the moderated effects predicted in hypothesis 5, an an additional

hierarchical multiple regression analysis compared the direct effects of all transformational leadership behaviors at the close and distant leader level. Results indicated an executive leaders' intellectual stimulation was the strongest predictor of organizational commitment contributing 31% of variance followed by a direct supervisors' inspirational motivation adding 11%. Executive leaders' idealized influence contributed an additional 1%. The other behaviors did not contribute unique variance, $\Delta F(1, 221) = 4.95$, $p < .001$ (see Table 30). Consistent with hypotheses five and six, an executive (as opposed to the direct supervisor) had the strongest impact on organizational commitment. However contrary to the hypotheses, his or her impact was not greatest when performing charismatic behaviors but rather intellectual stimulation. Thus, these data indicate that an employee's commitment to the organization is impacted most by the organization's executive sharing his or her logic behind the direction and strategy for the organization. A secondary influence is made by the direct supervisor who inspires the follower about the benefits of achieving the organization's vision.

Table 30: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Organizational Commitment from Distant and Close Leader Behavior

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
Model 1						
(Constant)	3.88	0.05		79.88	.001	[3.78, 3.97]
DL Intellectual Stimulation	0.43	0.04	.56	10.11	.001	[0.35, 0.52]
Model 2						
(Constant)	3.88	0.04		87.15	.001	[3.79, 3.96]
DL Intellectual Stimulation	0.34	0.04	.44	8.20	.001	[0.26, 0.42]
CL Inspirational Motivation	0.31	0.05	.36	6.60	.001	[0.22, 0.40]
Model 3						
(Constant)	3.88	0.04		87.93	.001	[3.79, 3.96]
DL Intellectual Stimulation	0.21	0.07	.27	2.84	.01	[0.06, 0.35]
CL Inspirational Motivation	0.31	0.05	.36	6.68	.001	[0.22, 0.40]
DL Idealized Influence	0.16	0.07	.21	2.23	.03	[0.02, 0.30]

Note. $R = .56$, $R^2 = .31$ (p < .001) for Model 1; $R = .65$, $R^2 = .43$, $\Delta R^2 = .11$ (p < .001) for Model 2; $R = .66$, $R^2 = .44$, $\Delta R^2 = .01$ (p < .001) for Model 3
DL = Distant Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

Hypothesis 6A: Distant Leader Inspirational Motivation Moderates Close Leader

Individualized Consideration and Job Commitment

Hypothesis 6A predicted that inspirational motivation of socially distant leaders moderates the impact of socially close leaders' individualized consideration and followers' level of job commitment. In order to test this moderated relationship, the independent variables were centered about their respective means, and an interaction term (distant leader inspirational motivation X close leader individualized consideration) was computed. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was then utilized to test the model with the main effects entered in step 1 and the interaction term entered at step 2. Overall, step 1 indicated the model was significant and explained 14% of respondents' job commitment, $F(2, 222) = 18.29$, $p < .001$. A close leaders' individual consideration was a significant predictor and a distant leaders' inspirational motivation was not. Step 2 indicated a significant interaction of distant leader's inspirational motivation X close leader individual consideration, $\Delta F(1, 221) = 4.98$, $p = .03$ (see Table 31).

Table 31: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Job Commitment from Individual Consideration, Inspirational Motivation and an Interaction Term

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
Model 1						
(Constant)	3.07	0.05		64.03	.00	[2.98, 3.17]
CL Individualized consideration	0.15	0.07	.23	2.25	.03	[0.02, 0.27]
DL Inspirational Motivation	0.11	0.07	.16	1.57	.12	[-0.03, 0.24]
Model 2						
(Constant)	3.04	0.05		61.25	.00	[2.94, 3.14]
CL Individualized consideration	0.13	0.06	.21	2.06	.04	[0.01, 0.26]
DL Inspirational Motivation	0.12	0.07	.18	1.77	.08	[-0.01, 0.25]
CL Individualized consideration X DL Inspirational Motivation	0.07	0.03	.14	2.23	.03	[0.01, 0.14]

Note. $R = .38$, $R^2 = .14$ ($p < .001$) for Model 1; $R = .40$, $R^2 = .16$, $\Delta R^2 = .02$ ($p = .03$) for Model 2
CL = Close Leader; DL = Distant Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

Figure 9: Regression line depicting the relationship between close leader individual consideration and follower job commitment at low and high levels of distant leader inspirational motivation.

In order to further investigate this hypothesis, distant leader inspirational motivation was split into low, moderate, and high levels, and the correlation between close leader individual consideration and job commitment was examined at each level. This analysis indicated that only at moderate levels of inspirational motivation was the relationship between close leader's individual consideration and job commitment significant, $r = .25$, $n = 78$, $p < .05$. Distant leader inspirational motivation was then split into low and high levels, and the correlation between individual consideration and job commitment was examined. Only at low levels of distant leader inspirational motivation, $r = .26$, $n = 117$, $p < .01$, was the relationship between close leader individual consideration and follower job commitment significant. Consistent with the hypothesis, inspirational motivation by an executive leader provides a moderating influence on

the relationship between direct supervisors' individual consideration and followers' commitment to their job; however, only when performed at low levels. When an executive leader provides high levels of inspiration, the direct supervisor's behavior is less impactful. Thus, the data partially supports hypothesis 6A.

Hypothesis 6B: Distant Leader Inspirational Motivation Moderates Close Leader Intellectual Stimulation and Job Commitment

Hypothesis 6B predicted that inspirational motivation of socially distant leaders moderates the impact of socially close leaders' intellectual stimulation and followers' job commitment. In order to test this moderated relationship, the independent variables were centered about their respective means, and an interaction term (distant leader inspirational motivation X close leader intellectual stimulation) was computed. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was then utilized to test the model with the main effects entered in step 1 and the interaction term entered at step 2. Overall, step 1 indicated the model was significant and explained 17% of respondents' job commitment, $F(2, 230) = 23.15$, $p < .001$. While the data tended to indicate a distant leaders' inspirational motivation, $\beta = .28$, had a greater influence than close leaders' intellectual stimulation, $\beta = .23$, on job commitment, it was not statistically greater $t(231) = .68$, $p = $ n.s. Step 2 indicated no significant interaction of distant leader's inspirational motivation X close leader intellectual stimulation, $\Delta R^2 = .004$, $\Delta F(1, 229) = 1.22$, p = n.s. (see Table 32).

Table 32: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Job Commitment from Intellectual Stimulation, Inspirational Motivation and an Interaction Term

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
Model 1						
(Constant)	3.04	0.04		68.73	.00	[2.95, 3.13]
CL Intellectual Stimulation	0.15	0.04	.23	3.55	.00	[0.07, 0.23]
DL Inspirational Motivation	0.18	0.04	.28	4.34	.00	[0.10, 0.26]
Model 2						

(Constant)	3.02	0.05		65.59	.00	[2.93, 3.11]
CL Intellectual Stimulation	0.15	0.04	.23	3.54	.00	[0.07, 0.23]
DL Inspirational Motivation	0.18	0.04	.28	4.37	.00	[0.10, 0.27]
CL Intellectual Stimulation X DL Inspirational Motivation	0.04	0.03	.07	1.11	.27	[-0.03, 0.10]

Note. $R = .41$, $R^2 = .17$ ($p < .001$) for Model 1; $R = .42$, $R^2 = .17$, $\Delta R^2 = .004$ ($p = .27$) for Model 2
CL = Close Leader; DL = Distant Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

In order to further investigate this hypothesis, distant leader inspirational motivation was split into low, moderate, and high levels, and the correlation between close leader intellectual stimulation and job commitment was examined at each level. This analysis indicated that at high levels of distant leader inspirational motivation the relationship between close leaders' intellectual stimulation and job commitment was stronger, $r = .50$, $n = 78$, $p < .01$, than at low, $r = .23$, $n = 79$, $p < .05$, levels of inspirational motivation. At moderate levels, the relationship was not significant. The data tends to indicate that perhaps the relationship between distant leader's intellectual stimulation and job commitment is slightly affected by a distant leader's inspirational motivation, where at high levels of inspirational motivation the relationship between intellectual stimulation and job commitment is stronger than at low or moderate levels. However, a distant leaders' inspirational motivation does not provide a statistically significant moderating influence (see Table 32). Thus, the data did not support hypotheses 6B.

Hypothesis 7A: Distant Leader Idealized Influence Moderates Close Leader Individual Consideration and Job Commitment

Hypothesis 7A predicted that idealized influence of socially distant leaders moderates the impact of socially close leaders' individualized consideration on followers' job commitment. In order to test this moderated relationship, the independent variables were centered about their respective means, and an interaction term (distant leader idealized influence X close leader individualized consideration) was computed. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was then

utilized to test the model with the main effects entered in step 1 and the interaction term entered at step 2. Overall**,** step 1 indicated the model was significant and explained 14% of respondents' job commitment, $F(2, 222) = 17.94$, $p < .001$. Individualized consideration from a close leader was a significant predictor and idealized influence from a distant leader was not. Step 2 indicated no significant interaction of distant leader's idealized influence X close leader's individualized consideration, $\Delta R^2 = .003$, $\Delta F(1, 221) = .89$, $p =$ n.s. (see Table 33).

Table 34: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Job Commitment from Individualized Consideration, Idealized Influence and an Interaction Term

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
Model 1						
(Constant)	3.07	0.05		63.73	.001	[2.98, 3.17]
CL Individualized Consideration	0.15	0.07	.24	2.25	.03	[0.02, 0.29]
DL Idealized Influence	0.10	0.07	.15	1.35	.18	[-0.04, 0.23]
Model 2						
(Constant)	3.06	0.05		61.51	.001	[2.96, 3.16]
CL Individualized Consideration	0.16	0.07	.25	2.33	.02	[0.02, 0.29]
DL Idealized Influence	0.09	0.07	.13	1.19	.24	[-0.06, 0.22]
CL Individualized Consideration X DL Idealized Influence	0.03	0.04	.06	0.95	.35	[-0.04, 0.10]

Note. $R = .37$, $R^2 = .14$ (p < .001) for Model 1; $R = .48$, $R^2 = .14$, $\Delta R^2 = .003$ (p = .35) for Model 2
CL = Close Leader; DL = Distant Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

In order to further investigate this hypothesis, distant leader idealized influence was split into low and high levels, and the correlation between close leader individualized consideration and follower job commitment was examined at each level. This analysis indicated that only at low levels of distant leaders' idealized influence was the relationship between close leaders' individualized consideration and job commitment significant, $r = .30$, $n = 118$, $p < .01$ The data therefore does not support hypothesis 7A and indicated perhaps that the relationship between close leader's individualized consideration and job commitment is not affected by distant leader idealized influence, or may be possibly strongest (rather than weakest) at lower levels of distant leader idealized influence.

Hypothesis 7B: Distant Leader Idealized Influence Moderates Close Leader Intellectual Stimulation and Job Commitment

Hypothesis 7B predicted that idealized influence of socially distant leaders moderates the impact of socially close leaders' intellectual stimulation on followers' job commitment. In order to test this moderated relationship, the independent variables were centered about their respective means, and an interaction term (distant leader idealized influence X close leader intellectual stimulation) was computed. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was then utilized to test the model with the main effects entered in step 1 and the interaction term entered at step 2. Overall, step 1 indicated the model was significant and explained 17% of respondents' job commitment, $F(2, 222) = 17.94$, $p < .001$. While the data indicated intellectual stimulation from a close leader, $\beta = .28$, tended to have a stronger influence than did the idealized influence of distant leaders, $\beta = .24$, on followers' job commitment, a t-test comparing their predictive utility indicated it was not statically greater, $t(233) = .54$, $p =$ n.s. Step 2 indicated no significant interaction of distant leader's idealized influence X close leader's intellectual stimulation, $\Delta R^2 = .00$, $\Delta F(1, 230) = .01$, $p =$ n.s. (see Table 34).

Table 35: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Job Commitment from Intellectual Stimulation, Idealized Influence and an Interaction Term

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
Model 1						
(Constant)	3.04	0.04		69.03	.001	[2.95, 3.12]
CL Intellectual Stimulation	0.18	0.04	.28	4.47	.001	[0.10, 0.26]
DL Idealized Influence	0.16	0.04	.24	3.79	.001	[0.08, 0.24]
Model 2						
(Constant)	3.04	0.05		66.37	.00	[2.95, 3.13]
CL Intellectual Stimulation	0.18	0.04	.28	4.41	.00	[0.10, 0.26]
DL Idealized Influence	0.16	0.04	.24	3.79	.00	[0.07, 0.24]
CL Intellectual Stimulation X DL Idealized Influence	0.00	0.03	-.01	-0.12	.91	[-0.07, 0.06]

Note. $R = .41$, $R^2 = .17$ (p < .001) for Model 1; $R = .41$, $R^2 = .17$, $\Delta R^2 = .00$ (p = .91) for Model 2
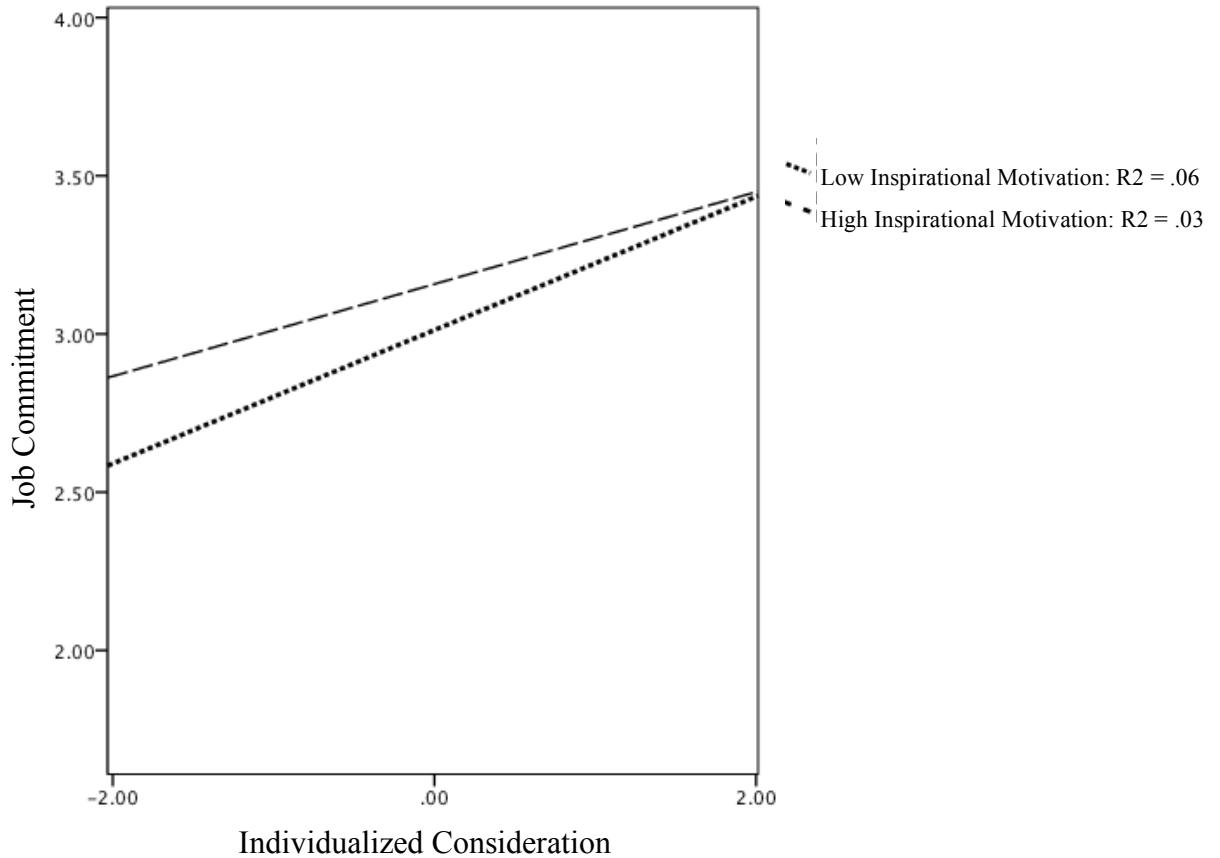CL = Close Leader; DL = Distant Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

In order to further investigate this hypothesis, distant leader idealized influence was split into low and high levels, and the correlation between close leader intellectual stimulation and follower job commitment was examined at each level. This analysis indicated that at high levels of distant leader idealized influence the relationship between close leaders' intellectual stimulation and job commitment was stronger, $r = .35$, $n = 118$, $p < .01$, than at low, $r = .21$, $n = 119$, $p < .05$, levels of idealized influence. The data tended to indicate that perhaps the relationship between close leaders' intellectual stimulation and job commitment is slightly affected by a distant leader's idealized influence, where at high levels of idealized influence the relationship between intellectual stimulation and job commitment is stronger than at low levels. However, a distant leaders' idealized influence does not provide a statistically significant moderating influence (see Table 34). Thus, the data did not support hypotheses 7B.

In sum hypotheses six and seven indicate the individualized behaviors from direct supervisor and the charismatic behaviors performed by executive leaders both directly impact job commitment. Inspirational motivation from an executive leader provided the only moderating effect on the relationship between direct supervisors' individualized consideration and followers' job commitment. When an executive leader does a weak job at articulating a clear and compelling vision, direct supervisors' coaching behaviors have a stronger impact on employees' job commitment than when the executive is effectively communicating the vision.

Hypothesis 8A: Transformational Leadership Behaviors and Perception of Personal Development

Hypothesis 8A predicted individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation of socially close leaders has a stronger, positive relationship with followers' perception of personal development than inspirational motivation and idealized influence. The relationship between the

four predictors and perception of personal development was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and multiple regression analysis. Results indicated a positive relationship between each of the four behaviors and personal development. Consistent with the hypothesis, individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation had a stronger, positive relationship with vision support than inspirational motivation and idealized influence (see Table 35).

Table 36: Summary of Intercorrelations Among Personal Development and Transformational Leadership Behaviors

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Personal Development	3.40	1.09	-				
2. CL Individualized Consideration	3.39	1.15	.72**	-			
3. CL Intellectual Stimulation	3.50	1.12	.70**	.89**	-		
4. CL Inspirational Motivation	3.60	1.01	.61**	.74**	.79**	-	
5. CL Idealized Influence	3.68	1.01	.58**	.75**	.78**	.84**	-

Note. CL = Close Leader; DL = Distant Leader
** $p < .01$.

Simultaneous multiple regression analysis indicated that the overall model predicted 54% of personal development, $F(4, 226) = 66.29$, $p < .001$. Consistent with the hypothesis, only individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation were significant predictors (see Table 36). Further, a t-test of their comparative, predictive utility indicated intellectual stimulation, $\beta = .61$, had a greater influence than individualized consideration, $\beta = .24$, on followers' perception of personal development, $t(274) = 7.45$, $p < .05$. The data supports hypothesis 8A.

Table 37: Multiple Regression Analysis Individual Predictors of Personal Development

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
(Constant)	3.45	0.05		68.83	.001	[3.35, 3.55]
CL Individualized Consideration	0.21	0.05	.23	4.70	.001	[0.12, 0.30]
CL Intellectual Stimulation	0.48	0.08	.49	5.99	.001	[0.32, 0.63]
CL Inspirational Motivation	0.13	0.10	.12	1.33	.18	[-0.06, 0.32]
CL Idealized Influence	0.03	0.10	.03	0.33	.74	[-0.16, 0.22]

Note. $R = .74$, $R^2 = .54$ ($p < .001$)
CL = Close Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

Hypothesis 8B: Close Versus Distant Leader Individual Consideration and Perception of Personal Development

Hypothesis 8B predicted individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation of socially distant leaders is unrelated to followers' perception of personal development. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and multiple regression analysis were used to investigate the relationship between these two individualized leadership behaviors performed by distant leaders. Results indicated a distant leader's individualized consideration, $r = .47$, $n = 234$, $p < .01$, and a distant leader's intellectual stimulation, $r = .50$, $n = 228$, $p < .01$, had a moderate relationship with followers' perceived personal development (see Table 37). However, as reported above (H8A), the relationship was smaller than when the behaviors were performed by close leaders.

Table 38: Summary of Intercorrelations Among Personal Development, Individualized Consideration and Intellectual Stimulation at the Distant Leader Level

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*1*	*2*	*3*
1. Personal Development	3.40	1.09	-		
2. DL Individualized consideration	3.17	1.18	.47**	-	
3. DL Intellectual Stimulation	3.43	1.14	.50**	.88**	-

Note. N = 278
DL = Distant Leader
** *p* < .01.

Simultaneous multiple regression analysis was conducted to investigate whether individual consideration and intellectual stimulation of distant leaders failed to explain variance in respondents' perception of personal development. Contrary to the hypothesized relationship, results indicated the model predicted 25% of employees' personal development, $R^2 = .25$, $F(2, 221) = 37.00$. A distant leader's intellectual stimulation impacted follower development, $\beta = .36$, $t(228) = 2.89$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.11, .59]. However, a distant leader's individualized consideration did not, $\beta = .15$, $t(234) = 1.18$, $p = .24$, 95% CI [-.09, .37]. Thus, the data partially

supports hypothesis 8B.

Given individualized consideration influences followers' personal development at the close leader level and intellectual stimulation influences at both the close and distant leader level, hierarchical regression analysis was used to consider a close leader's individual consideration and a close and distant leader's intellectual stimulation to determine their respective influence on follower development. Results indicated intellectual consideration at the close leader level was the strongest predictor, $F(1, 221) = 242.54$, $p < .001$. Individualized consideration at the close leader level explained an additional 5% of variance, $\Delta F(1, 220) = .01$, p = n.s., and intellectual stimulation at the distant leader level explained an additional 1% of variance, $\Delta F(1, 219) = .01$, p = n.s. Together they explained 56% of the variance in perception of personal development (See table 38). A t-test of the comparative, predictive utility of close leaders' intellectual intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration revealed intellectual stimulation, $\beta = .61$, has a greater influence than individualized consideration, $\beta = .23$ (see Hypothesis 8A). A second t-test indicated intellectual stimulation from a close leader, $\beta = .59$, had a greater influence then the same behavior from a distant leader, $\beta = .26$, on follower development, $t(226) = 6.30$, $p < .05$. In sum, the intellectual stimulation of a direct supervisor has the strongest impact on followers' personal development, followed by a direct supervisor's individualized consideration, and finally by an executive leader's intellectual stimulation.

Table 39: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Perceived Personal Development from Individualized consideration and Intellectual Stimulation at the Close and Distant Leader Level

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
Model 1						
(Constant)	3.39	0.05		66.05	.001	3.29, 3.49
CL Intellectual Stimulation	0.69	0.05	.71	15.01	.001	0.60, 0.78
Model 2						
(Constant)	3.44	0.05		68.52	.001	3.34, 3.54
CL Intellectual Stimulation	0.60	0.05	.62	12.55	.001	0.50, 0.69
CL Individualized Consideration	0.21	0.05	.23	4.69	.001	0.12, 0.31
Model 3						
(Constant)	3.39	0.05		65.01	.001	3.29, 3.50
CL Intellectual Stimulation	0.57	0.05	.59	11.87	.001	0.48, 0.66
CL Individualized Consideration	0.01	0.09	.01	0.12	.91	-0.16, 0.18
DL Intellectual Stimulation	0.25	0.10	.26	2.66	.01	0.07, 0.44

Note. $R = .71$, $R^2 = .51$ (p < .001) for Model 1; $R = .74$, $R^2 = .55$, $\Delta R^2 = .05$ (p < .001) for Model 2; $R = .75$, $R^2 = .56$, $\Delta R^2 = .01$ for Model 3
CL = Close Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

The Communication Behaviors of Transformational Leadership

The second guiding question, addressed in hypotheses nine through fourteen, examined whether the transformational leadership communication behaviors that were developed to extend transformational leadership theory had the same relationship with the sub process outcomes and influence processes as the four transformational leadership behaviors. As outlined previously, these communication behaviors are the communication counterpart to the standard four transformational leadership behaviors. However, there are three additional behaviors to further refine the manner in which transformational leadership is measured. These behaviors were created to allow the scale to more precisely mirror the original, theoretical explanation of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985). Again, this research is testing the presumption that the most recent scales developed to measure transformational leadership are diluted to allow all four behaviors to be measured at both the close and distant leader level. However, as supported

above, some of the behaviors are clearly more impactful at the close leader level and others at the distant leader level.

By returning to the original conception of transformational leadership where the charismatic behaviors of idealized influence and inspirational motivation and the individualized behaviors of individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation are arguably dichotomous, this new measure is hypothesized to better predict the outcomes associated with transformational leadership and vision integration. Specifically, the transformational leadership communication scale divides individualized consideration into the two behaviors of developer and encourager. Developer measures developmental support and encourager represents emotional support. Intellectual stimulation is divided into the behaviors of inquisitor and integrator. Inquisitor measures the extent to which a leader communicates to followers the logic behind his or her vision and integrator measures the manner in which a leader helps the follower integrate the vision into his or her individual role and responsibilities. Inspirational motivation is separated into visionary and unifier. Visionary measures a leader's articulation of the vison and unifier measures the extent to which a leader rallies support to sacrifice individual gain for the success of the group. Idealized influence was not divided; the exemplar communication behavior mirrors it. Exemplar is the extent to which the leader serves as a role model who demonstrates his or her personal commitment to the vision.

Hypothesis 9A: Communication Behaviors and Vision Support

In line with hypothesis 1, hypothesis 9A predicted the behaviors of inquisitor, unifier, visionary, and exemplar of socially distant leaders will have a stronger, positive relationship with employees' vision support than the communicative behaviors of developer, encourager and integrator. This relationship was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation

coefficient and multiple regression. Results indicated a moderate correlation between each of the

charismatic behaviors and vision support and a small relationship between each of the

individualized communication behaviors and vision support (see Table 39).

Table 40: Summary of Intercorrelations Among Vision and Leadership Communication
Behaviors

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Vision Support	4.17	0.81	-							
2. DL Inquisitor	3.42	1.13	.48**	-						
3. DL Unifier	3.46	1.09	.42**	.91**	-					
4. DL Visionary	3.44	1.18	.44**	.90**	.90**	-				
5. DL Exemplar	3.42	1.17	.49**	.85**	.85**	.90**	-			
6. DL Developer	2.74	1.32	.38**	.70**	.65**	.69**	.70**	-		
7. DL Encourager	2.74	1.35	.37**	.73**	.69**	.72**	.72**	.89**	-	
8. DL Integrator	2.69	1.26	.39**	.74**	.70**	.73**	.72**	.89**	.84**	-

Note. N = 278
DL = Distant Leader
** *p* < .01

Simultaneous multiple regression analysis indicated the model predicted 27% of

respondents' vision support, $F(7, 216) = 11.28$, $p < .001$. Exemplar and inquisitor were uniquely

predictive (see Table 40). A t-test of the difference in the predictive utility of exemplar, $\beta = .30$,

and inquisitor, $\beta = .23$. revealed that there was no statistical difference, $t(229) = 1.18$, $p = $ n.s.

Based on these findings, the hypothesis is partially accepted. While the two behaviors that are

significant are both charismatic, not all of the charismatic behaviors were predictive.

Table 41: Multiple Regression Analysis Communication Predictors of Vision Support

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
(Constant)	4.17	0.05		88.87	.00	[4.08, 4.26]
DL Inquisitor	0.30	0.12	.42	2.61	.01	[0.07, 0.53]
DL Unifier	-0.09	0.12	-.13	0.81	.42	[-0.32, 0.14]
DL Visionary	-0.16	0.12	-.23	-1.29	.20	[-0.39, 0.08]
DL Exemplar	0.30	0.10	.44	3.06	.00	[0.11, 0.50]
DL Developer	0.06	0.10	.09	0.60	.94	[-0.13, 0.25]
DL Encourager	0.06	0.08	-.09	0.66	.55	[-0.22, 0.11]
DL Integrator	0.01	0.09	.01	0.08	.51	[-0.17, 0.18]

Note. $R = .52$, $R^2 = .27$ ($p < .001$)
DL = Distant Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

While the estimates of multicollinearity were well within acceptable ranges, the predictor variables were highly correlated which could potentially produce unstable estimates for the strength of the predictors. In order to address potential issues with multicollinearity, two additional, simultaneous, multiple regression analyses were conducted where predictors were deleted from the analyses (one predictor from each model) in an effort to eliminate potential redundancy.

In the first simultaneous multiple regression analysis, six of the seven leadership communication behaviors at the distant level were entered into the model. The behavior of unifier was the only behavior omitted. Theoretically, unifier and visionary are similar given they are both subsets of the leadership behavior inspirational motivation. Thus, they may be redundant in the original model causing potentially high levels of multicollinearity. However, with unifier omitted, the regression coefficients of the other six predictors remained consistent with regard to their level of prediction. The overall model explained 27% of vision support, $R^2 =$ 27, $F(6, 219) = 13.19$, $p < .001$. Consistent with the original model, exemplar, $\beta = .43$, $t(231) =$ 3.02, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.10, .48], and inquisitor, $\beta = .36$, $t(233) = 2.54$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.06, .45], remained the only significant predictors. Visionary continued to have a negative, insignificant regression coefficient, $\beta = -.28$, $t(231) = -1.68$, $p =$ n.s., 95% CI [-.41, .03] as did encourager $\beta =$ -.10, $t(228) = -.71$, $p =$ n.s., 95% CI [-.22, .10].

In a second simultaneous multiple regression analysis, six of the seven leadership communication behaviors at the distant level were entered into the model. Developer was the only omitted behavior given it is theoretically similar to encourager as they are both subsets of individualized consideration and may be redundant. With developer omitted, the regression coefficients of the other six predictors remained consistent with regard to their level of

prediction. The overall model explained 27% of vision support, $R^2 = 27$, $F(6, 219) = 13.26$, $p <$ .001. Consistent with the original model, exemplar, $\beta = .45$, $t(231) = 3.16$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.12, .50], and inquisitor, $\beta = .42$, $t(233) = 2.62$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.07, .56], remained the only significant predictors. Encourager continued to have a negative, insignificant regression coefficient, $\beta = -.05$, $t(231) = -.40$, $p = $ n.s., 95% CI [-.16, .11], as did unifier, $\beta = -.14$, $t(228) = -$ .87, $p = $ n.s., 95% CI [-.33, .13], and visionary, $\beta = -.23$, $t(228) = -1.31$, $p = $ n.s., 95% CI [-.39, .08]. While there is a potential for multicollinearity and results should be interpreted tentatively, these additional analyses provide added confidence given the same variables (e.g. exemplar and inquisitor) remain the stable predictors in each of these subsequent analyses.

Hypothesis 9B: Close Versus Distant Leader Charismatic Communication and Vision Support

Hypothesis 9B predicted social distance of the leader moderates the relationship between inquisitor, unifier, visionary, and exemplar and vision support whereas inquisitor, unifier, visionary, and exemplar of a socially distant leader will have a stronger, positive relationship with vision support than a socially close leader. Results indicated each of these predictors had stronger relationships with vision support at the distant leader level (see Table 41).

Table 42: Summary of Intercorrelations Among Vision Support and Charismatic Leadership Communication Behaviors and Distant and Close Levels

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Support	4.17	0.81	-								
2. D Inquisitor	3.42	1.13	.48**	-							
3. D Unifier	3.46	1.09	.42**	.91**	-						
4. D Vision	3.44	1.18	.44**	.90**	.90**	-					
5. D Exemplar	3.42	1.17	.49**	.85**	.85**	.90**	-				
6. C Inquisitor	3.40	1.04	.32**	.41**	.42**	.39**	.42**	-			
7. C Unifier	3.30	1.02	.35**	.42**	.44**	.40**	.43**	.88**	-		
8. C Visionary	3.31	1.16	.39**	.44**	.45**	.46**	.47**	.85**	.89**	-	
9. C Exemplar	3.43	1.05	.34**	.39**	.38**	.38**	.40**	.80**	.83**	.86**	-

Note. D = Distant Leader; C = Close Leader
** $p < .01$

Simultaneous multiple regression was conducted to investigate whether the charismatic communication behaviors at the distant leader level had a greater influence on respondents' vision support than the same behaviors at the close leader level. Results indicated the model on whole predicted 30% of vision support, and the behaviors of exemplar and inquisitor from a distant leader were the only unique predictors, $F(8, 215) = 11.65$, $p < .001$(see Table 42). While exemplar from a distant leader, $\beta = .30$, tended to have a greater influence on vision support than inquisitor from a distant leader, $\beta = .23$, a test of their comparative, predictive utility indicated that it was not statistically greater, $t(232) = 1.17$, $p =$ n.s. Consistent with the hypothesis, both inquisitor and exemplar from a distant leader have the greatest influence on vision support; however, not all charismatic communication behaviors (e.g. unifier and visionary) have greater influence on vision support at the distant leader level. Thus, the data partially supported hypothesis 9B.

In sum, an executive who shares with the organization the reasoning behind why he or she believes there is a need for a vision (e.g. inquisitor) and exemplifies how followers should sacrifice for the vision (e.g. exemplar) has the strongest impact on followers' support of the vision.

Table 43: Multiple Regression Analysis Communication Predictors of Vision Support

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
(Constant)	4.17	0.05		90.84	.001	[4.08, 4.26]
DL Exemplar	0.28	0.10	.40	2.93	.001	[0.09, 0.47]
DL Unifier	-0.12	0.12	-.16	-1.05	.30	[-0.35, 0.11]
DL Visionary	-0.18	0.12	-.26	-1.47	.14	[-0.42, 0.06]
DL Inquisitor	0.31	0.11	.43	2.79	.01	[0.09, 0.52]
CL Exemplar	0.02	0.09	.03	0.25	.80	[-0.15, 0.20]
CL Unifier	0.03	0.12	.03	0.21	.83	[-0.21, 0.26]
CL Visionary	0.19	0.10	.27	1.79	.08	[-0.02, 0.39]
CL Inquisitor	-0.11	0.10	-.14	-1.05	.30	[-0.30, 0.09]

Note. $R = .56$, $R^2 = .30$ (p < .001)
DL = Distant Leader; CL = Close Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

While the estimates of multicollinearity were well within acceptable ranges, the predictor variables were highly correlated which could potentially produce unstable estimates for the strength of the predictors. In order to address potential issues with multicollinearity, an additional, simultaneous, multiple regression analysis was conducted where two predictors were deleted from the analysis (one predictor from each model) in an effort to eliminate potential redundancy.

In a simultaneous multiple regression analysis, the charismatic communication behaviors at the distant and close leader level were entered into the model. The behaviors of visionary and unifier at the distant leader level were omitted. These two behaviors were highly correlated and not significant. Thus they were removed in order to test the significance and predicative influence of the other two distant leader behaviors. The overall model explained 29% of vision support, $R^2 = .29$, $F(6, 222) = 14.83$, $p < .001$. Consistent with the original model, a distant leader's exemplar remained significant, $\beta = .23$, $t(231) = 2.11$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.01, .31]. However, a distant leader's inquisitor was no longer significant, $\beta = .20$, $t(234) = 1.79$, $p = $ n.s., 95% CI [.01, .30]. In sum, by removing the highly correlated predictors, results indicated exemplar remained a stable, significant predictor.

Hypothesis 10A: Communication Behaviors and Collective Efficacy

Hypothesis 10A predicted the unifier behavior of socially distant leaders will have a stronger, positive relationship with employees' collective efficacy than the communicative behaviors of inquisitor, visionary, exemplar, developer, encourager or integrator. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and multiple regression analysis were utilized to test the hypothesis. Results indicated a moderate, positive relationship between each of the communication behaviors and collective efficacy (see Table 43).

Table 44: Summary of Intercorrelations Among Collective Efficacy and Leadership Communication Behaviors

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Collective Efficacy	3.80	0.82	-							
2. DL Inquisitor	3.42	1.13	.56**	-						
3. DL Unifier	3.46	1.09	.50**	.91**	-					
4. DL Visionary	3.44	1.18	.59**	.90**	.90**	-				
5. DL Exemplar	3.42	1.17	.60**	.85**	.85**	.90**	-			
6. DL Developer	2.69	1.26	.49**	.74**	.70**	.73**	.72**	-		
7. DL Encourager	2.74	1.32	.48**	.70**	.65**	.69**	.70**	.89**	-	
8. DL Integrator	2.74	1.35	.45**	.73**	.69**	.72**	.72**	.84**	.89**	-

Note. N = 279

DL = Distant Leader

** *p* < .01

Simultaneous multiple regression analysis indicated that the overall model predicted 41% of respondents' collective efficacy, $F(7, 218) = 21.37$, $p < .001$. The behaviors of unifier, visionary, and exemplar contributed unique variance (see Table 44). Multiple t-tests of their comparative predictive utility indicated a significant difference between the influence of unifier, $\beta = -.16$, and visionary, $\beta = .74$, $t(230) = 16.70$, $p < .05$; between visionary, $\beta = .25$, and exemplar, $\beta = .38$, $t(229) = 2.41$, $p < .05$; and between exemplar, $\beta = .64$, and unifier, $\beta = -.04$, on collective efficacy, $t(229) = 10.72$, $p < .05$. Results indicate a distant leader's exemplar behavior has the strongest influence on followers' collective efficacy followed by the leader's visionary and unifier behaviors. Based on these findings, hypothesis 10A is not supported. While unifier is a predictor of collective efficacy, it is neither the sole predictor nor the strongest predictor.

Previous analyses (H2A) demonstrated that the charismatic transformational leadership behavior of idealized influence had the strongest influence on followers' collective efficacy. Thus, the results of hypothesis 10A parallel hypothesis 2A given the communication leadership behavior mirroring idealized influence (exemplar) was the strongest predictor.

Table 45: Multiple Regression Analysis Communication Predictors of Collective Efficacy

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
(Constant)	3.80	0.04		88.86	.001	[3.71, 3.88]
DL Inquisitor	0.17	0.11	.23	1.57	.12	[-0.04, 0.37]
DL Unifier	0.24	0.11	.35	2.22	.03	[0.03, 0.46]
DL Visionary	-0.26	0.11	-.34	-2.43	.02	[-0.47, -0.05]
DL Exemplar	0.26	0.09	.37	2.91	.001	[0.09, 0.44]
DL Developer	0.14	0.09	.22	1.58	.12	[-0.04, 0.31]
DL Encourager	-0.13	0.08	-.22	-1.76	.08	[-0.28, 0.02]
DL Integrator	0.01	0.08	.02	0.17	.87	[-0.14, 0.17]

Note. $R = .64$, $R^2 = .41$ (p < .001)
DL = Distant Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

While the estimates of multicollinearity were well within acceptable ranges, the predictor variables were highly correlated which could potentially produce unstable estimates for the strength of the predictors. In order to address potential issues with multicollinearity, two additional, simultaneous, multiple regression analyses were conducted where predictors were deleted from the analyses in an effort to eliminate potential redundancy.

In the first simultaneous multiple regression analysis five of the seven communication behaviors at the distant leader level were entered into the model. The behaviors of visionary and encourager were omitted. These two behaviors were highly correlated with negative regression coefficients. Thus they were removed in order to test the significance and predicative influence of the other behaviors. The overall model explained 39% of vision support, $R^2 = .39$, $F(5, 220) = 27.62$, $p < .001$. Consistent with the original model, a distant leader's exemplar remained significant, $β = .50$, $t(231) = 4.50$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.20, .51]. However, a distant leader's unifier was no longer significant, $β = -.25$, $t(234) = -1.86$, $p = $ n.s., 95% CI [-.38, .01]. Inquisitor became significant, $β = .29$, $t(231) = 2.06$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.01, .41].

In the second simultaneous multiple regression analysis four of the seven communication behaviors at the distant leader level were entered into the model. The behavior of unifier was additionally removed. In the previous analysis, this behavior became highly correlated with a

negative regression coefficient, and thus it was removed in order to test the significance and predicative influence of the other behaviors. The overall model explained 38% of vision support, $R^2 = .38$, $F(4, 221) = 33.29$, $p < .001$. Consistent with both previous models, a distant leader's exemplar remained significant, $\beta = .44$, $t(231) = 4.09$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.16, .45]. However, a distant leader's inquisitor was no longer significant, $\beta = -.12$, $t(234) = -1.13$, $p = $ n.s., 95% CI [-.07, .24]. In sum, by removing the highly correlating predictors, results indicated exemplar remained the only stable, significant predictor.

Hypothesis 10B: Close Versus Distant Leader Unifier Communication and Collective Efficacy

Hypothesis 10B predicted the social distance of the leader moderates the relationship between unifier and collective self-efficacy whereas the unifier behaviors of a socially distant leader will have a stronger, positive relationship with collective self-efficacy than a socially close leader. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and multiple regression analysis were utilized to test this hypothesis. As predicted, results indicated the behavior of unifier had a stronger, positive relationship with collective efficacy at the distant leader, $r = .50$, $n = 232$, $p < .01$, level than the close leader level, $r = .37$, $n = 278$, $p < .01$ (see Table 45).

Table 46: Summary of Intercorrelations Among Collective Efficacy and Charismatic Leadership Communication Behaviors and Distant and Close Levels

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Col. Efficacy	3.80	0.82	-								
2. D Inquisitor	3.42	1.13	.56**	-							
3. D Unifier	3.46	1.09	.50**	.91**	-						
4. D Visionary	3.44	1.18	.59**	.90**	.90**	-					
5. D Exemplar	3.42	1.17	.60**	.85**	.85**	.90**	-				
6. C Inquisitor	3.40	1.04	.35**	.41**	.42**	.39**	.42**	-			
7. C Unifier	3.30	1.02	.37**	.42**	.44**	.40**	.43**	.88**	-		
8. C Visionary	3.31	1.16	.43**	.44**	.45**	.46**	.47**	.85**	.89**	-	
9. C Exemplar	3.43	1.05	.37**	.39**	.38**	.38**	.40**	.80**	.83**	.86**	-

Note. N = 279
Col. Efficacy = Collective Efficacy; D = Distant Leader; C = Close Leader
** $p < .01$

Simultaneous multiple regression analysis indicated the behavior was predictive at both the distant and close leader level and together explained 28% of employees' collective efficacy, $F(2, 233) = 45.17$, $p < .05$. A t-test of their comparative, predictive utility indicated unifier from a distant leader, $\beta = .42$, $t(236) = 6.77$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.22, .41], had a greater impact than the behavior from close leader, $\beta = .19$, $t(277) = 3.03$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.05, .25], on employees' collective efficacy $t(233) = 3.51$, $p < .05$. The data supported hypothesis 10B.

Further, simultaneous multiple regression investigated whether the other two significant predictors of collective efficacy (e.g. visionary and exemplar) (see H10A) likewise had a stronger influence at the distant leader level than at the close leader level. Results indicated the behaviors of visionary and exemplar were predictive at the distant leader level and not at the close leader level. Moreover, the unifier behavior was no longer significant at the close leader level when considered with the other predictive behaviors (see Table 46).

Table 47: Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Collective Efficacy from Significant Transformational Leadership Communication Behaviors by Close and Distant Leaders

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
(Constant)	3.80	0.04		90.47	.001	[3.72, 3.88]
DL Unifier	-0.21	0.09	-.28	-2.27	.02	[-0.39, -0.03]
DL Visionary	0.29	0.11	.42	2.77	.01	[0.08, 0.50]
DL Exemplar	0.26	0.09	.38	3.07	.001	[0.10, 0.43]
CL Unifier	0.01	0.10	.01	0.05	.96	[-0.19, 0.19]
CL Visionary	0.13	0.09	.18	1.36	.18	[-0.06, 0.31]
CL Exemplar	0.00	0.08	.01	0.06	.96	[-0.16, 0.17]

Note. $R = .64$, $R^2 = .41$ ($p < .001$)
DL = Distant Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis investigated each of the significant predictors to determine their respective influence. Results indicated the behavior of exemplar performed by an executive leader was the strongest predictor of collective efficacy explaining 37% of the variance, $R^2 = .37$, $F(1, 228) = 131.16$, $p < .05$, $\beta = .61$, $t(231) = 11.45$, $p < .001$. The behavior of

visionary at the executive leader level explained an additional 1% of variance, $\Delta R^2 = .01$, $\Delta F(1, 227) = 4.23$, $p = .001$, $\beta = .25$, $t(236) = 2.06$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.01, .34], and the unifier behavior of executives explained another 1% of variance, $\Delta R^2 = .01$, $\Delta F(1, 227) = -.25$, $p = .04$, $\beta = .25$, $t(233) = -2.02$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [-.37, -.01]. The executive leader who exemplifies his or her personal commitment to the vision, shows employees how to sacrifice for the vision, and demonstrates how he or she personally works toward achieving the vision (e.g. exemplar) has the greatest impact on followers' belief that the organization can achieve intended results if everyone works together (e.g. collective efficacy). Further, the executive who articulates a compelling vision of the future (e.g. visionary) and convinces employees to work together toward a common purpose (e.g. unifier) further influences employees' belief that great success is possible.

Hypothesis 11A: Communication Behaviors and Organizational Commitment

Hypothesis 11A predicted the exemplar behavior of socially distant leaders will have a stronger, positive relationship with employees' organizational commitment than the communicative behaviors of inquisitor, visionary, unifier, developer, encourager or integrator. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and multiple regression analysis were used to analyze the data for this hypothesis. Consistent with the hypothesis, results indicated a moderate correlation between each of the communication behaviors and organizational commitment. The behavior of exemplar, $r = .61$, $n = 231$, $p < .01$, had a slightly stronger, positive relationship (see Table 47).

Table 48: Summary of Intercorrelations Among Organizational Commitment and Leadership Communication Behaviors

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*
1. Org Commitment	3.88	0.88	-							
2. DL Inquisitor	3.42	1.13	.54**	-						
3. DL Unifier	3.46	1.09	.51**	.91**	-					
4. DL Visionary	3.44	1.18	.58**	.90**	.90**	-				
5. DL Exemplar	3.42	1.17	.61**	.85**	.85**	.90**	-			
6. DL Developer	2.74	1.32	.54**	.74**	.70**	.73**	.72**	-		
7. DL Encourager	2.74	1.35	.50**	.70**	.65**	.69**	.70**	.89**	-	
8. DL Integrator	2.69	1.26	.51**	.73**	.69**	.72**	.72**	.84**	.89**	-

Note. N = 278
DL = Distant Leader
** *p* < .01

As predicted, simultaneous multiple regression analysis indicated that while all of the variables together predicted 40% of respondents' organizational commitment, $F(7, 218) = 20.63$, $p < .001$, only the behavior of exemplar contributed unique variance (see Table 48). Based on these findings, the hypothesis 11A is supported.

Table 49: Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Organizational Commitment from Transformational Leadership Communication Behaviors

Variable	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*t*	*p*	95% CI
(Constant)	2.37	0.16		15.06	.001	2.06, 2.68
DL Inquisitor	0.01	0.11	.01	0.09	.93	-0.21, 0.23
DL Unifier	-0.15	.11	-.18	-1.27	.20	-0.37, 0.08
DL Visionary	0.13	.12	.18	1.11	.27	-0.10, 0.36
DL Exemplar	0.33	.10	.45	3.46	.001	0.14, 0.53
DL Developer	0.16	.09	.22	1.81	.07	-0.01, 0.33
DL Encourager	-0.06	.09	-.09	-0.63	.53	-0.25, 0.13
DL Integrator	0.04	.08	.07	0.55	.59	-0.12, 0.21

Note. R = .63, R^2 = .40 (p < .001)
DL = Distant Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

While the estimates of multicollinearity were well within acceptable ranges, the predictor variables were highly correlated which could potentially produce unstable estimates for the strength of the predictors. In order to address potential issues with multicollinearity, an additional, simultaneous, multiple regression analysis was conducted where two predictors were deleted from the analyses in an effort to eliminate potential redundancy. The communication

behaviors at the distant were entered into the model. The behaviors of unifier and encourager were omitted. These two behaviors were not significant, highly correlated, and had negative beta weights. Moreover, unifier is theoretically close to visionary as both are subsets of inspirational motivation. Encourager is theoretically similar to developer given they are both subsets of individualized consideration. Thus, potential redundancy may be causing multicollinearity. They were removed in order to test the significance and predicative influence of the other distant leader behaviors. The overall model explained 39% of organizational commitment, $R^2 = .39$, $F(5, 220) = 28.53$, $p < .001$. Consistent with the original model, a distant leader's exemplar remained the only significant predictor, $\beta = .43$, $t(231) = 3.38$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.14, .51].

Hypothesis 11B: Close Versus Distant Leader Exemplar Communication and Organizational Commitment

Hypothesis 11B predicted social distance of the leader moderates the relationship between exemplar and organizational commitment whereas the exemplar behaviors of a socially distant leader will have a stronger, positive relationship with organizational commitment than a socially close leader. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and multiple regression analysis were utilized to analyze this hypothesis. Consistent with the hypothesis, results indicated that the behavior of exemplar had a stronger relationship with organizational commitment at the distant leader, $r = .61$, $n = 231$, $p < .01$, level than the close leader level, $r = .45$, $n = 277$, $p < .05$.

Simultaneous multiple regression was conducted to investigate whether the the behavior of exemplar at the distant leader level explained more variance in respondents' organizational commitment than the same behavior at the close leader level. Results indicated the behavior was predictive at both levels, $R^2 = .37$, $F(2, 228) = 84.04$, $p < .05$ and together explained 42% of the variance in organizational commitment. A t-test of the comparative, predicative utility of

exemplar from distant leaders, $\beta = .51$, $t(231) = 9.31$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.30, .47], and exemplar from close leaders, $\beta = .25$, $t(277) = 4.51$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.12, .30] indicated the behavior at the distant leader level had a greater influence, $t(229) = 4.33$, $p < .05$. Thus, the data supports Hypothesis 11B. The extent to which the executive leader exemplifies that he or she personally works toward achieving the vision impacts followers' commitment to the organization and its success to a greater extent than a close leaders' example-setting behaviors.

Further, hierarchical regression indicated the behavior at the distant leader level explained 37% of the variance in organizational commitment, $F(1, 229) = 136.26$, $p < .05$, and the behavior at the close leader level explained an additional 5% of variance, $\Delta F(1, 228) = 20.32$, $p < .05$ (see Table 49). While exemplar has the strongest impact when performed by an executive leader, the behavior performed by a direct supervisor adds to followers' organizational commitment.

Table 50: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Organizational Commitment from the Exemplar Transformational Leadership Behavior by Close and Distant Leaders

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
Model 1						
(Constant)	3.88	0.05		84.65	.001	[3.78, 3.97]
DL Exemplar	0.46	0.04	.61	11.67	.001	[0.38, 0.54]
Model 2						
(Constant)	1.85	0.17		10.95	.001	[3.79, 3.96]
DL Exemplar	0.38	0.04	.51	9.31	.001	[0.30, 0.47]
CL Exemplar	0.21	0.05	.25	4.51	.001	[0.12, 0.30]

Note. $R = .61$, $R^2 = .37$ ($p < .001$) from Model 1; $R = .65$, $R^2 = .42$, $\Delta R^2 = .05$ ($p < .001$) from Model 2
DL = Distant Leader; CL = Close Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

Hypothesis 12A: Communication Behaviors and Perception of Personal Development

Hypothesis 12A predicted the developer behavior of socially close leaders will have a stronger, positive relationship with employees' perceived development opportunities than the communicative behaviors of inquisitor, visionary, exemplar, unifier, encourager, or integrator. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and multiple regression analysis were utilized to

test the hypothesis. Results indicated a moderate correlation between each of the communication behaviors and perception of personal development. Consistent with the hypothesis, the behavior of developer, $r = .72$, $n = 278$, $p < .01$, had the strongest, positive relationship. (see Table 50).

Table 51: Summary of Intercorrelations Among Perception of Personal Development and Leadership Communication Behaviors

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Development	3.40	1.09	-							
2. DL Inquisitor	3.40	1.04	.67**	-						
3. DL Unifier	3.30	1.02	.66**	.88**	-					
4. DL Visionary	3.31	1.16	.66**	.85**	.89**	-				
5. DL Exemplar	3.43	1.05	.59**	.80**	.83**	.86**	-			
6. DL Integrator	3.16	1.11	.67**	.81**	.81**	.84**	.77**	-		
7. DL Developer	3.35	1.11	.72**	.83**	.83**	.86**	.78**	.87**	-	
8. DL Encourager	2.74	1.35	.64**	.78**	.77**	.81**	.73**	.80**	.87**	-

Note. N = 278
DL = Distant Leader
** *p* < .01

Simultaneous multiple regression analysis indicated that while all of the variables together predicted 54% of respondents' perception of personal development, $F(7, 270) = 45.65$, $p < .001$, only the behaviors of developer and inquisitor contributed unique variance (see Table 51). A t-test of their comparative predicative utility indicated the behavior of developer ($\beta = .53$) had a greater impact than inquisitor ($\beta = .23$) on followers' perception of personal development, $t(275) = 7.05$, $p < .05$. Thus, the data supports hypothesis 12A.

Table 52: Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Personal Development from Transformational Leadership Communication Behaviors

Variables	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*t*	*p*	95% CI
(Constant)	3.41	0.05		75.94	.001	[3.32, 3.49]
CL Inquisitor	0.20	0.10	.20	2.02	.05	[0.01, 0.40]
CL Unifier	0.05	0.12	.05	0.44	.66	[-0.18, 0.28]
CL Visionary	0.03	0.11	.04	0.30	.76	[-0.18, 0.24]
CL Exemplar	-0.06	0.09	-.06	-0.68	.49	[-0.23, 0.11]
CL Integrator	0.07	0.09	.08	0.83	.41	[-0.10, 0.25]
CL Developer	0.47	0.11	.48	4.34	.001	[0.26, 0.69]
CL Encourager	0.00	0.02	-.01	-0.14	.89	[-0.03, 0.03]

Note. R = .74, R^2 = .54 (p < .001)
CL = Distant Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

While the estimates of multicollinearity were well within acceptable ranges, the predictor variables were highly correlated which could potentially produce unstable estimates for the strength of the predictors. In order to address potential issues with multicollinearity, an additional, simultaneous, multiple regression analysis was conducted where two predictors were deleted from the analyses in an effort to eliminate potential redundancy. The communication behaviors at the close were entered into the model. The behaviors of exemplar and encourager were omitted. These two behaviors were not significant, highly correlated, and had negative beta weights. Further, encourager and developer are theoretically very close given they are subsets of individualized consideration. Thus they were removed in order to test the significance and predicative influence of the other close leader behaviors. The overall model explained 54% of perceived personal development, R^2 = .54, $F(5, 272)$ = 64.17, p < .001. Consistent with the original model, the close leader's developer remained significant, β =.48, $t(277)$ = 4. 48, p < .05, 95% CI [.28, .65].

Hypothesis 12B: Close Versus Distant Leader Developer Communication and Perception of Personal Development

Hypothesis 12B predicted the social distance of the leader moderates the relationship between developer and perceived development whereas the developer behaviors of a socially close leader will have a stronger, positive relationship with perceived development than a socially distant leader. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and multiple regression analysis were utilized to test this hypothesis. Consistent with the hypothesis, results indicated that the behavior of developer had a stronger, positive relationship with perceived personal development at the close leader level, r = .72, n = 278, p < .01 than the distant leader level, r = .50, n = 226, p <.05.

Simultaneous multiple regression was conducted to investigate whether the the behavior of developer at the close leader level explained more variance in respondents' perception of personal development than the same behavior at the distant leader level. Results indicated the behavior was predictive at both levels, $F(2, 223) = 138.03$, $p < .001$, and together explained 55% of employees' perception of personal development. A t-test of the difference in predictive utility indicated developer had a greater influence when performed by close leaders than by distant leaders, $t(225) = 8.27$, $p < .05$. Further, hierarchical regression analysis indicated the behavior at the close leader level explained 52% of the variance in perceived personal development, $F(1, 224) = 245.36$, $p < .001$, and the behavior at the distant leader level explained an additional 3% of variance, $\Delta R^2 = .03$, $\Delta F(1, 223) = 15.17$, $p < .001$ (see Table 52). The data support hypothesis 12B. The direct supervisor who serves as a mentor; knows the strengths and weaknesses of his or her employee; and provides training, resources, and connections positively impacts the development of his or her followers.

Table 53: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Personal Development from the Developer Communication Behavior by Close and Distant Leaders

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
Model 1						
(Constant)	3.41	0.05		67.78	.001	[3.31, 3.50]
CL Developer	0.71	0.05	.72	15.66	.001	[0.62, 0.80]
Model 2						
(Constant)	3.41	0.05		69.89	.001	[3.31, 3.50]
CL Developer	0.61	0.05	.63	12.21	.001	[0.51, 0.71]
DL Developer	0.17	0.04	.20	3.90	.001	[0.08, 0.25]

Note. $R = .72$, $R^2 = .52$ (p < .001) from Model 1; $R = .74$, $R^2 = .55$, $\Delta R^2 = .03$ (p < .001)
CL = Close Leader; DL = Distant Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

Hypothesis 13A: Communication Behaviors and Role Breadth Self-Efficacy

Hypothesis 13A predicted the encourager behavior of socially close leaders will have a stronger, positive relationship with employees' role breadth self-efficacy than the communicative behaviors of inquisitor, visionary, unifier, exemplar, developer, or integrator. Pearson product-

moment correlation coefficient and multiple regression analysis were used to test the hypothesis.

Results indicated a small, positive correlation between each of the communication behaviors and

RBSE. (see Table 53).

Table 54: Summary of Intercorrelations Among Role Breadth Self-efficacy and
Leadership Communication Behaviors

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*
1. Role Breadth Self-efficacy	4.04	0.84	-							
2. CL Inquisitor	3.40	1.04	.36**	-						
3. CL Unifier	3.30	1.02	.37**	.88**	-					
4. CL Visionary	3.31	1.16	.38**	.85**	.89**	-				
5. CL Exemplar	3.43	1.05	.37**	.80**	.83**	.86**	-			
6. CL Integrator	3.16	1.11	.36**	.81**	.81**	.84**	.77**	-		
7. CL Developer	3.35	1.11	.38**	.83**	.83**	.86**	.78**	.87**	-	
8. CL Encourager	3.30	1.23	.37**	.78**	.77**	.81**	.73**	.80**	.87**	-

Note. N = 279
CL = Close Leader
** $p < .01$

Simultaneous multiple regression analysis indicated that while all of the variables

together predicted 17% of respondents' RBSE, $F(7, 270) = 7.60$, $p < .001$, none of the behaviors

contributed unique variance (see Table 54). Thus, the data do not support hypothesis 13A.

Table 55: Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Role Breadth Self-efficacy from
Transformational Leadership Communication Behaviors

Variable	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*t*	*p*	95% CI
(Constant)	4.04	0.05		86.21	.001	3.95, 4.13
CL Inquisitor	0.02	0.11	.02	0.17	.86	-0.19, 0.23
CL Unifier	0.05	0.12	.07	0.45	.66	-0.18, 0.29
CL Visionary	0.01	0.11	.02	0.11	.92	-0.21, 0.23
CL Exemplar	0.10	0.09	.12	1.07	.29	-0.08, 0.28
CL Integrator	0.04	0.09	.05	0.39	.70	-0.15, 0.22
CL Developer	0.02	0.11	.03	0.18	.86	-0.20, 0.24
CL Encourager	0.10	0.08	.14	1.22	.22	-0.06, 0.25

Note. $R = .41$, $R^2 = .17$ (p < .001)
CL = Close Leader; DL = Distant Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

High intercorrelations among independent variables along with moderate tolerance levels

indicated that there may be some issues with multicollinearity in the multiple regression model.

Thus, hierarchical regression analyses were used to consider each of the seven behaviors separately while statistically excluding the overlapping variance from the other three behaviors and indicated unifier was the strongest predictor, $F(1, 276) = 45.52$, $p < .001$, explaining 14% of the variance in respondents' RBSE (see Table 55). These additional analyses provide added clarity where multicollinearity may be present and further support the conclusion that the predicted behavior of encourager is not the strongest predicted of RBSE.

Table 56: Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Intellectual Stimulation Predicting Vision Support

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
(Constant)	4.04	0.05		85.99	.001	[3.89, 4.13]
CL Unifier	0.27	0.04	.38	6.75	.001	[0.19, 0.35]

Note: R = .37, R^2 = .14 (p < .001)
CL = Close Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Role Breadth Self-Efficacy - Excluded Variables

Predictor	β	t	p
CL Developer	.20	1.79	.08
CL Encourager	.20	2.16	.03
CL Exemplar	.18	1.68	.10
CL Inquisitor	.15	1.43	.15
CL Integrator	.16	1.58	.12
CL Unifier	.18	1.46	.15

Hypothesis 13B: Close Versus Distant Leader Encourager Communication and Role

Breadth Self-efficacy

Hypothesis 13B predicted social distance of the leader moderates the relationship between encourager and role breadth self-efficacy whereas the encourager behaviors of a socially close leader will have a stronger, positive relationship with role breadth self-efficacy than a socially distant leader. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and multiple regression analysis were utilized to test this hypothesis. Consistent with the hypothesis, this behavior had a

stronger, positive relationship with RBSE at the close leader level, $r = .37$, $n = 278$, $p < .01$ level

than the distant leader level, $r = .23$, $n = 227$, $p < .01$ (see Table 56).

Table 56: Summary of Intercorrelations Among Role Breadth Self-Efficacy and Exemplar at the Close and Distant Leader Levels

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*
1. Role Breadth Efficacy	4.04	0.84	-						
2. CL Encourager	3.30	1.23	.37**	-					
3. CL Visionary	3.31	1.16	.38**	.81**	-				
4. CL Developer	3.35	1.11	.38**	.87**	.86**	-			
5. DL Encourager	2.74	1.35	.24**	.45**	.47**	.47**	-		
6. DL Visionary	3.44	1.18	.28**	.37**	.46**	.45**	.72**	-	
7. DL Developer	2.74	1.32	.25**	.46**	.50**	.49**	.90**	.69**	-

Note. N = 279
CL = Close Leader; DL = Distant Leader
** *p* < .01

Simultaneous multiple regression indicated the overall model was significant, $F(2, 225) = 19.13$, $p < .001$ and predicted 15% of RBSE. Consistent with the hypothesis, close leaders' encourager behavior was a significant predictor, and distant leader's encourager was not (see Table 57) The data supports hypothesis 13B.

Table57: Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Role Breadth Self-efficacy from the Encourager Communication Behaviors by Close and Distant Leaders

Variable	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*t*	*p*	95% CI
(Constant)	4.04	0.05		77.38	.001	3.93, 4.14
DL Encourager	0.05	0.04	.08	1.17	.24	-0.04, 0.14
CL Encourager	0.23	0.05	.34	4.83	.001	0.13, 0.33

Note. $R = .28$, $R^2 = .15$ (p < .001)
CL = Close Leader; DL = Distant Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

Given the behavior of encourager was not the primary predictor of RSBE (see H13A), simultaneous multiple regression analyses tested whether the other behaviors that had comparable relationships with RBSE (e.g. visionary and developer) likewise had a greater influence at the close leader level. Results indicated the behavior of visionary was predictive at the close and distant leader level, $R^2 = .16$, $F(2, 229) = 21.26$, $p < .001$, and explained 16% of RBSE. A test of the comparative predictive utility indicated close leaders' visionary behavior, $β$

= .31, $t(277) = 4.59$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.13, .33] had a greater influence than distant leader's

visionary behavior, $\beta = .14$, $t(232) = 2.02$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.00, .19] on followers RBSE, $t(230)$

= 2.40, $p < .05$. A second simultaneous multiple regression analysis tested the impact of close

and distant leaders' developer behavior on RBSE. Results indicated the model on whole was

significant, $R^2 = .15$, $F(2, 223) = 19$, $p < .001$. Developer at the close leader level was predictive,

$\beta = .33$, $t(277) = 4.88$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.14, .32], and the behavior at the distant leader level

was not predictive, $\beta = .08$, $t(226) = 1.17$, $p = $ n.s., 95% CI [-.03, .14].

In sum, while this study does not provide definitive evidence of the specific

communication behaviors that lead to RBSE, it does demonstrate that the behaviors of visionary,

developer, and encourager have the strongest relationship with the follower outcome when

performed by a close leader. A direct supervisor who inspires followers about a better future (e.g.

visionary), coaches and trains them to have the necessary skills to participate in achieving that

vision (e.g. developer), and cheers them on (e.g. encourager) has the greatest impact on

employees' belief that they can personally contribute to the achievement of the organizational

vision.

Hypothesis 14A: Communication Behaviors and Job Commitment

Hypothesis 14A predicted the integrator behavior of socially close leaders will have a

stronger, positive relationship with employees' job commitment than the communicative

behaviors of inquisitor, visionary, unifier, exemplar, developer, or encourager. Pearson product-

moment correlation coefficient and multiple regression analysis were utilized to test this

hypothesis. Results indicated a small correlation between each of the communication behaviors

and job commitment. Further, the behaviors of visionary, $r = .38$, $n = 278$, $p < .01$, inquisitor, $r = $

.38, $n = 278$, $p < .01$, and unifier, $r = .38$, $n = 278$, $p < .01$, had the strongest, positive

relationship. The integrator behavior had a nearly identical, positive relationship, $r = .37$, $n = 278$, $p < .01$ (see Table 58).

Table 58: Summary of Intercorrelations Job Commitment and Leadership Communication Behaviors

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*
1. Job Commitment	3.04	0.74	-							
2. CL Inquisitor	3.40	1.04	.38**	-						
3. CL Unifier	3.30	1.02	.38**	.88**	-					
4. CL Visionary	3.31	1.16	.38**	.85**	.89**	-				
5. CL Exemplar	3.43	1.05	.35**	.80**	.83**	.86**	-			
6. CL Integrator	3.16	1.11	.37**	.81**	.81**	.84**	.77**	-		
7. CL Developer	3.35	1.11	.34**	.83**	.83**	.86**	.78**	.87**	-	
8. CL Encourager	3.30	1.23	.30**	.78**	.77**	.81**	.73**	.80**	.87**	-

Note. N = 279
CL = Close Leader
** $p < .01$

Simultaneous multiple regression analysis indicated that while all of the variables together predicted 17% of respondents' job commitment, $F(7, 270) = 7.64$, $p < .05$, none of the behaviors contributed unique variance (see Table 59). High intercorrelations among independent variables along with high tolerance levels indicated that there may be some issues with multicollinearity in the multiple regression model. Thus, hierarchical multiple regression analyses were used to consider each of the seven variables independently while statistically excluding for overlapping variance from the other six. Specifically, seven hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted. In each test, one communication behavior was added in step one and the other six were added in step two. Results indicated the behavior of visionary was the strongest predictor, $R^2 = .14$, $F(1, 276) = 46.43$, $p < .05$, $\beta = .38$, $t(277) = 6.81$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.17, .31], explaining 14% of the variance in respondents' job commitment. Thus, the data did not support hypothesis 14A.

Table 59: Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Job Commitment from Transformational Leadership Communication Behaviors

Variable	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*t*	*p*	95% CI
(Constant)	2.08	0.15		13.74	.001	[1.79, 2.38]
CL Inquisitor	0.10	0.09	.15	1.12	.26	[-0.08, 0.29]
CL Unifier	0.06	0.10	.09	0.59	.56	[-0.14, 0.27]
CL Visionary	0.09	0.10	.15	0.96	.34	[-0.10, 0.29]
CL Exemplar	0.02	0.08	.03	0.29	.77	[-0.13, 0.18]
CL Integrator	0.12	0.08	.18	1.45	.15	[-0.04, 0.28]
CL Developer	-0.05	0.10	-.07	-0.45	.65	[-0.24, 0.15]
CL Encourager	-0.07	0.07	-.11	-0.94	.35	[-0.20, 0.07]

Note. $R = .41$, $R^2 = .17$ (p < .001)
CL = Close Leader; DL = Distant Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

Hypothesis 14B: Close Versus Distant Leader Integrator Communication and Job Commitment

Hypothesis 14B predicted social distance of the leader moderates the relationship between integrator and job commitment whereas the integrator behaviors of a socially close leader will have a stronger, positive relationship with job commitment than a socially distant leader. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and multiple regression analysis were used to test this hypothesis. Contrary to the hypothesized relationship, results indicated that the behavior of integrator had a stronger relationship with job commitment at the distant leader level, $r = .42$, $n = 227$, $p < .01$, level than the close leader level, $r = .37$, $n = 278$, $p < .01$(see Table 60).

Table 60: Summary of Intercorrelations Job Commitment and Integrator Leadership Communication Behaviors at the Close and Distant Leader Levels

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*1*	*2*	*3*
1. Job Commitment	3.04	0.74	-		
2. CL Integrator	3.16	1.11	.37**	-	
3. DL Integrator	2.69	1.26	.42**	.51**	-

Note. N=279
CL = Close Leader; DL = Distant Leader
** $p < .01$

Simultaneous multiple regression was conducted to investigate whether the the behavior of integrator from a close leader had a greater influence on respondents' job commitment than

the same behavior from a distant leader. Contrary to the hypothesized relationship, results indicated the behavior was predictive at both levels and together explained 21% of job commitment, $R^2 = .21$, $F(2, 223) = 12.75$, $p < .001$. While integrator from distant leaders, $\beta = .32$, $t(228) = 4.55$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.10, .26], tended to have greater influence on job commitment than integrator from close leaders, $\beta = .21$, $t(277) = 3.01$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.05, .23]; a t-test of their comparative, predictive utility indicated it was not statistically greater, $t(224) = 1.61$, $p = $ n.s. Hypothesis 14B was not supported.

To further investigate the influence of integrator at the distant leader level, simultaneous multiple regression analysis compared all communication behaviors at both the close and distant leader level and indicated integrator from a distant leader was the only predictor to account for unique variance $R^2 = .24$, $F(2, 223) = 4.40$, $p < .001$, $\beta = .31$, $t(277) = 2.14$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.14, .35]. Further, given a previous hierarchical regression analysis (H14A) indicated visionary was the strongest close leader predictor of job commitment, an additional hierarchical regression analyses compared the influence of integrator at the distant leader level and visionary at the close leader level. Results indicated the integrator behavior at the distant leader level explained 18% of variance in job commitment, $F(1, 224) = 48.21$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.18, .32]. A close leaders' visionary behavior explains an additional 4% of variance, $\Delta F(1, 221) = 10.73$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.01, .23] (see Table 61). Thus an executive who communicates that each individual is critical to the organization's success and emphasizes the importance of each employee performing his or her job in a way that supports the vision (e.g. integrator) has the strongest impact on followers' commitment to their jobs. A direct supervisor who articulates a clear vision provides additional positive influence.

While the results are contrary to the hypothesized relationship, it does somewhat parallel

the complex relationship between the transformational leadership behaviors of individualized consideration and inspirational motivation and job commitment as outlined in hypothesis six. Results indicated that the inspirational motivation of executives moderates the relationship between individualized consideration of direct supervisors and job commitment. This moderating influence provides a possible explanation as to why analyses indicated the charismatic communication behavior of visionary was best accomplished by a close leader and an individualized communication behavior of integrator was best performed by a distant leader.

Table 61: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Job Commitment from the Integrator and Visionary Transformational Leadership Behavior by Close and Distant Leaders

Variable	B	SE	β	t	P	95% CI
Model 1						
(Constant)	3.04	0.45		68.23	.001	[2.95, 3.13]
DL Integrator	0.25	0.04	.42	6.91	.001	[0.18, 0.32]
Model 2						
(Constant)	3.04	0.44		69.69	.001	[2.96, 3.12]
DL Integrator	0.18	0.04	.31	4.40	.001	[0.10, 0.26]
CL Visionary	0.03	0.01	.23	3.26	.001	[0.01, 0.04]

Note. $R = .42$, $R^2 = .18$ (p < .001) from Model 1; $R = .46$, $R^2 = .21$, $\Delta R^2 = .04$ (p < .001) from Model 2
CL = Close Leader; DL = Distant Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

The above analyses (H1 through H14) demonstrated the importance of both socially close, direct supervisors and socially distant, executive leaders in performing the behaviors necessary to produce the follower outcomes theoretically associated with transformational leadership. For employees to be both inspired and empowered toward accomplishing the vision, they require communication from the executive leader and their immediate supervisor. Thus it follows that transformational leadership is distributive leadership where a transformational leader in an executive level position communicates to the masses using specific communication behaviors and to his or her direct reports using different communication behaviors.

The Centrality of Subsidiary Top Leaders

The vision begins with the executive leader. Subsequently, for an individual employee to receive vision communication from his or immediate supervisor, that supervisor must have likewise received vision related communication from his or her immediate supervisor, and the chain continues up to the executive leader. This to some extent is to ensure employees throughout each level receive consistent communication, but it is also critical that each supervisor is coached by his or her supervisor on how to communicate about the vision to his or her staff. Thus, this research forwards that the executive leader at the helm of the organization begins the chain of communication with his or her direct reports. The final portion of the study, testing hypotheses 15 through 17, analyzed this assertion. Specifically, the analyses examined the role of subsidiary top leaders in serving as the conduit between the executive leaders' communication to the masses and immediate supervisors' communication to their direct reports.

Hypothesis 15: Vision Consistency and Vision Integration

Hypothesis 15 indicated followers' perception of the consistency of vision communication between socially distant leaders and socially close leaders is positively related to followers' integration of the vision. Pearson product-moment correlation and multiple regression analyses were utilized to test this hypothesis. Consistent with the hypothesis, results indicated there was a small, positive relationship between followers' perception of communication consistency and vision integration, $r = .36$, $n = 269$, $p < .01$. Accordingly, hypothesis 15 is supported.

Hypothesis 16: Participation in the Vision's Construction

Hypothesis 16 predicted subsidiary top leaders' perception of their participation in the construction of the vision will be positively related with their likelihood of communicating about

the vision on to their departments. Pearson product-moment correlation and multiple regression analyses were used to test this hypothesis. On average, subsidiary top leaders communicated about the vision between once a week and two to three times a month. Consistent with the hypothesis, results indicated there was a moderate, positive relationship between these leaders' contribution to the construction of the vision and the frequency of their communication about it, $r = .45$, $n = 24$, $p < .01$. The data supports hypothesis 16.

Hypothesis 17: Individual Consideration of the Executive Leader

Hypothesis 17 predicted executive leaders' individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation will be positively related to subsidiary top leaders' perception of participation in the vision. Pearson product-moment correlation and multiple regression analyses were used to test this hypothesis. Contrary to the hypothesized positive relationship, there was no relationship between these two leadership behaviors and the outcome. However, individualized consideration by the executive leader did positively relate to subsidiary top leaders' frequency in communicating about vision to their staffs, $r = .42$, $n = 24$, $p < .01$. Further, multiple regression indicated the individualized consideration of the executive leader, as perceived by the subsidiary top leaders, explains 17% of the variance in subsidiary top leaders frequency in communicating about the vision to their staff $R^2 = .17$, $F(1, 22) = 4.69$, $p < .05$, 95%, $\beta = .42$ $t(23) = 2.17$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.04, 1.85].

The above supports the importance of subsidiary top leaders' participation in the construction of the vision for vision integration to occur throughout the organization. However, unpredictably, executive leaders' individualized communication behaviors are not related with the likelihood that they encourage contribution from their staff of senior executives in the construction of the vision. Albeit, individualized consideration on the part of the executive leader

is important when communicating with his or her direct reports. The more subsidiary top leaders receive individualized consideration from their director supervisor, the executive leader, the more likely they are to communicate about the vision throughout the ranks of the organization. In essence, the more they are coached, mentored, and developed, the more they will communicate to their staffs. Given the importance of each employee receiving both charismatic communication and individualized communication, the executive leader must take time to communicate one-on-one with his or her direct reports in order to spur these individuals to begin the chain of vision-related communication throughout the organization.

Additional Analyses

In addition to the analyses testing the predicted hypotheses, tests were performed to further investigate the factors directly influencing vision integration. Pearson product-moment correlation and multiple regression analyses tested the relationship between each of the outcomes associated with diffusion of innovations (e.g. vision support, collective efficacy, role breadth self-efficacy, organizational commitment, job commitment, and personal development) and followers' vision integration. Results indicated a weak, positive relationship between job commitment, role breadth self-efficacy, and personal development with vision integration. There was a moderate, positive relationship between collective efficacy and vision integration. There was a strong, positive correlation between organizational commitment and vision support with vision integration (see Table 62).

Table 62: Summary of Intercorrelations Between Diffusion of Innovations Outcomes and Vision Integration

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Vision Integration	3.95	0.93	-						
2. Vision Support	4.17	0.81	.72**	-					
3. Collective Efficacy	3.80	0.82	.54**	.63**	-				
4. Role Breadth Self-Efficacy	4.04	0.84	.36**	.34**	.49**	-			
5. Organizational Commitment	3.88	0.88	.63**	.65**	.73**	.50**	-		
6. Job Commitment	3.04	0.74	.40**	.35**	.39**	.41**	.58**	-	
7. Personal Development	3.40	1.09	.41**	.41**	.55**	.39**	.61**	.39**	-

Note. N=274
** $p < .01$

Multiple regression analysis indicated that vision support and organizational commitment were the only unique predictors and explained 57% of vision integration, $F(6, 266) = 58.42$, $p < .001$ (see Table 63). A t-test of the difference in the predictive utility of vision support ($\beta = .53$) and organizational commitment ($\beta = .30$) indicated vision support had a greater influence, $t(275) = 5.34$, $p < .05$.

Table 63: Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Vision Integration from Diffusion of Innovations Outcomes

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
(Constant)	0.06	0.24		0.23	.82	[-0.42, 0.53]
Vision Support	0.62	0.06	.54	9.67	.001	[0.49, 0.75]
Collective Efficacy	-0.04	0.07	-.03	-0.48	.63	[-0.18, 0.11]
Role Breadth Self-Efficacy	0.04	0.05	.04	0.71	.48	[-0.07, 0.14]
Organizational Commitment	0.27	0.08	.25	3.42	.001	[0.11, 0.42]
Job Commitment	0.06	0.06	.05	0.99	.32	[-0.06, 0.19]
Personal Development	0.02	0.04	.02	0.37	.71	[-0.07, 0.10]

Note. $R = .75$, $R^2 = .57$ (p < .001)

Additional multiple regression analyses were conducted to examine the direct relationship between the transformational leadership behaviors at the close and distant level with vision integration. While none of the behaviors were unique predictors at the distant leader level, the model on whole predicted 16% of vision integration, $F(4, 219) = 10.36$, $p < .001$ (see Table 64). The behaviors at the close leader level were likewise predictive and explained 22% of followers' vision integration, $F(4, 225) = 15.75$, $p < .001$ (see Table 65). Intellectual stimulation

and individualized consideration provided unique variance. The data tended to indicate intellectual stimulation (β = .32) was a stronger predictor than individualized consideration, β = .24; however, it was not statistically stronger, $t(274) = 1.19$, p = n.s.

Table 64: Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Vision Integration from Transformational Leadership Behaviors at the Distant and Close Leader Level

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
Model 1						
(Constant)						
DL Idealized Influence	-0.01	0.11	-.01	-0.08	.94	[-0.22, 0.20]
DL Inspirational Motivation	0.15	0.12	.18	1.29	.20	[-0.08, 0.38]
DL Intellectual Stimulation	0.13	0.14	.16	0.91	.37	[-0.15, 0.41]
DL Individualized Consideration	0.07	0.11	.09	0.62	.53	[-0.15, 0.29]

Note. R = .40, R^2 = .16, (p < .001)
DL = Distant Leader; CL = Close Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

Table 65: Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Vision Integration from Transformational Leadership Behaviors at the Distant and Close Leader Level

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
Model 2						
(Constant)	3.99	0.06		71.30	.001	[3.88, 4.11]
CL Idealized Influence	0.00	0.11	-.01	-0.04	.97	[-0.22, 0.21]
CL Inspirational Motivation	0.03	0.11	.03	0.26	.80	[-0.19, 0.24]
CL Intellectual Stimulation	0.25	0.09	.30	2.80	.01	[0.07, 0.42]
CL Individualized Consideration	0.19	0.05	.24	3.72	.001	[0.09, 0.29]

Note. R = .47, R^2 = .22, (p < .001)
DL = Distant Leader; CL = Close Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

The impact of the transformational leadership communication behaviors on vision integration was likewise tested using simultaneous multiple regression analyses. Results indicated the behaviors at the distant leader level predicted 22% of vision integration, $F(7, 214)$ = 8.77, p < .001. The behaviors of exemplar and unifier from a distant leader were the only unique contributors (see Table 66). While exemplar (β = 20) tended to have a stronger influence than unifier (β = 28) on the followers' vision integration, a t-test comparing their predictive utility indicated it was not statistically greater, $t(229) = 1.37$, p = n.s. Further, simultaneous

multiple regression analysis indicated the behaviors at the close leader level predicted 16% of

vision integration, $F(7, 265) = 7.20$, $p < .001$, and none of the behaviors were uniquely predictive

(see Table 67).

Table 66: Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Vision Integration from Transformational
Leadership Communication Behaviors at the Distant and Close Leader Level

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
Model 1						
(Constant)	3.95	0.06		70.48	.001	[3.84, 4.06]
DL Inquisitor	0.09	0.14	.11	0.63	.53	[-0.18, 0.36]
DL Exemplar	0.25	0.12	.31	2.12	.04	[0.02, 0.48]
DL Unifier	0.31	0.14	.36	2.24	.03	[0.04, 0.58]
DL Visionary	-0.26	0.14	-.33	-1.83	.07	[-0.55, 0.02]
DL Developer	0.01	0.12	.01	0.04	.97	[-0.22, 0.23]
DL Encourager	0.06	0.10	.09	0.59	.56	[-0.14, 0.25]
DL Integrator	-0.04	0.11	-.06	-0.42	.68	[-0.25, 0.16]

Note. $R = .47$, $R^2 = .22$, (p < .001)
DL = Distant Leader; CL = Close Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

Table 67: Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Vision Integration from Transformational
Leadership Communication Behaviors at the Distant and Close Leader Level

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI
(Constant)	3.95	0.05		75.39	.001	[3.85, 4.06]
CL Inquisitor	0.06	0.12	.07	0.51	.61	[-0.17, 0.29]
CL Exemplar	-0.11	0.10	-.12	-1.07	.29	[-0.31, 0.09]
CL Unifier	0.20	0.13	.22	1.52	.13	[-0.06, 0.47]
CL Visionary	0.17	0.13	.21	1.36	.18	[-0.08, 0.42]
CL Developer	0.14	0.13	.16	1.06	.29	[-0.12, 0.39]
CL Encourager	-0.01	0.09	-.01	-0.09	.93	[-0.18, 0.17]
CL Integrator	-0.12	0.11	-.14	-1.14	.25	[-0.33, 0.09]

Note. $R = .40$, $R^2 = .16$, (p < .001)
DL = Distant Leader; CL = Close Leader
CI = Confidence Interval

By comparing the analyses, the outcomes associated with diffusion of innovations are

shown to have the strongest impact on vision integration. The charismatic leadership and

communication behaviors at the distant leader level have the strongest impact on the diffusion of

innovations related outcomes. Thus, it can be concluded that executive leader charismatic

communication has the strongest impact on vision integration. However, close leader behaviors

and communication and specifically the individualized behaviors of intellectual stimulation and

individualized consideration likewise directly impact vision integration. Thus, the diffusion of innovations model does not represent all of the leadership factors that influence vision integration. A future version of a revised model that better presents both the contribution of close and distant leaders and the outcomes of vision adoption and vision integration is discussed in the following section.

CHAPTER 5

Discussion

The work presented is beneficial in that it overlays leadership and communication scholarship to provide added insight for both disciplines. Specifically, the study's findings advance understanding in three key areas. First, it furthers the work of leadership scholars (e.g. Antonakis & House, 2013; Conger, 1999; Rafferty & Griffen, 2006) by clarifying the differences among the latest conceptualizations of charismatic and transformational leadership. The research employs a communication perspective, highlighting the concepts of audience and context (Kohls, Bligh, & Cartsen, 2012; Wang & Howell, 2012; Wu et al., 2010) in an effort to distinguish among behaviors enacted by charismatic and transformational leaders along with the associated outcomes of those behaviors. Second, the research responds to calls by scholars (e.g. Bono & Judge, 2003; Hackman & Johnson, 2013; Kark & Shamir, 2013; Van Knippenberg, 2013; Yukl, 1989, 2006) to clarify the behaviors, influence processes, and outcomes included in the transformational leadership framework. It does so by utilizing the concept of social distance (Antonakis, 2002) to map each leadership behavior to a core influence process. It subsequently establishes the necessity of multiple organizational leaders in accomplishing the influence processes included in transformational leadership thus establishing it as a form of distributive leadership (Copland, 2003; Gronn, 2002; Spillane et al., 2004). Third, the results build on previous research (e.g. Kohles, Bligh, & Carsten, 2012) to reveal that transformational leadership leads to the follower outcome of vision integration. Albeit, this work substantiates that the impact of transformational leadership on vision integration is stronger when certain behaviors are enacted by the appropriate organizational leader. Additionally, this study outlines the diffusion processes involved in the flow of vision related messages from the executive level through

subsidiary top leaders. It advances limited scholarship in this area (e.g. Floyd & Wooldridge, 1992; Kaplan & Norton, 2013; Maloney, 2011) to substantiate the importance of subsidiary top leaders in bridging the gap between vision support and vision integration.

Charismatic and Transformational Communication Compared

The research first provides a comparison between charismatic and transformational leadership and demonstrates the primary difference between these two types of leaders is the absence or inclusion of two-way, personalized communication. Building on the work of recent leadership scholars (e.g. Wang & Howell, 2012; Wu et al., 2010), this work substantiates that the behaviors traditionally considered to be charismatic within the transformational leadership framework (e.g. inspirational motivation and idealized influence) typically have a stronger impact on vision related outcomes when enacted in mass communication environments where asymmetrical communication occurs (see Table 68). This is repeatedly shown for idealized influence. Each time idealized influence predicts a vision related outcome variable (i.e. collective efficacy and organizational commitment) the behavior has a stronger impact when performed by a distant leader in a mass setting. However, this is not consistently shown for inspirational motivation. In this study, inspirational motivation is not a primary predictor of any of the outcome variables, and for the two occurrences when it provides a secondary or moderating influence, it is best performed in an mass context when predicting organizational commitment and a dyadic context when predicting job commitment. With regard to the individualized behaviors of individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration has the strongest impact when performed in a dyadic context, and intellectual stimulation is impactful in both dyadic and mass settings. Thus, comparing charismatic and transformational leadership from the behaviors encompassed within the Multifactor Leadership

Questionnaire alone does not provide irrefutable support for a clear-cut distinction between the communication patterns of these two types of leaders. Put simply, if a leader is performing only charismatic behaviors, it does not necessarily mean he or she is going to remain distant from the follower and communicate exclusively in mass, asymmetrical settings. Similarly, if a leader is only performing individualized behaviors, it does not mean he or she will communicate exclusively in dyadic settings. However, when comparing the communication behaviors of charismatic leaders versus transformational leaders using the newly devised transformational leadership communication scale, the difference is more evident.

Table 68: Social Distance Indicates Transformational Leadership Behavior

Process	Direction	Source[a]	Behavior	Source	Behavior	Outcome
Elevating Needs	Asymmetrical	Distant	Intel. Stim.	Distant	Inquisitor	Vision Support
	Asymmetrical	-	-	Distant	Exemplar	
Building Confidence	Dyadic	Close	Indiv. Cons.	Close	Encourager	Role Breadth Self-Efficacy
	Dyadic	Close	Intel. Stim.	-	-	
	Asymmetrical	-	-	Distant	Visionary	
	Asymmetrical	Distant	Ideal. Infl.	Distant	Exemplar	Collective Efficacy
	Asymmetrical	-	-	Distant	Unifier	
	Asymmetrical	-	-	Distant	Visionary	
	Asymmetrical	Distant	Intel. Stim.	-	-	Organizational Commitment
	Dyadic	Close	Insp. Motiv.	-	-	
	Asymmetrical	Distant	Ideal. Infl.	Distant	Exemplar	
	Dyadic	Close	Intel. Stim.	Distant	Integrator	Job Commitment
	Dyadic	Close	Indiv. Cons.	-	-	
	Asymmetrical	Distant	Insp. Motiv.	Close	Visionary	
	Dyadic	Close	Intel. Stim.	-	-	
	Dyadic	Close	Indiv. Cons.	Close	Developer	Personal Development
	Asymmetrical	Distant	Intel. Stim.	-	-	

Note. Close denotes a direct supervisor and distant denotes one who is two or more organizational levels above a given employee.

As outlined previously, the current measures of transformational leadership have tamed both the charismatic and individualized behaviors in order to allow all leaders to perform all four behaviors regardless of audience and context (Beyer, 1999; Hunt & Conger, 1999; Rafferty & Griffen, 2006; Van Knippenberg, 2013). Consequently, it is not surprising there is not a more noticeable distinction between the communication patterns of charismatic and transformational leaders when using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire as the measure of these two types of leadership. The Transformational Leadership Communication Scale developed for this study parallels the work of recent scholars (Ewing & Lee, 2009; Kouzes & Posner, 2003) by returning to Bass' original (1985) conception of transformational leadership which includes a stronger dichotomy between charismatic and individualized leadership behaviors. As such, the charismatic communication behaviors of inquisitor, unifier, and exemplar consistently have the strongest impact when performed by a socially distant leader using asymmetrical communication. The behavior of visionary is the only exception. For one outcome variable (i.e. job commitment), the behavior has a stronger impact when performed by a close leader in a dyadic context. Further, the individualized behaviors of developer and encourager consistently have the strongest influence when performed by close leaders in dyadic settings. The behavior of integrator is shown to have a significant impact when performed in a mass setting for one outcome variable (i.e. job commitment), which coincides with intellectual stimulation having a significant influence when performed in both mass and dyadic settings.

Thus, this study demonstrates that a principal difference between charismatic and transformational leaders, is the use or absence of two-way, personalized, communication patterns. With few exceptions, the behaviors associated with charisma are predominantly performed in mass settings through asymmetrical communication, and the behaviors associated

with individualized leadership are best performed in dyadic settings where two-way communication can occur. This supports previous research (e.g. Levine, Muenchen, & Brooks, 2010), that indicates charismatic leaders are perceived as confident, motivational public speakers. Furthermore, Bass' original conception and Rafferty and Griffin's (2006) more recent assertion that authentic transformational leadership requires coaching behaviors by a leader who communicates on an interpersonal level with followers is likewise substantiated in this work. The distinction between charismatic and transformational leadership is not as distinguishable as originally conceived of at the start of this project. While a leader performing only charismatic leadership behaviors is not fully transformational without performing the two-way communication required to develop, encourage, and empower followers, it is of notable importance that results show overlap between these two leadership types.

In addition to demonstrating that charismatic leadership communication behaviors are primarily accomplished in mass contexts and transformational leadership communication behaviors in both mass and individual settings, the study substantiates that asymmetrical, charismatic, leadership communication results in different follower outcomes than two-way, personalized, leadership communication. The research establishes that asymmetrical leadership communication is the primary predictor of vision support, collective efficacy, and organizational commitment. These outcomes fall within both of the foundational influence processes that comprise the transformational leadership framework, meaning charisma can both inspire and empower organizational members to contribute effort above and beyond expectation. This finding could potentially support those scholars (e.g. Antonakis & House, 2013; Cavazotte, Moreno, & Bernardo, 2013; Khatri, 2005) who contend charismatic leadership and transformational leadership are interchangeable given charismatic leadership accomplishes both

of the core influence processes included in transformational leadership. However, by outlining Bass' original conception of transformational leadership and dissecting the sub processes and outcomes that comprise each main influence processes, this study demonstrates that the enactment of charismatic behaviors alone does not accomplish all of the outcomes associated with transformational leadership.

Portions of the empowerment influence process within the transformational leadership framework are not enacted in a mass setting by a charismatic leader. This study demonstrates that the leadership behaviors of individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation and the communication behaviors of encourager, developer, and integrator are used to develop and coach employees in a dyadic context to help them individually contribute to the organization's vision. These dyadic leadership and communication behaviors lead to followers' role breadth self-efficacy, job commitment, and personal development. Rafferty and Griffin (2006) contend that a key distinction between the original model of transformational leadership and the more recent conceptions that blend charisma and transformational leadership is the manner in which individualized consideration is measured. The contemporary versions of transformational leadership measure only social support whereas the original conceptions (e.g. Bass, 1985) included both social and developmental support. Even a charismatic leader can provide social support given it does not require two-way, personalized communication (Rafferty & Griffin, 2006). This research substantiates that both types of support are required to perform the processes of transformational leadership. Social support, as measured by the communication behavior - encourager, in a dyadic context leads to role breadth self-efficacy, and developmental support, as indicated in the communication behavior - developer, in a dyadic context impacts personal development.

Consistent with the predictions forwarded, it was found that a follower who receives only charismatic leadership will likely know about the vision and be excited and motivated to achieve it, but without the individualized behaviors of transformational leadership, he or she may not be developed and coached in a manner that allows him or her to contribute to the achievement of the vision. While charismatic leadership alone does not offer the same level of impact on organizational outcomes as transformational leadership, this data suggests that being a charismatic leader is not disadvantageous in an organizational context. Instead, charismatic leadership is essential for vision integration. However, as outlined in the section to follow, the benefit arises when the right leader is performing the charismatic behaviors to the correct audience in the appropriate context.

Social Distance Delineates Leadership Behaviors

The second major contribution made by this study is the clarification of the relationship between the influence processes in transformational leadership and the behaviors that comprise each. As outlined previously, the two core processes in transformational leadership are inspiration and empowerment (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1990). In order to match the transformational leadership and communication behaviors to these two influence processes, the concept of social distance was employed. Each of the behaviors in transformational leadership have been designated as individual level or group level behaviors (Wang & Howell, 2012; Wu et al., 2010). Individual level behaviors are likely performed by a socially close leader and group level behaviors by a socially distant leader (Antonakis, 2002). Past research has demonstrated that each of the sub process outcomes within transformational leadership (e.g. identity change, organizational commitment, job commitment, collective efficacy, role breadth self-efficacy, and personal development) are influenced by either asymmetrical or two-way communication.

Asymmetrical communication is accomplished by a distant leader and the latter by a close leader. Thus using the concept of social distance as the conduit, the results of the study clarify the behaviors that are inspiring and those that are empowering. Moreover, it validates that the transformational leadership framework includes a combination of the behaviors of both close and distant leaders (see Table 68).

Intellectual stimulation by a distant leader is the leadership behavior and inquisitor and exemplar are the communication behaviors that have the strongest impact on the first influence process of inspiration. While intellectual stimulation is not traditionally considered a charismatic behavior that inspires (Avolio, Waldman, & Yammarino, 1991), in Bass' early conception of transformational leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2001; Bass, 1985, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1990), he emphasizes the importance of leaders' explanation of the need for the vision. He contends transformational leaders outline the problem in the current situation in order to motivate followers toward a solution. It is noteworthy that this study establishes that the justification of why the vision is needed is more inspiring than outlining the grandeur of what could be accomplished if the vision was achieved.

In terms of the second influence process, a combination of all leadership and communication behaviors, except for the behavior of inquisitor, are needed to empower followers. With regard to empowering toward confidence, where confidence is measured via role breadth self-efficacy, it is notable that the behavior of individualized consideration is the predictive leadership behavior; however, encourager is the predictive communication behavior. Encourager is a subset of individualized consideration representing social support. Individualized consideration is also one of the significant predictors of followers' personal development; yet, the communication behavior of developer is the primary predictor. Like encourager, developer is

a subset of individualized consideration, but it represents developmental support. Moreover, with regard to the behavior of inspirational motivation, for the outcome of collective efficacy, the communication behaviors of visionary and unifier are impactful, where only visionary is predictive of role breadth self-efficacy and job commitment. By employing the communication concept of social distance and by measuring transformational leadership communication behaviors in a more granular manner than the multifactor leadership questionnaire, this research offers a clearer representation of the behaviors that comprise each of the influence processes within the transformational leadership framework. A full listing of the behaviors that fall within each influence process is outlined in Table 67.

Transformational Leadership is Distributive Leadership

This work empirically demonstrates that to perform the influence processes within the transformational leadership framework both distant leaders and close leaders are required. Further, it delineates the behaviors that are best enacted by a close, direct supervisor and those that are most impactful when enacted by a distant, executive leader. The leadership behaviors of individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, and inspirational motivation have the greatest influence when enacted by a close leader. Similarly, the communication behaviors of encourager, visionary, and developer are most impactful when enacted by close leaders. The behaviors of intellectual stimulation, idealized influence, and inspirational motivation are best enacted by a distant leader. The communication behaviors of inquisitor, exemplar, visionary, and unifier are best enacted by an executive leader. While the behaviors of intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation are enacted by close and distant leaders, individualized consideration is never enacted by a distant leader and idealized influence is never enacted by a

close leader. In terms of the communication behaviors, only visionary is enacted by close and distant leaders.

Transformational Leadership is Transformational

As outlined previously, the stages within the diffusion of innovations decision making process parallel the outcomes of the influence processes within transformational leadership. As such, just as transformational leadership requires the actions of close and distant leaders, so too does influencing someone to adopt a new innovation. Few studies (e.g. Kohls, Bligh, & Cartsen, 2012) have empirically supported the extent to which the diffusion of innovations model applies specifically to the adoption of a vision. In other words, while diffusion of innovations explains how individuals adopt new innovations, the extent to which vision can be considered a type of innovation has yet to be substantiated. This research establishes that transformational leadership behaviors may predict the outcomes of diffusion of innovations, and moreover the outcome variables within diffusion of innovations predict a large percentage of vision integration. Vision support and organizational commitment are the strongest predictors of vision integration, and both of these outcomes are influenced to a greater extent by executive leaders than by direct supervisors. Thus, charismatic leadership behaviors are essential for vision integration. Specifically, to achieve vision integration, the behaviors of intellectual stimulation and idealized influence performed by executive leaders prove to be the most impactful. Intellectual stimulation has not traditionally been considered a charismatic behavior, and consequently it is somewhat surprising that when performed by an executive leader it has a strong influence on vision support, the primary predictor of vision integration. Further, the leadership communication scale reveals the portion of intellectual stimulation that aligns with the inquisitor communication behavior set is most impactful on followers' vision support when performed by executive

leaders. The behaviors encompassed within the inquisitor behavior set closely align with the behaviors outlined by Bass and Avolio (Avolio & Bass, 2001; Bass, 1985, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1990) in their explanation for how leaders inspire; however, those behaviors are not explicitly measured in the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. Thus, it appears that both a close and distant leader perform the behavior of intellectual stimulation; however, this research demonstrates they perform different subsets of intellectual stimulation.

Leadership scholarship has yet to substantiate a causal relationship between transformational leadership and followers' integration of a vision (Antonakis & House, 2013; Kohles, Bligh, & Carsten, 2012, 2013). This research confirms that transformational leadership behaviors directly impact vision integration but to a much lesser extent than the outcome variables that comprise diffusion of innovations. When measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, the behaviors at the close leader level have a stronger, direct impact on vision integration than at the distant leader level. Further, the behaviors of intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration are the primary influencers. Results from the transformational leadership communication scale support the opposite; transformational leadership at the executive leader level has a stronger impact, and specifically the behavior of unifier proved to be the strongest predictor. Thus, while diffusion of innovations does predict vision integration, further work is needed to ensure that it is capturing all of the portions of transformational leadership that lead to vision integration. If a behavior directly impacts vision integration but it is not a significant predictor of the outcomes associated with diffusion of innovations, then some portion of a stage within the diffusion of innovations framework is not fully representing the influence processes occurring in transformational leadership. A possible explanation is that diffusion of innovations captures someone's decision to adopt the vision at a given time, but it

may not fully capture the extent to which the individual continues to use the vision, meaning to fully integrate it. The individualized behaviors of individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation may play a larger role in a stage that directly follows the adoption of the vision.

A comparison of the direct, causal relationship between transformational leadership and vision integration versus diffusion of innovations and vision integration helps us better explain the influences that prompt organizational members to be transformed. At the close and distant leader level, transformational leadership directly predicts a much smaller portion of vision integration than the outcomes associated with diffusion of innovations. This demonstrates there are additional factors influencing an individual's decision to adopt the vision, meaning influences other than leadership impact organizational members' vision integration. If it were simply leadership, then the results of this study would show similar prediction between the direct effects of transformational leadership on vision integration and the outcomes of diffusion of innovations on vision integration. However, because the latter predicts a much larger amount, the additional influences that predict the diffusion of innovations related outcomes of vision support, organizational commitment, job commitment, collective efficacy, role breadth self-efficacy, and personal development likewise are important to achieve vision integration. Accordingly, this research supports scholarship (Cartsen & Bligh, 2007; Kohles, Bligh, & Carsten, 2012; Meindl, 1995; Shamir, Pillai, Bligh, & Uhl-Bien, 2007) indicating that not only are multiple leaders required for vision integration, but there are additional influences beyond the leader that impact an employee's adoption and execution of the vision.

Subsidiary Top Leaders Bridge the Implementation Gap

While this research supports the assertion that communication from the executive leader is more impactful than from a direct supervisor for vision integration, the consistency of the

vision related messages between direct supervisor and executive leader is shown to impact followers' vision integration. This confirms the work of past scholars (e.g. Cha & Edmondson, 2006; Kress, 2005; O'Reilly et al., 2010; Sacks, 2006) who have established several, positive organizational outcomes result from consistent vision related information from organizational leaders. Consistent communication will not travel down the ranks of the organization without subsidiary top leaders passing down the information. Results demonstrate their participation in the construction of the vision impacts their likelihood of communicating about the vision to their staff. These findings support the work of Maloney (2011) who forwards that the leader who develops an innovation must communicate about the vision to the early adopters in a different manner than he or she communicates with the rest of the network. These first individuals must feel as though they have participated in the construction of the innovation if they are going to adopt the innovation and communicate with their network about the vision (Floyd & Wooldridge, 1992; Kaplan & Norton, 2013). An executive leader who allows his or her subsidiary top leaders to participate in the construction of the vision and its implementation strategy is more likely to promote communication about the vision and ultimately span the chasm between executive leadership and the rest of the organization. Further, the individualized consideration of the executive leader is the single transformational leadership behavior that predicts the subsidiary top leaders' likelihood of passing on the vision. A possible explanation is that individualized consideration is a form of coaching, and subsequently subsidiary top leaders may need to be coached by their direct supervisor, the executive, in how and when to communicate the vision to their respective divisions.

Theoretical and Practical Implications

The study's main contribution is to the advancement of transformational leadership theory. This research clarifies the influence processes taking place within the theory and the behaviors that accomplish each process. Further, it validates that transformational leadership is a form of distributive leadership and thus requires the actions of both close and distant leaders in mass and interpersonal settings (Wang & Howell, 2012). Additionally, it outlines the behaviors that are best accomplished by a distant, executive leader and a close, direct supervisor. This work provides empirical support for Avolio et al.'s (2004) assertion that transformational leadership should be measured as multi-level phenomenon. Moving forward, researchers should adjust the manner in which transformational leadership is measured by designating different weights to each subscale based on the audience evaluating the leader. For instance, a leader's idealized influence should be given more weight at the distant leader level. Specifically, when the behavior is being evaluated by those employees who are two or more levels below the leader, the score should be weighted heavier than when evaluated by direct reports. Conversely, direct reports would most accurately measure their immediate supervisor's individualized consideration, and thus the behavior should be given a stronger weight when measured at the close leader level. Designating the same weight to an executive leader's individualized consideration score would undoubtedly skew results because that behavior is meant to be enacted on direct reports. Moreover, measuring a direct supervisor's idealized influence would likewise impact his or her transformational leadership score, given that behavior is best performed at the distant leader level.

The impact of transformational leadership is shown to extend beyond being a positive influence in organizations to influencing strategically directed transformation in followers. Given

the centrality of communication in transformational leadership theory (Levine, Muenchen & Brooks, 2010), the study introduces a new communication centric scale. The scale is comparable to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire with regard to the amount of vision integration explained. However, it better captures the specific behaviors included in the transformational leadership framework. The scale is designed with audience and context in mind, and thus a leader deemed transformational according to this scale will be performing charismatic behaviors in mass settings and individualized behaviors in dyadic contexts in order to best influence true follower transformation.

Additionally, this work has implications for the diffusion of innovations model (Rogers, 2003). This model has traditionally emphasized the centrality of opinion leaders, and this research substantiates that those in formal, leadership roles likewise impact organizational members' adoption of a new idea. Each of the stages is directly influenced by a close or distant leader and to a greater extent by a distant leader. This adds insight to the extant scholarship on persuasion (e.g. Avolio , Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004; Postomes, Shamir, 1995; Spears, & Lea, 1999; Wang & Howell, 2012;) given the study demonstrates that persuasion with regard to a vision occurs in asymmetrical, distant relationships more than in dyadic relationships. Further, this research emphasizes the role of subsidiary top leaders in the diffusion process. In order for an individual follower to receive the communication needed from a direct supervisor in the latter stages of the process and in order to ensure that those vision-related messages are consistent with that of the executive leader, the subsidiary top leaders must first be compelled to pass the vision on from executive through the ranks of the organization. This study demonstrates a portion of their motivation is the extent to which they participated in the construction of the vision.

The research provides several practical, managerial implications. First, an executive leader should be in front of all of the employees that directly and indirectly report to him or her frequently in mass settings for strategically directed transformation to occur. Given the significant impact of executive leaders on vision support, commitment, and efficacy, all of which strongly impact vision integration, an executive should be regularly holding group-level meetings. Where the chief executive is holding all employee meetings, executive leaders throughout the lower ranks of the organization should be holding all division and/or department meetings depending on their respective level of oversight. Moreover, the two behaviors of intellectual stimulation and idealized influence are the strongest predictors of the above stated outcomes. Thus, during the all-staff meetings, the leader's message should provide followers with the rationale for why the vision is needed by describing the shortcomings inherent in the current situation. Specifically, he or she should be inquisitive, meaning asking hypothetical questions that challenge current practices, procedures, and beliefs; encourage an overall questioning attitude among employees; demonstrate that he or she is seeking differing perspectives to solve problems; and promote employees to imagine how their circumstances could be better. Put simply, establishing the need for action is the most important behavior an executive leader can perform to influence followers' vision integration. It is even more essential than setting out what the vision is.

In addition to describing why the vision is needed, an executive leader should spend time, however less time, talking about having a collective sense of mission where everyone can win if they work together toward the vision. A clear and compelling articulation of an achievable vision is predictive of an employee's sense of collective efficacy, which means it indirectly impacts vision integration. Yet, this study substantiates that when compared to the other executive

communication behaviors, it provides the least amount of benefit with regard to the strategic transformation of employees. The implementation gap (Floyd & Wooldridge, 1992; Kleinbaum & Stuart, 2014) that exists between vision construction and the actual adoption of the vision (Speculand, 2013), may be lessened if executive leaders spend less time describing what the vision is and more time explaining why it is needed and how it was devised.

Idealized influence by the executive leader is also a strong contributor to the key vision related outcomes. Thus a leader should be in front of employees where they can see that he or she displays extraordinary excitement about the vision and a commitment to core values that support the vision. A leader in an executive position should recognize he or she serves as the chief example of commitment to the vision and be intentional to incorporate talking points that provide accounts of how he or she is sacrificing for the vision and forgoing personal gain to remain devoted to the organization's success.

Further, the implementation gap may be lessened if leaders recognize that not any one leader should be evaluated on all transformational leadership criteria by all of his or her employees. Leaders should be developed to communicate using specific behaviors to specific audiences. Accordingly, this work could be used to inform leadership training material and performance criteria given it provides a framework for the specific behaviors that should be communicated based on the audience and context. At the individual level a leader should provide both developmental support and social support (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996; Rafferty & Griffen 2006). Social support alone is not adequate for vision integration. A leader simply telling an employee he or she believes in his or her abilities falls short. The leader must train his or her direct reports by finding opportunities to help them continually develop their skills and knowledge; by using his or her connections to get them needed resources and information; by

providing regular feedback on performance; and by encouraging them to ask him or her questions. Moreover, the direct supervisor must spend time helping each employee integrate the vision into his or her daily routine. If a leader is not successful in helping direct reports in this manner, he or she is not performing what is needed to be an effective supervisor. As a leader is considered for added responsibility, his or her ability to communicate charismatically in mass settings could potentially be used as a criterion to determine whether she should continue to be promoted to higher ranks in the organization and charged with the oversight larger groups. Given the importance of group-level communication on vision integration, an organization's success to some extent depends on the quality of the communication employees are receiving in group settings. Thus, it is important that those in executive roles throughout the levels of the organization are effective at charismatically inspiring and empowering employees.

Executives throughout the ranks of the organization are crucial for vision integration, yet the individual at the helm of the organization performs a unique role. This individual must be willing to allow his or her direct reports, those subsidiary top leaders overseeing the major divisions of the organization, to participate in the construction of the vision. Thus, these lieutenant leaders should hear about the leader's vision first. Executive leaders and communication practitioners who are counseling chief executive officers are advised to appreciate that there is an order or priority to how vision related information ought to be disseminated throughout an organization. For vision integration to occur across the organization, subsidiary top leaders must hear about the vision first.

Limitations and Future Research

Significant time and attention were devoted to designing the methodology, selecting the sample, and preparing the survey instrument in order to precisely measure the variables under

study. However, there are minor limitations with regard to the operationalization of constructs and the sample that could either not be addressed or did not become apparent until after the data was collected. These limitations are detailed in order to accurately interpret the significance of this study and inform future scholarship. First, the study would have been strengthened by the inclusion of a more developed measure of vision integration. This construct has not been previously measured, and thus this study provided an initial attempt at developing a scale based on past studies' conceptual explanations of the construct. However, results may have yielded further insight if the study could have employed a more widely validated measure. Scholars should use the findings of this study to continue to more fully understand and measure vision integration. Further this study employed a cross sectional design where employees' vision integration was measured at one point in time. However, a longitudinal study design may have provided added insight into the extent to which vision integration was lasting. Conceptually, there is a difference between an individual making the decision to integrate the vision at a given moment versus repeatedly using the vision day after day. A outlined previously, the distinction between the concepts of vision adoption and vision integration needs to be more fully developed. Vision integration may be more precisely measured by including an element of time. By using a longitudinal study, results may indicate that some leaders prompt the employee to begin integrating the vision while others may be instrumental in helping the employee to continue to fully incorporate the vision. Finally, vision integration was measured using an employees' self-reported perception of his or her own integration of the vision. It would be interesting to triangulate and measure an employee's vision integration from the vantage point of multiple others in the organization. This is difficult to achieve while maintaining the anonymity of the respondents.

With regard to the instrumentation used to measure the 22 subscales, additional thought should have been given to the length of the survey and the organization of the scales included. Many of the items measuring the behaviors of the executive leader were in the second half of the survey. Due to participants not responding to all items in the second half of the survey, there were not as many responses included in the measurement of executive leader behaviors as direct supervisor behaviors. Items that inquire about the behaviors of the executive leader may be more difficult for employees to answer given they see and converse less with the executive than with their immediate supervisor. Thus those items may have been more readily responded to at the beginning of the survey or intermixed throughout the survey.

Subsidiary top leaders' perception of the vision could have been more thoroughly measured with a larger sample size. Moreover, added insight about the communication of subsidiary top leaders would have been gained with the inclusion of additional organizations. It would have provided access to a wider sample of individuals in the senior vice president rank. Similarly, including additional organizations would have allowed the charismatic behaviors of several different executive leaders to be included. This study was interested in organizational members' perception of their leaders' behaviors. Each individual has a unique impression of the leader making the number of leaders included of lesser consequence. However, results of tests measuring executive leader behavior would arguably have stronger validity with the inclusion of variety of chief executives from diverse industries. Access to multiple organizations in a single study is a common challenge for organizational scholars. To test the hypotheses outlined in this study, the researcher needed to validate that employees were integrating a specific vision. Thus, the executive leader needed to first disclose his or her vision and allow the researcher to send a

survey out to his or her entire organization. Coordinating permission to survey several, large, multi-level organizations in a single study is extremely arduous.

The findings of this research lay a foundation for several additional studies. While the communication of executive leaders has proven to be critical for vision integration, it would be interesting to investigate how often is frequent enough. Future scholarship should consider whether it is possible for an executive leader to communicate about the vision in excess. Moreover, while organizational members perceiving the executive leader as an example impacts vision integration, it would be useful to investigate whether delivering his or her message in person has a varying effect. Would there be a different impact if the leader's message was delivered through taped or live video? Further, would the communication of personal stories in emails, memos, and written communication impact vision integration in the same manner as hearing the leader recount in person instances when he or she has taken actions that demonstrate commitment to the vision? Moreover, does hearing about the leaders' actions in person or via written or digital communication impact followers' vision integration to the same extent as actually seeing the leader perform the behaviors that demonstrate his or her commitment to the vision? Should employees witness the leader in action in settings outside of an all-employee meeting where the leader is performing behaviors to personally contribute to the vision? For instance, if the vision centers on being the organization with superior customer services, is it important for vision integration for employees to see the leader's interaction with customers? Further, this research substantiates that charismatic leadership behaviors are best enacted by executive leaders; however, it would be interesting to clarify whether charisma increases with each subsequent level in the organization. Future scholarship could delineate whether there is a difference in how a director versus a chief executive officer enacts the charismatic leadership

behaviors of intellectual stimulation, idealized influence, and inspirational motivation or the communication behaviors of inquisitor, exemplar, unifier, and visionary.

Leadership scholarship could be advanced by refining and measuring vision integration along with the behaviors and processes that impact it. This work makes strong advancements to show that transformational leadership does lead to vision integration; however, it demonstrates there are other factors impacting vision integration that are not accounted for in transformational leadership alone. Peer influence and trusted advisor influence are possible factors. This is seen by juxtaposing the direct effects of diffusions of innovations and transformational leadership on vision integration. The behaviors of individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation at the close leader level have the strongest direct impact on vision integration. However, intellectual stimulation, idealized influence, and inspirational motivation at the distant leader level predict the three outcomes in diffusion of innovations that have the strongest impact on vision integration. And the diffusion of innovations outcomes have a much stronger impact on vision integration than the direct effects of a close leader's behaviors. Thus, there are other influences at work with the distant leader behaviors to impact the diffusion of innovations outcomes and ultimately vision integration.

A suggested area of further scholarship is to better define a diffusion of innovations type model that captures the individualized behaviors of transformational leadership in addition to the distant leader behaviors. If the individualized behaviors have a direct effect, and yet they are not significant factors in the diffusion of innovations model, then the model requires adjustment to fully capture the factors that influence vision integration. A possible starting point would be to consider whether there is a difference between vision adoption and vision integration. This research demonstrates transformational leadership alone does not directly impact vision

integration to a large extent. However, diffusion of innovations does. It is possible that diffusion of innovations represents a model that predicts vision adoption and does not fully capture the behaviors that lead one to integrate the vision. While an employee may have made the decision to adopt the vision, it does not necessarily mean he or she has the skills and resources to start acting in a way that contributes to the vision. Research is needed to investigate whether the individualized behaviors are primarily used to assist followers in continuing to use the vision. The vision integration scale should be extended by considering whether it equally measures both an individual's decision to use the vision and his or her continued use of the vision. Future scholarship in this area should begin by considering whether vision adoption and vision integration are two separate constructs or a single construct.

Additionally, the new, Transformational Leadership Communication Scale should be tested to further substantiate its generalizability. Moreover, while the scale can be used for close and distant leaders with different weighting based on behavior, one item within the subscale of exemplar (regularly talks about his or her most important values and beliefs) measures only close leader behavior and another item (lives so passionately that it makes me want to emulate him or her) from the same subscale measures only distant leader behavior. Revisions to the scale should be made to allow all items to measure both close and distant leaders.

Moreover, this research measures vision integration at the individual level. Subsequent scholarship may consider measuring an organization's collective vision integration and compare organization with organization to empirically test the processes that influence an entire organization's collective integration of a vision. Scholars should employ network analysis to test the flow of vision related communication throughout the organization and the dynamics that shape the diffusion of vision related communication. This research begins work in this area by

outlining the flow of vision related messages through subsidiary top leaders and specifically the importance of these lieutenant leaders' participation in the construction of the vision. It would be interesting to consider whether subsidiary leaders in lower divisions and departments likewise need to hear about the vision before communicating to the rest of the department. For instance, do those individuals that report to the director of the department likewise need to feel as though they have contributed to construction of the department's vision?

There continues to be much work that is needed in the area of organizational leadership communication. Organizational scholars have shifted over the past several decades from considering an organization as a container, with individuals working inside, to instead seeing an organization as individuals who are perpetually organizing to move with common purpose. This research contributes to the latter by seeking to explain how communication impacts the process through which individuals organize and move with common purpose toward a common objective. It has built on a rich history of scholarship to demonstrate that a leader's communication is a central factor in the process of organizing, and transformational leadership is indeed a unique and superior type of leadership because it directly impacts individuals' ability to work with common purpose toward a collective end. Using the age old communication concepts of message source, audience, and context, this work demonstrates that while transformational leadership influences an individual's integration of the vision, its impact is strengthened if the correct leader is performing the correct behaviors to the appropriate audience. Admittedly, sometimes the correct behavior is charisma. Thus, while this study demonstrates a difference between charismatic and transformational leadership, it validates that transformational leadership is not transforming without charisma. Moreover, it substantiates that charismatic behaviors are not transforming without individualized, developmental behaviors. Any leader who is charged

with overseeing a team, department, division, or an entire organization must be well versed in transitioning between charismatic and individualized leadership communication because genuine transformation requires both.

APPENDIX A: Transformational Leadership Behaviors

This questionnaire describes the leadership style of the above-mentioned individual as you perceive it. Judge how frequently each statement fits the person you are describing. Use the following rating scale:

0 = Not at all	2 = Sometimes	4 = Frequently, if not always
1 = Once in a while	3 = Fairly often	5 = Always

Idealized Influence

1. Makes others feel good to be around him or her.

2. Others have complete faith in him or her.

3. Others are proud to be associated with him or her.

Inspirational Motivation

1. Expresses with a few simple words what we could and should do.

2. Provide appealing images about what we can do.

3. Helps others find meaning in their work.

Intellectual Stimulation

1. Enables others to think about old problems in new ways.

2. Provides others with new ways of looking at puzzling things.

3. Gets others to rethink ideas that they had never questioned before.

Individualized Consideration

1. Helps others develop themselves.

2. Lets others know how I think they are doing.

3. Gives personal attention to others who seem rejected.

APPENDIX B: Transformational Communication Behaviors

The below items describe the leadership style of the above-mentioned individual as you perceive

it. Judge how frequently each statement fits the person you are describing.

Use the following rating scale:

0 = Not at all   2 = Sometimes   4 = Frequently, if not always

1 = Once in a while   3 = Fairly often   5 = Always

Inquisitor

1. Asks questions that challenge our current practices, procedures, and beliefs

2. Encourages a questioning attitude (e.g., what if?)

3. Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems

4. Prompts us to imagine how our circumstances could be better

5. Helps us see that we were made for more

Unifier

6. Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission

7. Compels us to change what we value

8. Encourages us to consider long-term gain over the short term

9. Inspires us to consider the needs of others before our own

10. Helps us realize that everyone can win if we work together

Visionary

11. Demonstrates wisdom and insight about what is to come in the future

12. Articulates to the masses an inspiring and achievable vision of the future

13. Clearly explains abstract ideas and concepts through storytelling, metaphors, and models.

14. Speaks of future success as a state where everyone wins

15. Listens and takes into consideration our desires when making decisions

Exemplar

16. Regularly talks about his/her most important values and beliefs

17. Displays extraordinary excitement about new ideas

18. Publically and transparently demonstrates commitment to his or her values and beliefs

19. Willingly sacrifices for the success of the organization

20. Lives so passionately that it makes me want to emulate him or her

Integrator

21. Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments

22. Asks me to talk to experts who work outside your normal field to gain new, fresh ideas

23. Clarifies in specific terms who is responsible for achieving which performance targets

24. Offers advice to me on how to prioritize my responsibilities to align with the direction of the organization

25. Keeps me "in the loop" and explains the logic behind the organization's strategy

Developer

26. Helps me find opportunities to continually develop my skills and knowledge

27. Uses his or her connections to get me the resources and information I need to perform well

28. Provides regular feedback on my performance offering healthy criticism and tips for improvement.

29. Encourages me to ask him/her questions whenever I have them.

30. Makes certain that I clearly understand my responsibilities and feel confident in performing them.

Encourager

31. Tells me that he/she believes in my abilities and is impressed by my potential

32. Reminds me that my part in the organization is vital to its success

33. Encourages me to not give up when I face obstacles

34. Reminds me of what I have already accomplished

35. Gives praise liberally and tells me often that he or she is pleased with my progress.

APPENDIX C: Vision Support

Rate your agreement with the below statements using the following scale

1 = Not at all true 2 = Hardly true   3 = Moderately true   4 = Mostly true 5 = Exactly True

1. I am personally excited about implementing our church's vision.

2. I recognize the difficulties we will face if we fail to implement this vision.

3. It is in my personal interest to help implement our church's vision.

4. I am personally convinced that this vision is the right one for our church.

APPENDIX D: Role Breadth Self-Efficacy

Rate how confident would you feel performing the below tasks using the following scale.

1 = Not at all   2 = Slightly   3 = Moderately   4 = Regularly   5 = Very

I feel confident:

1. Representing your work area in meetings with senior management

2. Writing a proposal to spend money in your work area

3. Analyzing a long-term problem to find a solution

4. Making suggestions to management about ways to improve the working of your section

5. Helping to set goals and targets in your area

6. Designing new procedures for your work area

7. Contacting people outside the company (e.g. suppliers, customers) to discuss problems

8. Presenting information to a group of colleagues

9. Contributing to discussions about the company's strategy

10. Visiting people from other departments to suggest doing things differently

APPENDIX E: Collective Efficacy

Rate your agreement with the below statements using the following scale.

1 = Not at all true 2 = Hardly true   3 = Moderately true   4 = Mostly true 5 = Exactly True

1. Our church organization can always manage to solve difficult problems if we try hard enough.

2. If someone opposes our church, we can still find the means and ways to overcome and achieve our goals.

3. It is easy for our church to stick to our targets and accomplish our goals.

4. I am confident that our church could deal efficiently with unexpected events.

5. Thanks to our church's resourcefulness, we know how to handle unforeseen situations.

6. Our church can solve most problems if we invest the necessary effort.

7. Our church can remain calm when facing difficulties because we know how to handle tough situations.

8. When we are confronted with a problem, we can usually find several solutions.

9. If we all work together, our church has the resources, knowledge, and skills needed to achieve our goals.

10. I have real confidence in our church's ability to perform its mission.

APPENDIX F: Organizational Commitment

Rate your agreement with the below statements using the following scale.

1 = Not at all true 2 = Hardly true   3 = Moderately true   4 = Mostly true 5 = Exactly True

1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization achieve its vision

2. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for

3. I would accept almost any types of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization

4. I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar

5. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization

6. This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance

7. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work over others I was considering at the time I joined

8. I really care about the fate of this organization

9. For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work

APPENDIX G: Job Commitment

Rate your agreement with the below statements using the following scale.

1 = Not at all true 2 = Hardly true   3 = Moderately true   4 = Mostly true 5 = Exactly True

1. I'll stay overtime to finish a job, even if I'm not paid for it.

2. The major satisfaction in my life comes from my job.

3. The most important things that happen to me involve my work.

4. Sometimes I lie awake at night thinking ahead to the next day.

5. I have other activities more important than my work.

6. I live, eat, and breathe my job.

7. To me my work is only a small part of who I am.

8. I am very much involved personally in my work.

9. Most things in life are more important than work.

APPENDIX H: Personal Development

Rate the accuracy of the following statements using the following scale.

1 = Not at all true 2 = Hardly true   3 = Moderately true   4 = Mostly true 5 = Exactly True

1. I am provided with the necessary training in order to perform my job well.

2. My manager provides me with developmental opportunities to learn new skills that will help me perform my job better.

3. My manager is open to allowing me to attend outside training opportunities to enhance my skills.

4. My manager regularly looks for opportunities for me to grow and expand my skills.

APPENDIX I: Consistency of Vision Communication

1. When my immediate supervisor and the executive leader of my organization speak about the organization's vision, there is consistency in what they say about the vision.

2. My immediate supervisor and the executive leader share the same vision for the organization.

3. Our department has a different vision than the collective church organization.

4. When the executive leader talks about the vision for our organization, it is completely different than what my supervisor tells my team about the direction of our organization.

APPENDIX J: Vision Integration

Rate your agreement with the below statements using the following scale

1 = Not at all true 2 = Hardly true   3 = Moderately true   4 = Mostly true 5 = Exactly True

The vision serves as a 'mental guideline' for how to do my job

Knowing the vision affects what I think is important when doing my job

My job is an important piece in our church's ability to fulfill its vision.

When I have to make a tough decision at work, I take into account our organization's vision.

APPENDIX K: Knowledge of Vision

Which of the following is the vision for your church organization? Please select only one. Please

do not do any quick research. Simply answer based on your current knowledge.

A. Vision Version #1

B. Vision Version #2

C. Vision Version #3

D. Vision Version #4

E. None of the above represent our church's vision

APPENDIX L: Subsidiary Top Leader Questions

[The following questions were used to examine the extent to which the subsidiary top leader received personalized communication from his or her manager, supports the vision, and spends time communicating to his or her team about the vision.]

How much input did you have in developing the vision of your organization?

- None

- Minimal

- Moderate

- Substantial

How often do you communicate with your team about the organization's vision?

- Less than once a month

- Once a month

- 2 -3 times a month

- Once a week

- 2-3 times a week

Rate your agreement with the below statements using the following scale

1 = Not at all true 2 = Hardly true   3 = Moderately true   4 = Mostly true 5 = Exactly True

1. The amount of time spent communicating about the vision with those in the department(s) that report to me is adequate

2. Those within the department(s) that report to me know the vision of the organization.

Those within the department(s) that report to me intentionally perform their roles in a way that supports the vision of the organization.

APPENDIX M: Demographic Information

1. Is your position at the church a paid or unpaid position?

    •   Paid

    •   Unpaid

2. What is your title at the church? Please select the title that most closely applies.

3. For which department do you work?

    [Get list of depts. from church prior to distributing survey]

4. Do you work at the main church campus or a satellite location?

    •   The church's main location

    •   Satellite location

5. How long have you been working at this church?

    •   1-5 years

    •   5-10 years

    •   10-15 years

    •   Over 15 years

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ABSTRACT

THE TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP COMMUNICATION OF SOCIALLY CLOSE AND DISTANT LEADERS ON VISION INTEGRATION

by

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Major: Communication (mass communication studies)

Degree: Doctor of Philosophy

Applying the theories of transformational leadership and distributive leadership and drawing from diffusion of innovations, this work posits that transformational leaders are successful in transferring vision and subsequently transforming the organization by enacting their communication both systematically and interpersonally. From a system level perspective, transformational leaders in executive leadership roles direct their communicative attention to the key influencers in the organization. They expend their time and effort on an interpersonal level ensuring these individuals are infused with the vision of the organization, understand it, develop the skills necessary to contribute to its achievement, and are equipped and motivated to transfer the vision to others. Concurrently, transformational leaders inspire the masses using charismatic, persuasive communication strategies. This work employs a survey based study to extrapolate at the individual level the direction, source, content, and outcomes of leaders' vision related communication and the centrality of subsidiary top leaders in the flow of vision related messages through the organization. This work extends the fields of communication and leadership both theoretically and pragmatically. Theoretically, it adds to our understanding of transformational leadership by explicating the area where transformational leadership and charismatic leadership

differ, specifically the use of dyadic relationships with key influencers in the organization. Pragmatically, this work provides specific communication behaviors that leaders employ to bridge the implementation gap between vision construction and organizational adoption.

Autobiographical Statement

Bethany Weaver currently serves as a visiting instructor within the communication studies program at Florida Gulf Coast University (Fort Myers, FL). Bethany is a PhD candidate from Wayne State University (Detroit, MI) studying organizational communication. Bethany earned her MA from John Carroll University in 2008 (Cleveland, OH) in corporate communications management. Prior to transitioning into academia, Bethany managed the corporate communications for the largest, business-to-business media company in the U.S. Upon beginning her doctoral work, she served as a graduate teaching assistant at Wayne State from 2010 to 2013 instructing courses in organizational communication, public speaking, business communication, and research methods. While collecting her dissertation research, Bethany served as a part-time instructor at the University of Tampa, where she taught courses in public relations, organizational communication, and communication ethics. Her research interests center on organizational vision integration and leadership communication. Bethany currently lives in Naples, FL with her husband, Andy and two cats, Purrsy and Gwenny.