


Are Good Citizens Good Transformational Leaders as Well? An Employee-Centric Perspective on Transformational Leadership

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Sophia Marinova¹, Linn Van Dyne²,
and Henry Moon³

Abstract

Research has demonstrated robust positive relationships between transformational leadership and employee attitudes and behaviors. To date, the preponderance of the literature has been leader-centric and focused on individuals who are already in leader roles. In this article, we adopt an employee-centric perspective and focus on behaviors of professionals who are not in formal leader roles. Specifically, we apply evolutionary theory as a theoretical lens for proposing that those who perform organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) will be seen as transformational leaders. We hypothesize linkages between four types of OCBs and four dimensions of transformational leadership. Multi-source field sample results based on more than 1,000 participants provide general support for the predictions. We discuss theoretical and practical implications.

Keywords

evolutionary theory, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), transformational leadership

¹University of Alabama in Huntsville, USA

²Michigan State University, East Lansing, USA

³China Europe International Business School, Shanghai, China

Corresponding Author:

Sophia Marinova, University of Alabama in Huntsville, 323 Business Administration Building (BAB), 301 Sparkman Drive, Huntsville, AL 35899, USA.

Email: sophia.marinova@uah.edu

Transformational leadership studies have highlighted ways in which formal leaders shape employee, group, and organizational effectiveness (Judge & Piccolo, 2004), and numerous studies demonstrate the effects of transformational leaders on employee attitudes and behaviors (Choi, 2009; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990; H. Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005). However, Howell and Shamir (2005), in a review of the leadership literature, concluded that the literature is overly leader-centric. We know little about whether specific employee behaviors can cause others to view them as transformational leaders, while only a handful of studies have examined how employees, who have traditionally been viewed as followers, can also function as and be viewed as leaders (Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007; Taggar, Hackett, & Saha, 1999; D. Wang, Waldman, & Zhang, 2013). Organizations in highly competitive environments increasingly rely on employees to go beyond the technical core of their jobs (Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007; Organ, 1988; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006; Van Dyne, Cummings, & McLean Parks, 1995). The organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) literature reflects the importance of these discretionary efforts of employees that go beyond formal role expectations (Organ et al., 2006). Research, however, has yet to explore how discretionary behaviors of professionals who are not in leadership roles are interpreted by work colleagues. Professional jobs provide an appropriate context for studying emergent leadership because they permit more opportunities for working on complex tasks, and make both displaying OCB and leadership more relevant to the effectiveness of employees and their teams (D. Wang et al., 2013). Thus, we ask the following question: Is a good citizen also a good transformational leader?

Theory Development

Responding to the lack of understanding of employees as leaders, we develop a model that positions employee's OCBs as predictors of the employee's emergence as a transformational leader even when not in a formal leadership role. We aim to make two key contributions with this research. Theoretically, we propose an employee-centric perspective on leadership, in which employees are viewed as transformational leaders because they perform OCBs. By drawing on evolutionary theory (Salamon & Deutsch, 2006; Van Vugt, 2006) and its focus on social coordination and costly signaling as indicators of leadership as well as the concept of self-sacrifice, we offer a new lens for thinking about citizenship and transformational leadership.

From a practical perspective, our theoretical framework and findings should provide diagnostic clues to the behavioral underpinnings of

transformational leadership of professional employees in the workplace. Our research thus enhances our understanding of how organizations can encourage transformational leadership across organizational ranks.

Evolutionary Theory, Self-Sacrifice, and Perceptions of Leadership

Van Vugt, Hogan, and Kaiser (2008) drew on neo-Darwinian evolutionary theory (Burnstein, Crandall, & Kitayama, 1994) to develop the idea that those who go beyond individual self-interest and engage in behaviors that benefit the well-being of the collective will emerge as leaders in the perceptions of others. Unlike earlier evolutionary notions focused on self-interested competition, newer perspectives focus on the importance of altruism and cooperation for group survival. Actions that enhance group survival represent solutions to collective action dilemmas and result in benefits for all members of the group. Therefore, those who perform these beneficial behaviors signal hidden qualities to others, which can result in conferral of higher status (Barrett, Dunbar, & Lycett, 2002; Zahavi & Zahavi, 1997) and perceptions of leadership. Experimental research demonstrates initial support for this perspective, showing positive relationships for prosocial behavior in the form of financial contributions with social status, being chosen as group leader, and being rewarded over time (Hardy & Van Vugt, 2006; Van Vugt & Hardy, 2010). Indeed theory-building research suggests that OCBs can be considered a form of costly signaling in evolutionary terms conveying important information about the employee's capabilities (Salamon & Deutsch, 2006). For example, the literature on impression management and OCBs supports the idea that employees who display good citizenship may gain strategic benefits such as supervisor liking and higher performance evaluations (Allen & Rush, 1998; Bolino, 1999; Bolino, Varela, Bande, & Turnley, 2006).

Perspectives building on the notion of self-sacrifice have been espoused by leadership research as well (Choi & Mai-Dalton, 1998). Individuals who sacrifice their own instrumental interests for their collective emerge as influential role models (Yorges, Weiss, & Strickland, 1999). Because humans interpret the actions of others based on a moral standards code, they recognize individuals who seek to promote the well-being of others and their collectives as moral exemplars (Frimer, Walker, Lee, Riches, & Dunlop, 2012) and worthy of leadership.

Existing empirical research on the topic, however, is often experimental (Hardy & Van Vugt, 2006; Van Vugt & Hardy, 2010) and does not look at a broader range of beneficial behaviors relevant in organizations (Organ et al., 2006). The literature also has yet to incorporate specific leadership behaviors,

such as transformational leadership behaviors, that have been previously confirmed as critical for positive workplace outcomes (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

Thus, we examine the impact of OCBs on leadership through the lens of the evolutionary principles of social coordination and costly signaling. Our research has three key characteristics: (a) an emphasis on application of evolutionary principles in organizational contexts, (b) a broad range of beneficial discretionary behaviors relevant to organizational effectiveness, and (c) a focus on transformational leadership.

Social Coordination, Costly Signaling, and OCBs

In reviewing anthropological evidence about leadership, Lewis (1974) concluded,

In the simplest and smallest societies . . . , there are men who stand out among their fellows, who take the lead in group activity, whose word is considered to be generally more valuable than that of others, who take on extra responsibility, and who sometimes scheme and work quite hard in order to do so, gaining in return the (often fleeting) esteem of their companions. (p. 4)

Providing further insights into the conferral of leadership, Van Vugt's (2006) review of the evolutionary literature concluded that social coordination is one important mechanism leading to leadership emergence. From a social coordination perspective, those who help their groups solve problems come to be viewed as leaders (Buss, 1999; Lewis, 1974; Van Vugt, 2006). Looking more closely at OCBs in an organizational context, Salamon and Deutsch (2006) reasoned that

a cashier who volunteers to coordinate an organization-wide social event may not only demonstrate her good citizenship, but may also reveal competitive capabilities, such as organizational skills, leadership, and creativity that she could not otherwise reveal while performing her in-role. (p. 190)

Applying the notion that engaging in social coordination serves as a costly signal, we posit that those who engage in OCBs emerge as leaders.

We focus specifically on transformational leadership for several reasons. First, transformational leadership has been confirmed as critically important for organizations (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Second, OCBs at their core involve going beyond in-role performance to promote or protect the collective, much like transformational leadership improves work outcomes by promoting or protecting the collective good (Bass, 1990), a notion supported by a recent meta-analysis (G. Wang, Oh, Courtright, &

Colbert, 2011). That is, individuals engaging in OCBs go beyond self-interest and demonstrate high commitment and, as such, should engender attributions of leadership consistent with transforming others.

OCBs

Citizenship behavior is a primary means by which employees add value to their organizational surroundings outside the scope of doing their own assigned work. Due to the beneficial consequences of discretionary behaviors, OCBs have attracted a great deal of research attention (Organ et al., 2006; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000).

Recognizing the value of multi-dimensional frameworks that capture the complexity of OCBs and the many ways in which employees can display good citizenship in the workplace, we adopt a recently validated theoretical framework (Marinova, Moon, & Van Dyne, 2010; Moon, Van Dyne, & Wrobel, 2005) that distinguishes differences in OCBs based on the target of the behavior—organizational or interpersonal—and the focus of the behavior—promotive or protective.

Organizational OCBs aim to benefit the organization, whereas interpersonal OCBs aim to benefit specific individuals in the organization. Promotive OCBs go beyond existing procedures and aim to improve organizational and interpersonal functioning, whereas protective OCBs aim to improve effectiveness by protecting the status quo. The four types of OCBs that emerge from this framework include four key behaviors. First, helping behavior is interpersonal and promotive, and consists of active efforts to cooperate and help others in the workplace. Taking charge is organizational and promotive, and consists of proactive initiative focused on organizational improvement. Compliance is organizational and protective, and is exemplified by obedience and rule-following. Finally, sportsmanship is interpersonal and protective, and consists of protective interpersonal gestures aimed at maintaining a positive social environment. Figure 1 shows the four types of OCB.

We chose this framework because it builds on previous research to assess a wide, representative array of OCBs in theoretically meaningful ways and because it has been empirically supported (Marinova et al., 2010). For instance, it includes those behaviors that maintain stability as well as promote adaptability (protective vs. promotive focus), closely matching notions of effectiveness in organizations (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). It also includes the focal beneficiary as individuals or the organization consistent with meta-analytic research on OCBs (Chiaburu, Oh, Berry, Li, & Gardner, 2011) and a recent integrative review of OCBs (Spitzmuller, Van Dyne, & Ilies, 2008) both supporting this distinction.

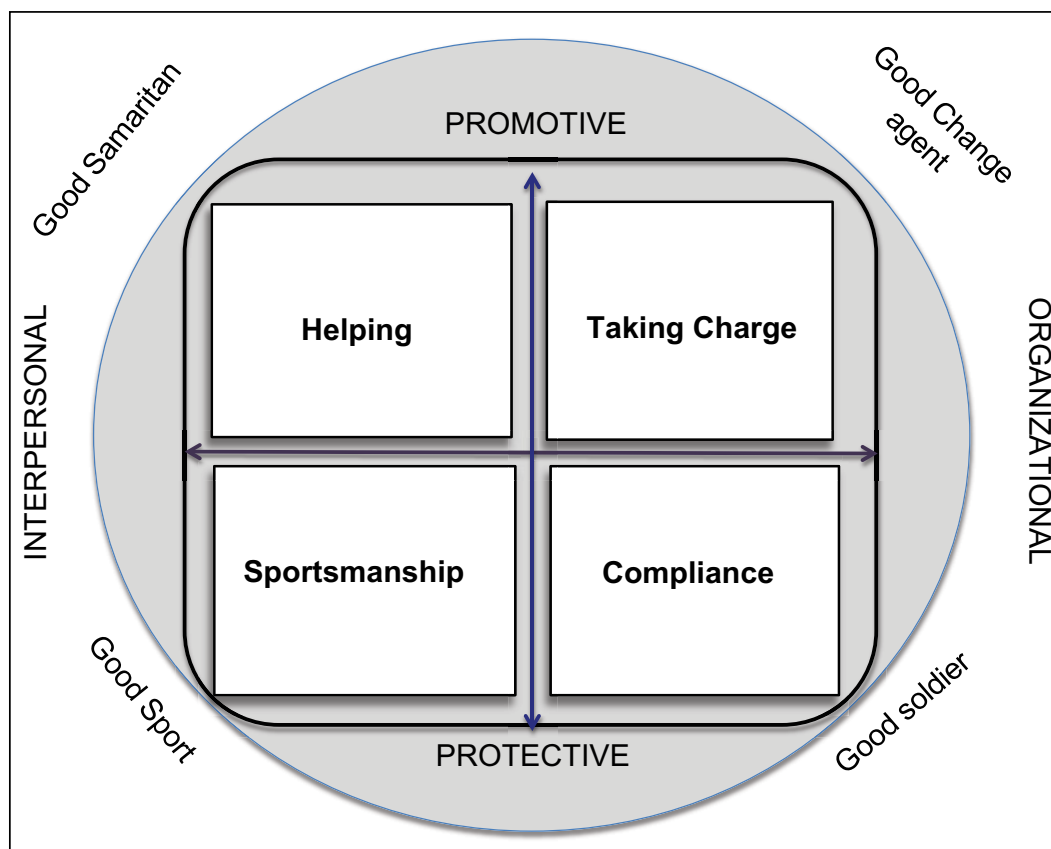


Figure 1. A theoretical framework of OCBs.

Source. Based on Marinova, Moon, and Van Dyne (2010, p. 1467).

Note. The interpersonal–organizational axis describes the most immediate beneficiary of the OCB as the organization or other individuals. The protective–promotive axis describes the extent to which an OCB targets effectiveness through protecting stability (protective) or through promoting adaptability (promotive). OCB = organizational citizenship behavior.

Transformational Leadership

Although there is a large and increasing amount of research on transformational leadership, there is no precise consensus on the dimensions or operationalization of the construct. In an integrative examination of transformational leadership research, Podsakoff et al. (1990) showed better fit of a multi-dimensional model compared with a one-factor model, while a recent comprehensive review of transformational leadership called for research on the unique dimensions of transformational leadership, making the analogy of going back to “the drawing board” (Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013).

Drawing on the richness of the transformational leader literature (Avolio & Bass, 1988; Bass, 1990; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; House, 1977), Podsakoff et al. (1990) identified six key leader behaviors that transformational leaders may exhibit: (a) Intellectual stimulation challenges others to

re-examine and re-think past assumptions, (b) role modeling sets an appropriate example of valued behaviors for others and is consistent with being a source of idealized influence, (c) interpersonal consideration demonstrates individual respect for others and a recognition of and respect for their personal needs, (d) fostering acceptance of group goals inspires others to share responsibility and engage in teamwork, (e) high performance expectations sets high task performance standards, and (f) vision articulation creates a new vision and inspires others to share that vision for the organization.

Given our goal of using an employee-centric approach, we identified four of these types of transformational leadership—intellectual stimulation, role modeling, interpersonal consideration, and fostering acceptance of group goals—as most relevant to professional employees. Consistent with the recent theoretical emphasis on the value of multi-dimensional constructs, we focus on the lower order dimensions of transformational leadership and OCBs.

Hypothesis Development

As we detail further in our hypothesis development, each of the four types of OCBs can be viewed as a mechanism for improved social coordination. Moreover, consistent with our evolutionary psychology perspective, each form of OCB can be construed as entailing some cost to the employee performing it (Salamon & Deutsch, 2006). Each OCB serves as a costly signal of the underlying capabilities of employees. For example, demonstrating compliance carries the cost of showing exemplary consistency in following norms. Being a good sport requires the extra energy and commitment to smooth out differences and pacify group conflicts. Helping others shows good Samaritan spirit and requires individuals to commit time to others potentially jeopardizing their immediate task performance (Bergeron, Schipp, Rosen, & Furst, 2013). Finally, taking charge and serving as a good change agent may have direct benefits to the organization via improved work processes, but it takes effort and courage to learn and develop new ideas. We summarize our rationale for considering each OCB as a costly signal in Table 1.

Promotive OCB and transformational leadership. We start by considering the two promotive OCBs (taking charge OCB and helping OCB) and transformational leadership. Marinova et al., 2010 proposed that promotive OCBs foster organizational adaptation and flexibility and are particularly relevant to organizational objectives. At face value, this notion implies that promotive OCBs such as taking charge confer reputational benefits.

Taking charge is costly because it entails investing time and effort to suggest improved ways of working that can benefit the collective. For instance,

Table 1. OCBs as Costly Signals.

Type of OCB	Beneficiary/ focus	Definition/ sample item	Why it is a costly signal
Taking charge	Organizational/ Promotive	Displays good change agent behaviors by trying out and adopting new ideas for work improvement. “Tries to adopt improved procedures for the work unit or department”	The employee signals his or her willingness and capability to invest time in learning and applying new methods to improve organizational effectiveness.
Helping	Interpersonal/ Promotive	Shows good Samaritan spirit, always willing to help others at work. “Is always ready to help those around him/her”	The employee signals his/her willingness and ability to promote improved effectiveness by sacrificing his or her own time and effort for helping others.
Compliance	Organizational/ Protective	Demonstrates good soldier behavior such as exemplary punctuality, persistence, and adherence to formal and informal rules. “Rarely misses work even when there is a legitimate reason to do so”	The employee signals exceptional reliability and readiness to sacrifice some of his or her own personal comfort for the sake of organizational stability.
Sportsmanship	Interpersonal/ Protective	Shows good sportsmanship by acting as a stabilizing, positive influence in the workplace. “Is a stabilizing influence when others in the organization have disagreements”	The employee signals his or her willingness to put up with minor irritations and to protect the interpersonal environment by serving as a peacemaker and a good sport even in the face of disagreements.

Note. OCB = organizational citizenship behavior.

those who take the initiative and propose new methods signal mastery of their environment and provide solutions to collective problems (Lewis, 1974), thus, demonstrating their leadership (Van Vugt & Hardy, 2010).

An important aspect of transformational leadership is causing others to think about problems in new ways (Eisenbeiss, van Knippenberg, & Boerner, 2008). When employees make constructive suggestions about work and work

processes, these taking charge behaviors should cause others to view them as providing intellectual stimulation because taking charge OCB includes enthusiastic communication of change-oriented ideas aimed at benefiting the collective. When employees speak up with proactive suggestions for changes in procedures, services, and products (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), others should see them as high in intellectual stimulation.

However, taking charge may not necessarily have a positive relationship with all aspects of transformational leadership. Taking charge can challenge the status quo (Morrison & Phelps, 1999) and may be viewed as interpersonally disruptive. Proposing changes can be perceived as “rocking the boat” by those who must manage existing processes (Chiaburu, Marinova, & Van Dyne, 2008; Detert & Burris, 2007). Change is often difficult and can be interpersonally upsetting (Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009; Sirkin, Keenan, & Jackson, 2005). Thus, those who engage in change-oriented behaviors (Chiaburu, Lorinkova, & Van Dyne, 2013) such as taking charge, personal initiative, and voice may be perceived as lacking in interpersonal consideration (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Frese & Fay, 2001; LePine & Van Dyne, 1998).

A recent empirical study demonstrates the costs of voice when supervisors fail to perceive it as constructively intended (Burris, 2012). Thus, in spite of its benefits, in some cases, taking charge can be damaging to interpersonal relationships. Accordingly, we predict,

Hypothesis 1: Taking charge OCB will be (a) positively associated with intellectual stimulation and (b) negatively associated with interpersonal consideration.

Turning to interpersonal–promotive OCB, we propose that helping behavior will predict both role modeling and interpersonal consideration. Helping OCB aims to promote the functioning of the organization via interpersonal processes rather than organizational mechanisms. When employees assist others with their work, they are being attentive to the interpersonal needs of others while also promoting social coordination in the workplace. Lewis (1974) draws on accounts of evolutionary anthropology and describes leaders who are especially skilled at responding to requests of others for time and services that benefit the group. For instance, helping others has been linked to perceived generosity and subsequent social status (Flynn, Reagans, Amanatullah, & Ames, 2006). Providing work-related advice and support to others signals competence as well and leadership capabilities (Blau, 1964). Helping demonstrates the willingness of an employee to sacrifice some of his or her own time to promote the well-being of others, providing a costly signal of capabilities.

Helping behavior reinforces relationships and generally triggers positive reactions from others (Berkowitz, 1972). Ensuring cooperation is a leader behavior that is critically important to organizations (Barnard, 1938). Hence, engaging in cooperative behavior such as helping should be positively related to being viewed as a role model for others to follow. Thus, helping behavior should increase perceptions of role modeling transformational leadership.

We also propose a positive relationship between helping and the interpersonal consideration dimension of transformational leadership. Helping shows cooperative spirit and reinforces social relationships in ways that reduce collective action problems. Assisting others and being supportive are especially important for professionals who work increasingly in interdependent team settings (Parker, 2000). Thus, we hypothesize,

Hypothesis 2: Helping OCB will be positively associated with (a) role modeling and (b) interpersonal consideration.

Protective OCB and transformational leadership. We now consider the two protective OCBs: compliance and sportsmanship. Protective discretionary acts signal leadership qualities that are important for maintaining order and protecting the collective. Evolutionary theory emphasizes maintaining order and stability as a vital part of the leadership process that enables social coordination (King, Johnson, & Van Vugt, 2009). For example, anthropological descriptions of tribal life emphasize the role of leaders in pacifying feuding tribal members and upholding norms to maintain the group's social structure. Organizations as goal-directed social systems also depend on stability for effective and efficient task performance (Katz, 1964). Traditionally, scholars of transformational leadership have drawn inspiration from the emphasis on changing the status quo. However, examining transformational leadership more closely reveals a less articulated but, nevertheless, indispensable aspect of transformational leadership—specifically, advancing organizational goals by protecting the cohesion of the collective.

We first focus on the protective OCB of compliance. Compliance focuses on benefiting the organization. It includes following organizational rules and guidelines with extreme care and conscientiousness. Compliance demonstrates a high level of discipline and commitment to organizational norms in ways that advance organizational stability.

When employees protect the status quo by upholding formal and informal organizational procedures, they demonstrate their loyalty and support of the collective. Such employees also demonstrate their willingness to sacrifice some of their own comfort and flexibility for the sake of their collective.

Compliance reinforces and enhances group survival. Therefore, we propose that compliance will lead to emerging as a commendable role model.

At the same time, following rules with great care may be at odds with leadership that motivates others to challenge the status quo as captured by intellectual stimulation. Intellectual stimulation involves the leadership behavior of transforming others to question existing procedures and consider developing new approaches to work. In our hypothesis development, we proposed a relationship between the good change agent type of OCB such as taking charge or exercising voice (Li, Chiaburu, Kirkman, & Xie, 2013) and intellectual stimulation. In contrast, compliance and related types of citizenship are more consistent with the good soldier syndrome. These examples of OCB describe exemplary punctuality and extraordinary allegiance to formal and informal norms. A compliant employee may, therefore, hesitate to question the status quo, which is a necessary condition for emerging as an intellectually stimulating leader.

Hypothesis 3: Compliance OCB will be (a) positively associated with role modeling and (b) negatively associated with intellectual stimulation.

Sportsmanship and related types of OCB such as courtesy (Organ et al., 2006) are also protective in nature but are interpersonally oriented because they emphasize protecting cohesive relationships. Not only has peacemaking been noted as an evolutionary mechanism enabling social coordination (Van Vugt et al., 2008), but a similar argument has emerged from organizational theory research, as well. Organizations are natural systems prone to conflict. For instance, Scott and Davis (2006) described organizations as “collectivities whose participants are pursuing multiple interests, both disparate and common, but who recognize the value of perpetuating the organization as an important resource” (p. 30). This conceptualization of organizations emphasizes two critical elements of organizational life: the role of building social consensus for rallying together multiple interests and the often concomitant emergence of social conflict. Therefore, individuals who demonstrate sportsmanship by seeking to smooth conflicts are improving the collective good.

People who are inclusive and support the collective, put up with minor irritations, and seek peaceful resolution to problems should be viewed as leaders because their actions reduce collective action problems. Professional employees who demonstrate patience and flexibility in turbulent environments (sportsmanship OCB) and tolerate less than perfect circumstances encourage shared responsibility and should transform the collective by fostering goal acceptance. In addition, someone who is patient and reduces differences among others should be viewed as high in interpersonal consideration. Accordingly, we

predict positive relationships between sportsmanship OCB and being viewed as a transformational leader who fosters goal acceptance and is interpersonally considerate.

Hypothesis 4: Sportsmanship OCB will be positively associated with (a) fostering goal acceptance and (b) interpersonal consideration.

Method

Sample, Procedure, and Measures

We tested the hypotheses with multi-source field data from employees, their peers, and their supervisor. As a developmental class assignment, 255 full-time employees employed in a wide variety of jobs (e.g., engineer, economist, analyst, researcher, new product development specialist, consultant) taking a part-time on-site evening MBA class distributed five sets of envelopes (four to coworkers and one to their supervisor) or completed an equivalent project for research credit as an alternative assignment. However, only a small percentage of students (2%) chose the alternative research assignment because most students valued the developmental feedback. All of the focal respondents were employed in professional jobs requiring education and specialized skills. Respondents returned consent forms and surveys directly to the researchers. We obtained 792 peer responses for 255 focal employees for a 75% coworker response rate. We obtained 209 matching supervisor responses (81% supervisor response rate). The focal employees sample consisted of 74% male respondents, who on average had close to 7 years of general work experience ($M = 6.5$ years, $SD = 3.7$ years) and an average of 2.7 years ($SD = 2.4$ years) of work experience in their current job position.

Multiple peers assessed focal OCBs because they work in close proximity, should be knowledgeable of focal employee work behaviors, and are often the beneficiaries of OCB. In addition, the peer perspective is especially appropriate because our employee-centric approach focuses on peer perceptions. We obtained four peer ratings for 103 focal employees; three ratings for 53; two ratings for 33, and one rating for 20 employees. Given that we wanted multiple peer perspectives on OCBs, we dropped the 20 employees who were rated by only 1 coworker. We used supervisor assessments of employee transformational leadership because supervisors are in the best position to recognize and rate leadership behaviors. They occupy positions in the hierarchy that require them to be observant of their subordinate's leadership potential and are less likely to provide inflated ratings. We obtained demographic and

control variable information from focal employees. We analyzed the proposed relationships based on matched responses for 189 focal employees, with 637 coworker ratings (average of 3.37 ratings per focal employee) and 189 supervisor ratings.

OCBs. Coworkers assessed citizenship behaviors with 17 items from prior research, which were validated as a multi-dimensional OCB measure (Marinova et al., 2010). Sample items include “Tries to institute new work methods that are more effective for this company” (taking charge; 5 items); “Is always ready to help those around him/her” (helping; 5 items); “Conscientiously follows company rules and procedures” (compliance; 5 items); and “Acts as a peacemaker when others have disagreements” (sportsmanship; 2 items). Estimated reliabilities were high (.89-.94). Given that multiple peers rated each employee ($M = 3.27$), we assessed peer agreement (James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984) before conducting further analyses. The average r_{wg} values for helping OCB, taking charge OCB, compliance OCB, and sportsmanship OCB indicated high agreement across multiple raters (.91, .89, .86, and .78, respectively). We also calculated intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) values (Bliese, 2000). The ICC(1) values ranged between .14 and .15 (above the recommended value of .12), and all F tests were significant ($p < .01$). ICC(2) values ranged between .35 and .40. The rule-of-thumb on ICC(2) values indicates that higher values ($>.60$) are desirable for team level phenomena. However, because we aggregated different ratings of the same employee, some variation in ICC(2) values may reflect true variance. Thus, our theory and results support aggregation.

Transformational leadership behaviors. Supervisors assessed transformational leadership with 15 items from Podsakoff et al.’s (1990) established scale. Sample items include “Challenges others to think about old problems in new ways” (4 items for intellectual stimulation: $\alpha = .85$); “Leads by ‘doing’ rather than simply by telling” (3 items for role modeling: $\alpha = .90$); “Behaves in a manner thoughtful of the personal needs of others” (4 items for interpersonal consideration: $\alpha = .77$); and “Gets the group to work together for the same goal” (4 items for fostering goal acceptance: $\alpha = .89$).

Control variables. To account for the possibility that the relationships between OCBs and transformational leadership are influenced by dispositional characteristics, we controlled for the Big Five traits in the structural model. Focal employees completed the Costa and McCrae (1992) 60-item measure. In addition, we controlled for the relational tenure between supervisors and employees ($M = 2.66$ years, $SD = 2.56$ years).

Results

Means, standard deviations, and correlations are presented in Table 2. Estimated scale reliabilities (Cronbach's α s) are shown on the diagonal. We used structural equation modeling (SEM) to test the hypotheses because we expected that constructs would be interrelated. SEM accounts for intercorrelations and improves estimates while allowing the simultaneous testing of relationships (Kline, 2005).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

We started with CFA of our measurement model. All values showed good fit ($\chi^2 = 850.35$, 436 *df*; comparative fit index [CFI] = .91, incremental fit index [IFI] = .91, standardized root mean square residual [SRMR] = .05, root mean square error of approximation [RMSEA] = .07; Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Comparison of this eight-factor model with a model in which all transformational leadership dimensions were constrained onto one factor (alternative model $\chi^2 = 1,357.66$, 455 *df*; CFI = .80, IFI = .80, SRMR = .09, RMSEA = .10) demonstrated the superiority of the hypothesized model (χ^2 difference = 507.31, $p < .001$). In addition, the eight-factor model was superior to a model in which all OCBs were specified to load onto one factor (alternative model $\chi^2 = 2,076.60$, 454 *df*; CFI = .64, IFI = .64, SRMR = .12, RMSEA = .14; χ^2 difference = 1,226.25, $p < .001$). The hypothesized model also had better fit than various seven-factor models that collapsed two leadership dimensions. None of the alternative, more parsimonious models fit the data well, and all chi-square differences were significant, with large increases in chi-square of 142.92 to 228.9 (6 *df*, $p < .001$) compared with the hypothesized eight-factor model. Finally, we also tested a measurement model in which all four dimensions of transformational leadership were constrained onto a second-order factor. The fit of this model was acceptable (model $\chi^2 = 901.24$, CFI = .90, IFI = .90, SRMR = .07, RMSEA = .07 based on 450 degrees of freedom).¹ Given our conceptual interest in the unique dimensions of transformational leadership, we maintained the eight-factor model.

Structural Model

Next, we tested the structural model where we controlled for potential third variable mechanisms.² We then modeled the hypothesized paths between independent and dependent variables. We allowed the disturbance terms of the transformational leadership dimensions to covary because of possible

Table 2. Intercorrelations and Descriptive Statistics of Variables.

Variable name	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Relational tenure	2.66	2.56	—													
2. Neuroticism ^a	3.11	0.88	.07	(.80)												
3. Extraversion ^a	4.94	0.71	-.04	-.31**	(.73)											
4. Openness ^a	4.90	0.74	.05	-.03	.15*	(.65)										
5. Agreeableness ^a	4.97	0.78	.10	-.11	.13	.06	(.77)									
6. Conscientiousness ^a	5.43	0.74	-.02	-.35**	.29**	.01	.10	(.79)								
7. Taking charge ^b	5.56	0.61	.10	-.07	.11	.00	.12	.03	(.92)							
8. Helping ^b	5.76	0.67	-.07	.08	.09	.01	.17*	.02	.37**	(.94)						
9. Compliance ^b	5.79	0.69	.00	.05	.05	.03	.18*	.05	.32**	.54**	(.91)					
10. Sportsmanship ^b	4.98	0.75	.01	-.09	.12	.02	.14	.14*	.35**	.55**	.31**	(.89)				
11. Int. Stimulation ^c	5.35	0.90	.11	-.08	-.13	.08	.06	-.07	.23**	.00	.07	-.02	(.85)			
12. Consideration ^c	5.07	1.00	.10	-.12	.11	.09	.09	.08	-.08	.06	.19**	.07	.09	(.77)		
13. Role Modeling ^c	6.00	0.90	.08	-.16*	.09	.05	.22**	.11	.19**	.17*	.29**	.09	.54**	.29**	(.90)	
14. Goal Acceptance ^c	5.69	0.84	.08	-.17*	.04	.04	.11	.07	.14*	.01	.19*	.14*	.49**	.35**	.70**	(.89)

Note. N = 189. Estimated reliabilities appear on the diagonal. OCB = organizational citizenship behavior.

^aFocal employee rating of personality.

^bCoworker-rated OCBs.

^cSupervisor-rated transformational leadership.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

covariation between dimensions of transformational leadership due to reasons not captured in our model (Kline, 2005). The fit of the resulting model was good ($\chi^2 = 1,185.66$, 661 *df*; CFI = .93, IFI = .93, SRMR = .08, RMSEA = .06).

Hypothesis 1a, which predicted that taking charge OCB would be positively associated with the intellectual stimulation dimension of transformational leadership, was supported ($\beta = .22$, $p < .01$). Results also supported Hypothesis 1b, which predicted a negative relationship between taking charge and interpersonal consideration ($\beta = -.26$, $p < .01$). Hypothesis 2a, which predicted a positive relationship between helping OCB and the role modeling dimension of transformational leadership, was supported ($\beta = .16$, $p < .05$). The relationship posited in Hypothesis 2b, which predicted a positive link between helping OCB and interpersonal consideration was in the predicted direction and significant ($\beta = .21$, $p < .01$). Supporting Hypothesis 3a, results demonstrate a significant relationship between compliance and role modeling ($\beta = .14$, $p < .05$). Compliance was not significantly related to intellectual stimulation, failing to support Hypothesis 3b ($\beta = -.02$, *ns*). In support of Hypothesis 4a, results show a significant relationship between sportsmanship OCB and fostering goal acceptance ($\beta = .22$, $p < .01$), whereas sportsmanship was unrelated to interpersonal consideration, suggesting no support for Hypothesis 4b ($\beta = .03$, *ns*). Results of the structural model are reported in Figure 2. Given the two non-significant relationships, we also compared the theoretical model with a model in which the two insignificant relationships were dropped. The fit of this model was equally good ($\chi^2 = 1,185.87$; CFI, IFI = .93; SRMR = .08; RMSEA = .06, 663 degrees of freedom), with a non-significant chi-square difference of .212 (not significant at 2 degrees of freedom).

Discussion

We advanced a model linking OCBs with transformational leadership. Unlike past research, which typically takes a leader-centric perspective and focuses on transformational leadership as a predictor of employee attitudes and behaviors, we took a different approach by focusing on how employee's discretionary behavior contributes to transformational leadership.

Theoretical Implications

Drawing on the evolutionary perspective and on leadership theories highlighting self-sacrifice, we suggest that our most important theoretical contribution is the idea that transformational leaders can emerge from the

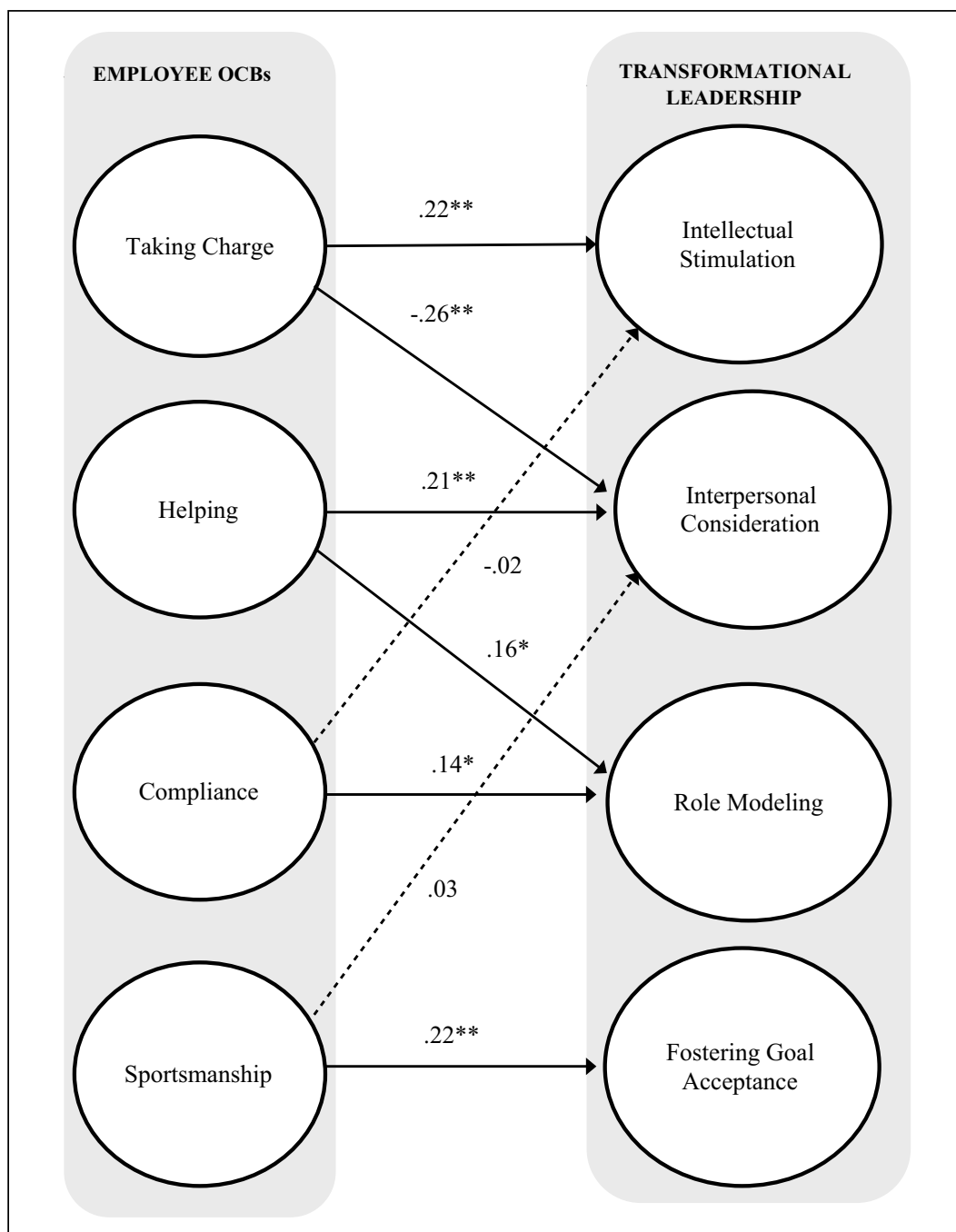


Figure 2. Structural equation modeling results for the proposed theoretical model.

Note. The model in Figure 2 reflects the hypothesized model results after controlling for the Big Five and for relational tenure. Model $\chi^2 = 1,185.66$, 661 *df*; CFI = .93, IFI = .93, SRMR = .08, RMSEA = .06. Structural path estimates are the standardized parameter estimates. Non-significant relationships are represented with a dotted line. CFI = comparative fit index; IFI = incremental fit index; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

bottom-up, such as when employees exhibit citizenship behavior. A second theoretical contribution is our focus on unique relationships between specific types of OCB and specific dimensions of transformational leadership. Results supported most of our predictions and demonstrate the importance of more fine-grained models and theorizing that consider specific relations between lower-order dimensions of OCB and transformational leadership. Our study adds to a growing consensus that transformational leadership is multi-faceted (Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013; X. Wang & Howell, 2010), reinforces theoretical differences in dimensions of transformational leadership, and highlights the value of going beyond models that focus on overall transformational leadership.

From a theoretical perspective, our findings highlight the need to acknowledge ways in which different OCBs are both distinct and convergent. Overall, the findings reinforce early observations of two renowned scholars. First, Barnard (1938) proffered the importance of ensuring cooperative behaviors for effective leadership. A few decades later, Katz (1964) expanded on this notion and emphasized promotive and protective behaviors because adaptation and stability are both essential for ensuring organizational effectiveness and survival. Consistent with Katz's perspective, our results show the conceptual value of considering the multidimensionality of OCB and transformational leadership and the risks of overly simplified models that focus only on overall or aggregated constructs.

A final theoretical implication is that the leader emergence literature may benefit from taking a closer look at different types of OCB as predictors of leadership in groups. Previous experimental research highlights the benefits of altruism, defined as costly financial contributions, for being seen as a preferred partner (Van Vugt & Hardy, 2010) and for gaining status in a group (Hardy & Van Vugt, 2006). Going beyond past research, this article suggests that a variety of employee OCBs may trigger unique leadership perceptions in the workplace.

Practical Implications

The findings have practical implications for organizations. Demonstrating that types of OCB are systematically and differentially related to specific transformational leader behaviors suggests a variety of actions that employees can take to improve the way others view their leadership. For example, employees who want to be viewed as intellectually stimulating transformational leaders should emphasize taking charge OCB. By contrast, given that taking charge is negatively related to interpersonal consideration, employees need to consider the trade-offs in their particular context. In addition, performing help and

compliance should be especially beneficial for those who want to be seen as positive role models. Although the transformational leadership literature initially moved toward integration of subdimensions of transformational leadership into an aggregated construct, we add to a growing literature that emphasizes the value of more fine-grained models, which consider fundamental underlying differences in types of transformational leadership (Wu, Tsui, & Kinicki, 2010). In fostering future leaders, organizations may need to recognize the many faces of transformational leaders.

The multidimensional conceptualization of OCB and the unique relationships with different types of transformational leadership suggest different roots for different types of transformational leadership. In an applied sense, organizations can use this information to design transformational leadership training. For instance, they can highlight the benefits of showing initiative and providing innovative suggestions for improvement when they need leaders who engage in intellectual stimulation. By comparison, they can reinforce the value of careful compliance and attention to policies and procedures when they need role models for others to emulate. Finally, when organizations wish to enhance goal acceptance, they can emphasize sportsmanship and rally employees around collective goals in training programs.

Limitations

As with most field research, we used a cross-sectional design and this approach prevents definitive conclusions about causality. We controlled for relational dyadic tenure and the Big Five to strengthen the conclusions and rule out alternative explanations. However, it is possible that other unmeasured variables also influence some of the relationships. At the same time, we have drawn on evolutionary psychology to develop theoretical arguments for why good citizens—employees who perform OCB—will use OCB as a resource to be exchanged (Bugental, 2000) and will be viewed as transformational leaders, rather than the reverse causal order.

We also note that we did not examine outcomes of employee transformational leadership. However, based on recent meta-analytic work demonstrating a positive effect of team level shared leadership on team level outcomes (D. Wang et al., 2013), we expect that employee transformational leadership would have both individual and workgroup performance benefits.

Future Research

We note that other theoretical perspectives are also relevant to the implications of OCBs for observer attributions of leadership. For instance, theory

highlights similarities between impression management and OCBs (e.g., Bolino, 1999). It is possible that OCBs that are driven by impression management motives are not viewed positively by observers. A more nuanced approach, however, suggests that it is also plausible that employees who perform OCBs based on affiliative motives as well as impression-management motives may be viewed as especially effective because they act in ways that focus on the collective good while also enhancing their own reputation (Grant & Mayer, 2009; Grant et al., 2009).

We note that the agency–communion perspective offers an interesting avenue for research (Ghaed & Gallo, 2006). For example, agency and communion have been recognized as important motives of human behavior in general and of leadership in particular. Agency entails a concern with gaining status and expressing oneself as an individual, whereas communion is characterized as striving to be part of a collective and benefiting the collective (Bakan, 1966). Both motives have been implicated in personality (Zuroff, Fournier, Patall, & Leybman, 2010), moral development and moral exemplars (Frimer, Walker, Dunlop, Lee, & Riches, 2011), and leadership and followership (Marinova, Moon, & Kamdar, 2013; Van Vugt, 2006).

We acknowledge the need for future research that considers the extent to which the findings of this study, which focused on professionals, generalize to those in formal leader positions. We also note that we focused on specific examples of OCB in each of the four quadrants in Figure 1 as a starting point for contrasting different types of OCB and relationships with different transformational leader behaviors. We recognize that there are other examples of OCB that would fit into each of the four quadrants. For example, recent research has identified important communalities across different proactive citizenship behaviors, such as taking charge, creativity, and voice (Chiaburu et al., 2013; Grant, Gino, & Hofmann, 2011; Parker & Collins, 2010). Thus, we recommend future research that includes other OCBs that fit into the four categories and expands on our framework.

We also recommend research on contingencies and on multiple performance outcomes. Factors such as organizational culture can alter the strength of relationship between various OCBs and leadership emergence. For instance, organizations with highly political cultures where in-group versus out-group biases and favoritism prevail may resist or discount OCBs of out-group members, reducing any relationships with transformational leadership. The reward systems may also serve as a moderator. For example, in outcome-based systems, which emphasize objective individual results, OCBs may contribute to supervisor ratings of leadership, but detract from objective career outcomes (e.g., salary increases or promotions; Bergeron et al., 2013).

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Notes

1. We thank an anonymous reviewer for asking us to clarify our measurement approach.
2. The control variables analysis indicates that relational tenure is not significantly related to the outcomes. Neuroticism was negatively related to intellectual stimulation ($\beta = -.26, p < .05$), role modeling ($\beta = -.22, p < .05$), and fostering goal acceptance ($\beta = -.25, p < .05$). Openness was positively related to intellectual stimulation ($\beta = .21, p < .05$). Extraversion was negatively related to intellectual stimulation ($\beta = -.36, p < .05$). Finally, agreeableness was positively related to role modeling ($\beta = .19, p < .05$).

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Author Biographies

Sophia Marinova is an Associate Professor of Management in the College of Business Administration at the University of Alabama in Huntsville (PhD, University of Maryland). She conducts research in several areas, including organizational citizenship behaviors, leadership, international management and the interplay of multilevel processes in organizations. Her work has been published in *Organization Science*, *Personnel Psychology*, *Human Relations*, *Human Resource Management Review*, and other outlets.

Linn Van Dyne, Professor, Michigan State University (PhD University of Minnesota), has two major research streams: proactive employee behaviors and cultural intelligence. She is Associate Editor for *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, a Fellow in the Society of Organizational Behavior, and serves on the editorial boards of *Academy of Management Journal*, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *Human Relations*, *Management and Organization Review*, and *Organizational Psychology Review*. Her work has been published in *Academy of Management Journal*, *Academy of Management Review*, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *Group and Organization Management*, *Research in Organizational Behavior*, and other outlets.

Henry Moon, Professor, China Europe International Business School (PhD, Michigan State University), has several research streams including decision-making, teams, organizational citizenship behaviors, and personality. His research is published in *Organization Science*, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, and *Academy of Management Journal* and other leading outlets.