TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP, FOLLOWER ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOURS AND THE INFLUENCE OF FOLLOWER PERSONALITY

Lisa Marie Jankowski

B. Bus (International Business)
Grad Cert. Bus (HRM)

M. Bus (HRM)

Keywords

Abstract

Employee organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs: discretionary behaviours that benefit the organisation) aimed at individuals (OCBIs) and the organisation (OCBOs) have been linked to a variety of favourable performance outcomes in organisations. As such, it is important to understand how they operate in today's competitive environment. Research has revealed that leaders can strongly influence employee OCBs. In this context, leadership research has largely revolved around the qualities of an effective leader and the skills required. Other studies have focused on follower personality and the traits of a good employee and what personalities are more prone to engage in OCBs. Very little research has looked at how follower personality moderates the leadership-follower OCB relationship, specifically transformational leadership (TL). A quantitative approach was used to answer the research question, "*Does follower personality moderate the positive relationship between Transformational Leadership and organisational citizenship behaviours?*". The data were obtained anonymously using an on-line platform and the survey used pre-existing validated scales for TL, the five-factor model for personality, and organisational citizenship behaviour. Results indicated that those with higher neuroticism greatly benefited from transformational leaders, displaying higher levels of OCBIs. Additionally, OCBOs of those high in neuroticism were higher when the leader was perceived as charismatic, a factor of TL. The findings also showed that conscientious followers are more influenced towards OCBI when the leader was charismatic. Additionally, low levels of follower agreeableness and high perceived leader intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration showed increased levels of OCBI. Theoretically, the results advance understanding of the nature of TL in the context of follower personality and OCB. Practically, the results may help organisations with recruitment, retention and structuring leaders with followers to achieve the maximum benefit for the organisation.

Table of Contents

Table of Contents

List of Figures

List of Tables

List of Abbreviations

CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
FFM	Five-Factor Personality Model
Mini-IPIP	A short form measurement scale for the Five-Factor Personality Model adapted from Donnellan, Oswald, Baird, and Lucas (2006)
MLQ	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire for Transformational Leadership as per Bass and Avolio (1992)
MLQ5X	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire for Transformational Leadership short form adapted from Bass and Avolio (1997)
NEO-IPIP	A measurement scale for the Five-Factor Personality Model as per Goldberg (1990)
OCB	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
OCBI	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour – Individual as per Williams and Anderson (1991)
OCBO	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour – Organisational as per Williams and Anderson (1991)
TL	Transformational Leadership
TLs	Transformational Leaders

Statement of Original Authorship

The work contained in this thesis has not been previously submitted to meet requirements for an award at this or any other higher education institution. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made.

Signature: QUT Verified Signature

Date: 28 . 11 . 19

Acknowledgements

"Why, sometimes I've believed as many as six impossible things before breakfast."
— Lewis Carroll, Alice in Wonderland.

Firstly, I like to thank, well thank probably isn't enough, Professor Cameron Newton for all his leadership, mentoring, coaching and guidance on this journey. I am immeasurably grateful for your expertise, your time, your friendship and mostly the use of your cerebellum and your frontal lobe which is genius. I am currently researching a way to bottle it so don't be weird when I swab you for DNA! Seriously, I would have fallen in a heap of tangents without you and I am so grateful that Dennis O'Connell thought that we would be a good match. He is a wise man. I hope he is one of the three people who reads this. You have steered me on track and guided me through hurdles. I do apologise for leading you down the "not often ventured" path of neuroticism.

I'd also like to acknowledge and thank your partner, as I know that I have inadvertently redirected time and energy away from your marriage and children and time is a luxury that cannot be replaced. I am sincerely grateful of your partner's understanding and I hope your children don't hold a grudge against me when they are older!

I'd also like to thank Dr Tim Donnett who has also assisted my journey and made me view theories from different angles and look at the bigger picture. It has helped me understand the full gravitas of the components surrounding leadership and this thesis would not be at this juxtaposition without you. I miss our coffee and philosophy catch-ups.

To my husband, Scott Logan, I am forever grateful for your support on this journey and acceptance that this is my calling even when it means sacrificing so, so many things. I am especially grateful for your acceptance and being the best version of yourself especially towards the end of this journey. I could not have completed this if it were not for your self-sacrificing and picking up the duties that I would have

normally undertaken. Not only did you do it without complaint, you also made me feel like everything was under control which is all one could ever ask for.   You are my rock. You are my hero.

To my sister, Julie Jankowski, thank you for being patient with me and understanding the considerable amount of time this journey has taken from our 'sister' time which I treasure. You mean the world to me as does your unwavering positive support. Thank you also to Baxter Logan and Taite Logan, for understanding my chosen undertaking without reluctance or question.

I'd also like to thank the staff at QUT, especially Julie Brown, for understanding my workload and working around it. I enjoy contributing to the wealth of knowledge that the QUT business school provides and I also love facilitating the maximum benefits for students although occasionally those paradigms do not align but that is the subject of another thesis.

Lastly, I'd also like to thank my family and friends, who have been appreciative of my undertaking and understanding of the time that it takes away from being social and just simply enjoying each other's company. I am looking forward to having that luxury, without the foreboding guilt, again.

Thank you everyone for making this sometimes-impossible journey possible. I truly believe that I stand on the shoulders of giants and to me, you are all giants. Thank you. I am, and will be, forever grateful.

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 *Background*

Organisational citizenship behaviour is a widely researched topic given its direct link to increased unit work performance, job satisfaction, reduced absenteeism, loyalty, reduced intensions to leave as well as increased customer satisfaction and loyalty (Dalal, 2005; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2005; P. M. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996; P. M. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). It encapsulates discretional positive behaviours that are directed towards other employees as well as those that directed towards the organisation (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) are those behaviours undertaken by an employee that go above and beyond their prescribed employment contract (Organ, 1997). They include behaviours that both benefit the organisation specifically (OCBOs) and those that benefit other individual employees (OCBIs) (Williams & Anderson, 1991).

One important antecedent to OCBs identified in research is leadership (N. P. Podsakoff et al., 2017). Leaders influence job satisfaction, productivity, and organisational commitment (McNeese-Smith, 1996), organisational effectiveness (Yukl, 2008) and performance (Pirola-Merlo, Härtel, Mann, & Hirst, 2002). In particular, studies on leadership behaviour have shown that effective leaders influence OCBs, in particular, Transformational Leadership (TL) behaviour (Cho & Dansereau, 2010; Kent & Chelladurai, 2001; Kim, 2014; López-Domínguez, Enache, Sallan, & Simo, 2013; P. M. Podsakoff et al., 1996). Indeed, TL has been highlighted as a particularly effective leadership style in an environment where organisations are constantly adapting and changing to be sustainable in today's highly competitive, progressive and evolving business environment (Todnem By, 2005). TL is often associated with positive organisational change (Eisenbach, Watson, & Pillai, 1999; López-Domínguez et al., 2013), and therefore its relevance to organisations, now more than ever is particularly important as a driver of positive OCBs that can improve organisational performance (N. P. Podsakoff et al., 2017).

Whilst there are various attempts at defining TL, there are four common elements as defined by Bass (1991): idealised influence, inspirational motivation, individualised

consideration and intellectual stimulation. At its broadest level, TL involves motivating employees to internalise the leader's vision, thereby performing above what may be expected based on a purely transactional leader relationship (Guay & Choi, 2015). Individualised consideration refers to genuine concern for the follower, intellectual stimulation encourages follower creativity and idealised influence and inspirational motivation together are often referred to as charismatic leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1990). Previous studies have postulated a positive relationship between TL and increased OCBs (Wang et al., 2011).

The direct effect of elements of TL on OCBs has been suggested in literature previously, however, there is evidence that the direct effects are not always found which suggests the presence of moderating variables. One particular variable that has piqued interest of researchers is personality. Indeed, as TL generates positive organisational outcomes, numerous studies have been undertaken to ascertain the personality traits of transformational leaders (Judge & Bono, 2000; Phipps & Prieto, 2011), however, there are few studies that identify the importance of follower personality traits (Felfe & Schyns, 2010; Guay & Choi, 2015; Naber & Moffett III, 2017) and even less that assess the followers perception of TL. The widely used and accepted method of TL measurement is the Multi-Factor Leadership scale (MLQ). It is specifically designed to measure manager's self-rated levels of transactional and TL (B. M. Bass & B. J. Avolio, 1992) but not the follower's perception of said leadership. Currently, there are limited studies that attempt to ascertain the follower's perception of TL or the moderating impact of follower personality, specifically the five-factor personality model (Guay & Choi, 2015).

The present study investigated the effect of follower personality on the TL-OCB relationship, in particular whether follower personality moderates the relationship between TL and OCBs. To explore this research question, the Five-Factor Model (FFM) of personality proposed by Donnellan et al. (2006) was used. The FFM posits five broad personality factors: openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Costa Jr & McCrae, 1992; Digman, 1990; McCrae & Costa, 1989). The FFM was chosen to measure follower personality as it is a widely used scale and has proven previously to be an accurate measurement tool that is generally culturally robust (Donnellan et al., 2006).

The first factor, openness to experience also referred to as intellect (Donnellan et al., 2006; Goldberg, 1990) refers to intellectual curiosity, imagination, adventure, being broad-minded and artistically sensitive (Digman, 1990; Furnham, 1996; McCrae & Costa, 1989). People who score high in openness are more likely to engage in risky behaviour (McCrae, Zonderman, Costa Jr, Bond, & Paunonen, 1996). The second factor, conscientiousness reflects dependability, responsibility and good organisational skills (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Conscientious individuals are hardworking, plan ahead achievement-orientated and persevere when faced with challenges. (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Costa Jr & McCrae, 1992; Digman, 1990; McCrae & Costa, 1989). The third factor, extraversion is when the individual displays traits such as being sociable, talkative, expressive, gregarious as well as assertive (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Costa Jr & McCrae, 1992; Donnellan et al., 2006; Gosling, Rentfrow, & Swann Jr, 2003). The forth factor, agreeableness suggests individual behaviours associated with likeability, conformity and compliance. (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Costa Jr & McCrae, 1992). Individuals who score high in agreeableness are more likely to be good-natured and cooperative (Barrick & Mount, 1991). The fifth factor, neuroticism refers to individual's emotional stability (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Donnellan et al., 2006; Gosling et al., 2003). Individuals who experience high neuroticism are often worried, insecure, depressed, emotional and anxious (Barrick & Mount, 1991).

Some studies have found consciousness and agreeableness to predicts favourable levels of OCBs (Chiaburu, Oh, Berry, Li, & Gardner, 2011; Ilies, Fulmer, Spitzmuller, & Johnson, 2009; Organ & Ryan, 1995), however, few have researched the moderating impact of follower personality on the leadership/OCB relationship. More recently, Guay and Choi (2015) explored TL and OCBs and the moderating impact of neuroticism and introversion. They found that followers with high levels of neuroticism, positively moderated the relationships between TL and OCBs. They also found that low follower extraversion also moderated the TL and OCB relationships such that introverted followers displayed higher levels of OCBs when they perceived high levels of TL (Guay & Choi, 2015). This is particularly interesting as it contradicts Felfe and Schyns (2010) studies that state the more similar the follower is to the TL, the more likely they are to exhibit higher levels of OCBs. Transformational Leaders are synonymous with having low levels of neuroticism and very high levels of extraversion (Judge & Bono, 2000). Guay and Choi's (2015) findings are particularly interesting as they suggest that follower personality, specifically the FFM may have a larger and more complex role to play in this relationship rather than follower similarity with the leader.

1.2 *Research Context*

This study has used quantitative data to investigate the research hypotheses. Pre-existing scales that have been previously validated were used to re-affirm existing theories and build on the current framework of knowledge. The sample was anonymously drawn from the Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTURK) platform which allows companies and individuals to survey participants for a small fee to obtain results from employees from multiple organisations with varied positions so as to elicit a broad spectrum of data. Leaders were not be asked to self-rate their leadership style given leadership behaviours are not direct reflections of reality but instead a reality filtered through the lens of the follower (Naber & Moffett III, 2017). Although the perceptions of leader behaviour are not direct reflections but instead a perceptual process by the subordinate that may result in the halo effect or horn effect (Calder, 1977; Lord & Maher, 2002; Naber & Moffett III, 2017), the purpose was to further understand follower outcomes specifically. Therefore, the MLQ, which is traditionally a self-rated TL scale, was altered to allow the follower to observe and rate their leader behaviour.

The follower was also be asked to self-rate their own organisational citizenship behaviours. This is because leaders are not privy to all aspects of OCBI and OCBO and therefore may not divulge accurate information (P. M. Podsakoff, S. B. MacKenzie, J.-Y. Lee, & N. P. Podsakoff, 2003). Whilst, there is an argument that self-rater bias may affect the results of OCBs (Podsakoff et al., 2003), the method in which the data is being collected, i.e. completely anonymously and not in relation to a pro-active initiative by the organisation, the CEO or the head of human resources means there is less likelihood of the respondent answering questions in a way that may be perceived as favourable to their organisation.

1.3 *Contribution to Theory*

Although leadership and OCBs have been extensively researched, N. P. Podsakoff, Morrison, and Martinez (2018) found that due to augmentation of pre-existing scales as well as reinterpretations of both leadership and OCB theories, many studies were either not replicable, contradicting in their findings or had not been replicated enough to be regarded as significant. Those that used same or similar measurement scales and were in agreement were very limited (one or two studies) therefore their recommendation was to replicate prior studies to cement the existing theory (N. P. Podsakoff et al., 2018; N. P. Podsakoff et al., 2017). This study's purpose was to strengthen the theory that TL is positively related to OCBs and add to the literature showing the moderating impact of follower personality traits (Felfe & Schyns, 2010; Guay & Choi, 2015).

1.4 *Contribution to Practice*

Firstly, TL has been linked to employee empowerment and the reduction of intensions to quit (McKay et al., 2007). Additionally, low levels of employee OCBs are directly linked to turnover intensions and actual turnover (Chen, Hui, & Sego, 1998). Employee turnover is costly. Fitz-enz (1997) found the real cost to replace ten professional employees was approximately $1 million due to the significant amount of resources needed to interview, recruit and train employees (Griffith & Hom, 2001; Mobley 1982), obviously today that cost will be significantly higher. High employee turnover also contributes to the loss of organisational memory and decreased productivity (Huber, 1991 & Johnson, 1995). In organisations that experience a mass exodus of employees, the remaining employees experience significant lower morale (Rainey, 2003) which subsequently contributes to lower OCBs.

Secondly, employees with high levels of OCBs are more likely to participate in discretionary behaviours that will benefit the organisation (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Not only do high levels of employee OCBs lead to a happier, more productive workforce (Organ, 1988), evidence suggests that this is also related to organisational competitive and comparative advantage (Pirola-Merlo, Härtel, Mann, & Hirst, 2002). Given the increasing emulous global environment, it is imperative that organisations not only constantly evolve but harness the

optimal potential of their human resources. This research may help organisations in recruitment, restructuring and understanding their current inefficiencies or efficiencies as the case may be.

1.5   *Research Problem and Research Questions*

The study aimed to better understand the moderating effect of follower personality on the positive TL and OCB relationship. As high levels of OCB lead to reduced turnover, increased staff morale and higher productivity (Organ et al., 2005), and TL also has been shown to improve productivity and increase follower OCBs (Bottomley, Mostafa, Gould-Williams, & León-Cázares, 2016) it is important understand how follower personality impacts this relationship (Boerner, Eisenbeiss, & Griesser, 2007; Hsi, 2017). Given the previous studies on follower personality and Transformational Leadership (Felfe & Schyns, 2006, 2010; Guay & Choi, 2015; Judge & Bono, 2000; H. Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005), it is expected that follower personality will moderate the positive relationship between TL and OCBs (Guay & Choi, 2015; H. Wang et al., 2005).

The purpose of this study was to use follower rated measurements of leadership, as well as, self-rated personality scales and self-rated measures of OCBs to better understand the moderating impact of personality on TL and OCB and how personality effects this relationship. Whilst Guay and Choi's (2015) work did establish that personality, specifically neuroticism and introversion, does moderate the relationship between TL and OCBs, in their study, leaders were asked self-rate their followers using Lee & Allen's (2002) OCB 16-item measure with two latent variables being OCBI and OCBO. This current study was specifically aimed at follower perspectives therefore follower rated scales and existing scales were modified and were deliberately used with a view to better understand the impact of this constructs through the lens of the employee. As such, the research questions were as follows:

Research question 1. Is TL (idealised influence, inspirational motivation, individual consideration, intellectual stimulation) positively related to follower OCBI and follower OCBO?

Research question 2. Does follower extraversion moderate the relationship between TL (idealised influence, inspirational motivation, individual consideration, intellectual stimulation) and follower OCB (OCBI & OCBO) such that the relationship is stronger when follower extraversion is lower?

Research question 3. Does follower conscientiousness moderate the relationship between Charisma (idealised influence, inspirational motivation) and follower OCB (OCBI & OCBO) such that the relationship will be stronger when follower conscientiousness is higher?

Research question 4. Does follower neuroticism moderate the relationship between TL (idealised influence, inspirational motivation, individual consideration, intellectual stimulation) and follower OCB (OCBI & OCBO) such the relationship is stronger when follower neuroticism is higher?

Research question 5. Does follower agreeableness moderate the relationship between TL (idealised influence, inspirational motivation, individual consideration, intellectual stimulation) and follower OCBI (OCBI & OCBO) such that the relationship will be stronger when follower agreeableness is higher and weaker when agreeableness is lower?

Research question 6. Does follower openness moderate the relationship between TL (idealised influence, inspirational motivation, individual consideration, intellectual stimulation) and follower OCBI (OCBI & OCBO) such that the relationship will be stronger when follower openness is higher and weaker when openness is lower?

1.6   *Structure of Thesis by Chapter*

This thesis is organised into five chapters. Chapter one explains the background, context and purpose of the research undertaken. Chapter two discusses the theories used identifying the relevant literature beginning with the discussion of the inception and evolution of each construct; Organisational Citizenship Behaviours, Transformational Leadership, and the Five Factor Personality Model. The literature review for each factor explains both the rationale behind the use of each concept, synthesises the relevant literature and provides the foundation for discussion. Chapter three is the research design which explains the methodology, participants, method, procedure and timelines as well as the approach used. Chapter four explains the results identifying both significant and non-significant results. Finally, chapter five discusses the key findings in relation to organisations, employees and leadership as well as suggestions for future research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter will critically review the current literature on organisational citizenship behaviour, identify the antecedents and outcomes of such behaviours and justify the pre-existing scale chosen for the study well as its identifiers. It will then go on to discuss leadership, one of the antecedents of OCBs identified by Podsakoff (2017). It further defines and critiques specifically transformational leadership theory and critically discusses the four factors of transformational leadership and subsequent studies as well as the strengths and weaknesses of the theory. It will also look at the impact of transformational leadership on OCBs. Finally, the Five-Factor Model will be defined and critiqued and its impact on the relationship between TL and OCB will be discussed.

2.1 *Organisational Citizenship Behaviour*

Background and key constructs. In the complex, ever changing and evolving business environment organisations are increasingly relying on employees to perform at their best to help the organisation and others maintain high levels of performance. One measure that has attracted a lot of attention in research explores employee discretionary behaviours – also known as organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs). The concept was originally proposed by Katz (1964) who looked at the motivational patterns for the optimal behavioural requirements in an organisational setting citing that motivational basis's and behavioural requirements differ and several patterns of behaviour may be optimal for organisational functioning leading to extra-role behaviour. Organ (1988b) expanded and elaborated on this work defining OCB as "individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation" (p. 4).

Organisational citizenship behaviours represent various ways employees cooperate and are helpful to others that supports an organisation's social and

psychological context (Organ, 1997). This includes extra-role behaviour and going beyond job requirements (Organ, 1997; Organ & Lingl, 1995). The term OCB was first reported in the 1980's (Bateman & Organ, 1983) and since then the attention to the theory has increased significantly. So much so that in the last five years approximately 2,500 articles have been published on OCB with many in some of the most highly cited journals in organisational psychology and management (N. P. Podsakoff et al., 2018) making it one of the most popular researched theories due to its outcomes and consequences.

Organ (1988a) noted that, "OCB of different types … could well determine the impression that an individual makes on a supervisor or on co-workers" (p. 5), hinting that potentially there was more than one factor related to OCB and noting that the benefit to the worker may be by way of promotion (Organ, 1988a). Organ's (1983) original work revealed two factors, "altruism" which pertains to behaviours in relation to a work colleague that are unsolicited and "consciousness" which refers to organisationally relevant behaviours. Williams and Anderson (1991) built on the OCB construct by identifying two factors; OCBI and OCBO. OCBI behaviours are those that "immediately benefit specific individuals directly and indirectly … (e.g., helps others who have been absent, takes a personal interest in other employees" (p. 601). Individuals who exhibit high levels of OCBI are more likely to be altruistic, helpful and take a personal interest in co-workers (Organ, 1997; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Second, "OCB Organisation (OCBO) are behaviours that "benefit the organisation in general" (Williams & Anderson, 1991, p. 602). OCBO behaviour relates to the organisation overall, for example, giving advanced notice if going to be late or absent to work (Williams & Anderson, 1991).

Individuals who display OCBIs often have interpersonal characteristics such as courtesy and altruism (Organ, 1988), cooperation (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), harmony (Farh, Earley, & Lin, 1997) and self-efficacy (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). Examples of OCBIs include showing cooperation and courtesy, taking interest in new employees and helping people who are absent (Chiaburu, Oh, & Marinova, 2018; Williams & Anderson, 1991) or are falling behind their allocated workload. Those who display high OCBOs exhibit conscientiousness, sportsmanship and civic virtue (Organ, 1998), loyalty (Graham, 1991), and are advocates of their organisation.

OCBOs include providing advance notice of absenteeism, archetypal work ethic, compliance with organisational policies and procedures as well as going out of one's way to promote the organisation and its image (Chiaburu et al., 2018; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Williams and Anderson's (1991) study also examined "cognitive components of satisfaction and organisational commitment [to predict] OCB performance" (Williams & Anderson, 1991, p. 614) and suggested that follower beliefs about job performance may also be linked to OCBs.

Organ (1997) later went on to review the subsequent literature and noted that Williams and Anderson's (1991) relabelling of OCB to include two factors; OCBI (those related to individuals such as courtesy and helpfulness) and OCBO (those related to the organisation such as attendance and punctuality) was quote, "[A] point well taken" (p. 94). Although Organ (1997) preferred the label "conscientiousness" to OCBI he did acknowledge how confusing this would be given it is a factor of the FFM. Whilst there remains conjecture as to what is the best measurement of OCBs and their subsequent labels, there is common agreement that the construct is of imperative importance as it directly effects organisational outcomes (Organ & Lingl, 1995; Organ et al., 2005; P. M. Podsakoff et al., 1990; Williams & Anderson, 1991).

More recent studies have again tried to establish the best measurement of OCBs. Bester, Stander and Van Zyl (2015) failed to replicate the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Questionnaire (OCBQ) (Van Dyne, Graham & Dienesch, 1994) and as a consequence created three new constructs based on the data; loyalty, deviant behaviour and participation (Bester, Stander & Van Zyl, 2015, p.7.). Similarly, Hendricks (2017) used Podsakoff's et al. (1990) Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale (OCBS) in their recent study however not one subscale in the reliability analysis loaded over the ideal acceptable level of Cronbach's Alpha being >.80 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) with all latent variables loading at questionable levels (Sportsmanship .588, Altruism .615, Conscientiousness .622, Courtesy .557, Civic Virtue .591) and the author even suggesting that this was not the most appropriate scale for their study. Lee & Low (2016) in their study on OCBs, leadership styles and the mediation of role ambiguity used the scale by Smith et. al. (1983) containing two latent variables, altruism and compliance however they collapsed the latent variables into one factor

when testing the hypothesis without further explanation although they did report Cronbach's Alpha for all scales as "greater than 0.78" (Lee & Low, 2016, p. 1566).

There are almost two dozen different constructs of OCB mentioned in past studies (N. P. Podsakoff et al., 2017). In recent literature, the subdimensions of OCB have also been collapsed into a single criterion (Chiaburu et al., 2011; Ilies et al., 2009; Piccolo, Buengeler, & Judge, 2018). N. P. Podsakoff et al. (2017) recently noted that the continuous augmentation and broad interpretation of the OCB construct makes it difficult to test and retest theoretical frameworks, examine antecedents, mediators and moderating variables due to inconsistent findings across studies. Many researchers have treated OCB as either one latent variable, separated it into OCBI and OCBO or derived new key identifiers based on structural equation modelling. Given the plethora of studies validating OCBI and OCBO, the researcher has chosen to use William's and Anderson's (1991) interpretation of OCB and subsequent previously validated measurement scale due to its continued use and statistic reliability in current published peer reviewed journal articles (Kiffin-Petersen, Jordan, & Soutar, 2011; Li, Kim, & Zhao, 2017).

Outcomes of OCBs. OCBs are important to understand as research has identified many positive outcomes. Organisations who have employees who perform discretionary tasks over and above their job description outperform those that don't (Emami, Alizadeh, Nazari, & Darvishi, 2012; Organ, 1988b). Actions undertaken by employees with high OCBs transcend organisational expectations and encourage the welfare of the organisation as well as its co-workers (Kolb, 2005; Lovell et al., 1999). More specifically, high levels of employee OCBs are related to reduced absenteeism, turnover, and increased employee satisfaction, loyalty and customer satisfaction (Emami et al., 2012). Higher levels of OCBs have also been connected to higher reported psychological empowerment, goal realisation, resilience and enhanced performance (Bowler, 2006; Jha, 2014). Organ (1988b) found individuals who had high OCBs displayed courtesy, a demonstration of willingness to endure personal impositions without protest, sportsmanship and undertake deliberate actions to help prevent problems with fellow work associates. Baker (1999) found employees with high OCBs are also more likely to engage in positive customer service.

OCBs have been shown to positively impact not only organisational performance but also employee wellbeing, job satisfaction (Organ, 1988a) and work meaningfulness (Lam, Wan, & Roussin, 2016). Research has shown that employees with high levels of OCB have higher levels of work meaningfulness which is directly related to increased feelings of vigour (Lam et al., 2016). N. P. Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, and Blume (2009) found evidence that OCB preceded performance indicating that OCB influences organisational outcomes and performance. There is evidence to suggest that high employee OCB is also related to career success and promotability (Shore, Barksdale, & Shore, 1995). High follower OCB may enhance evaluations, reward allocations as well as influence promotions and hiring (N. P. Podsakoff et al., 2018; N. P. Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Mishra, 2011). High perceived follower OCB may also influence the number of promotions an individual receives in their career (N. P. Podsakoff et al., 2018). Clearly, given the positive outcomes for both individuals and organisations it is important to further understand how the identifiers of OCB, particularly OCBI and OCBO affect these outcomes.

However, it is important to note that not all outcomes of OCB are positive for the employee. Indeed, as OCB requires an individual to go above and beyond what is their prescribed duties there are logical insinuations that individuals who exhibit high OCBs may experience burnout, job-stress and work-family conflict (Bolino & Turnley, 2005; N. P. Podsakoff et al., 2018). Whilst a number of studies have shown that OCB is not related to such stressors when accounting for other factors (Bolino & Turnley, 2005; Halbesleben, Harvey, & Bolino, 2009), other studies have found that high follower OCB may be negatively related to job stress (Tsang, Chen, Wang, & Tai, 2012), role conflict and role overload (Eatough, Chang, Miloslavic, & Johnson, 2011). Ellington, Dierdorff, and Rubin (2014) found that the OCB task performance relationship is low when employees have low task interdependence and low interpersonal skills, however Rubin (2013) found that this effect was moderated by task autonomy and accountability. Rapp (2013) found that individuals with poor time management skills experienced a negative relationship between high levels of OCB and task performance. This may indicate that individuals who are highly conscientious moderate this relationship. Nevertheless, it should be noted that there is some evidence that indicates that in certain situations high follower OCB is not sustainable long-term and that the outcomes of OCB remain a point of conjecture.

Antecedents and Contextual Determinants of OCB. Aside from individual difference characteristics, researchers have explored contextual characteristics that may lead employees to enlist discretionary behaviours towards individuals and the organisation. Antecedents of OCB include organisational commitment (Dalal, 2005), leadership, job clarity, individual traits and organisational fairness (Emami et al., 2012) and organisational justice (Dalal, 2005) as well as job satisfaction (Dalal, 2005) and conscientiousness (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007; Dalal, 2005).

Podsakoff et al. (2017), in a meta-analysis of 67 different studies to determine individual-level and group-level antecedents of OCBs, found over 120 antecedents of OCB and almost two dozen different forms of OCB. These antecedents have been broadly categorised into leadership/management factors (demographics and personality, transformational leadership, servant and other leadership and leader empowerment and engagement), group characteristics (demographics, task characteristic, affect, socialisation and norms, perceptions, attitudes, beliefs and values, climate-related variables (justice climate, communal climate), employee factors (demographics, personality and values, attitudes, moods and perceptions), job factors (job characteristics), group factors (group characteristics), cultural factors (cultural perceptions) and organisational characteristics (N. P. Podsakoff et al., 2017). Their review of the literature however indicated that these antecedents need substantial replication as many either had conflicting studies or only one or two studies in support of said antecedent. It should also be noted that they did not discuss gender as an antecedent despite numerous studies on the topic of gender, age and OCBs.

Gender, Age & OCBs, OCBI, OCBO. Researchers have devoted considerable attention to understanding OCBs and what type of employees might be more prone to discretionary behaviours especially in relation to gender. Wanxian and Weiwu (2007) found that age was positively related to increased OCBs and gender was unrelated. Emami et al. (2012) found that although age and gender influence OCBs, females are more inclined to experience higher levels of OCB. Cheung and Cheung (2013), Allen (2006) and (Loi & Ngo, 2009) looked at both OCBI and OCBO and found no significant gender differences however, Allen (2006) did find that males with high

levels of OCB were more inclined to get promotions over females with high OCB. Interestingly, Wilkinson (2005) found females self-rated higher in OCBI but not in OCBO. Allen (2018) recently conducted a meta-analysis on 24 independent studies on gender and OCB and found that there is some evidence that OCB is a sex-stereotyped behaviour however, "support for dimension-specific ties has been mixed" (p. 222) given the multitude of different scales used to measure OCBs. As such, although it seems that an increase in age is positively related to increased OCBS (Emami et al., 2012; Wanxian & Weiwu, 2007), the influence on gender remains incongruous and requires further exploration.

Nationality/Culture & OCBs. Some antecedents described by N. P. Podsakoff et al. (2017) such as beliefs and values, cultural values, climate-changed variables, organisational characteristics and perceptions can be described as a function of nationality. For instance, what is perceived as discretionary behaviours changes culturally with western countries having less broader roles consistent with individualism-collectivism cultural issues (Blakely, Srivastava, & Moorman, 2005; N. P. Podsakoff et al., 2018). Recently, Earley and Calic (2018) looked at OCB from a cross-cultural perspective to ascertain if culture influences display of OCB and engagement behaviours that lead to OCB. They note previous studies have shown inconsistent findings with regards to the link between culture and OCBs and postulate that cultural intelligence may explain this anomaly (Earley & Calic, 2018). Notwithstanding, the cultural norms of a society would logically influence the follower's perception of what constitutes OCBs.

Leadership and OCBs. Leadership and management factors have been shown to be one of the main antecedents of OCBs (N. P. Podsakoff et al., 2017). With respect to OCBs, leaders who are compassionate, lead with honesty and incorruptibility or who are not autocratic have been found to inspire subordinates to display increased levels of OCBs (Piccolo et al., 2018; P. M. Podsakoff et al., 1990). These behaviours are quite often associated with transformational leaders which has been specifically identified as an antecedent of OCB (Podsakoff et. al, 2017). Transformational leadership has been previously shown to positively impact follower OCBs, however, it is not confirmed exactly how other factors such as nationality, gender, age or

follower personality may impact this relationship (Guay & Choi, 2015). Relatively few studies have looked at the impact of TL on OCB behaviours (Li, et al., 2013) and even less have attempted to ascertain how follower personality may influence this relationship (Guay & Choi, 2015) with most studies purely focusing on personality traits of an effective TL (Judge & Bono, 2000) not taking into consideration or assessing the real impact that follower personality may have on this relationship.

2.2   *Transformational Leadership*

"*Transformational Leaders create, communicate and model a shared vision for the team or organisation and they inspire followers to strive for that vision*" (McShane & Von Glinow, 2015, p. 391).

Background and key constructs.   The term 'Transformational Leadership' was first coined by Downton (1973) however the foundation principles were established by Weber (1923;1947). Burns (1978) then introduced the concept of TL during his study on political leadership and defined it as an on-going behaviour rather than specific characteristics that facilitate "leaders and followers [to] raise one another to higher levels of morality and motivation" (p. 20). Burn's (1978) work was heavily influenced by Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of human needs and noted TL effectiveness was contingent upon satisfying follower's needs. This concept was further developed by Bass (1985) who found that transformational leaders inspired followers through intellectual stimulation, individualised consideration, inspiration and charisma. Bass (1985b) asserted that TL not only facilitates change but benefits both leader and follower overall.

Bass (1985, p.30) found that there were three ways that Transformational Leadership influences followers:

1. Persuading them to focus on organisational goals or team goals rather than personal interests;

2. Elevating follower perceptions of task performance and task value; and

3. Triggering higher-order needs.

It is important to note that TL builds on more traditional styles of leadership. In addition to TL, Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) also found that there two other leadership styles, transactional leadership that uses conventional reward and punishment to motivate followers and laissez-faire leadership where supervisors have passive or no interest employees (Tims, Bakker, & Xanthopoulou, 2011; Yukl, 1999). Further studies have delineated the difference between TL, transactional leadership and laissez-faire or passive management by exception (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Lievens Pascal Van Geit Pol Coetsier, 1997; Yammario & Bernard, 1990). The core of TL is characterised by creating a strategic vision, communicating that vision, modelling the vision and building a commitment towards the vision (McShane & Von Glinow, 2015).

Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) elaborated on Burn's (1978) overarching theory of TL by adding a moral/ethical dimension to the concept instead of linking it to Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs. They also noted that there were authentic and pseudo transformational leaders, however, Avolio and Gardner (2005) argue that by definition, transformational leaders must be authentic. Hoch, Bommer, Dulebohn, and Wu (2018) found there was a, "significant conceptual overlap between authentic and transformational leadership" (p. 506). This may explain the TL and authentic leadership multi-collinearity issues when testing both simultaneously (Banks, McCauley, Gardner, & Guler, 2016; Hoch et al., 2018). Although research has shown that TL skills are able to be taught (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996; Bass, 1999; Tims et al., 2011), interestingly, learned TL is associated with burnout (Arnold, Connelly, Walsh, & Martin Ginis, 2015) indicating that there may be other intrinsic factors necessary of an effective TL such as authenticity.

Further research undertaken by Avolio, Waldman, and Yammarino (1991) established four latent variables of TL being *individualised consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation and idealised influence* which parallel Bass's earlier work and are now the commonly used and widely accepted identifiers of TL

(Bass, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1990b; Chemers, 2000; Tims et al., 2011). Idealised influence refers to how leaders are trusted, respected and admired therefore act as role models to followers (Boerner et al., 2007). Inspirational motivation refers to leaders who encourage, motivate and inspire followers using enthusiasm and optimism (Bass, 1991; Boerner et al., 2007). Bass (1999) noted that these first two factors of TL are indicative of charismatic leadership. Subsequent studies have combined these two factors and relabelled them 'charismatic leadership' due to multicollinearity issues indicating that they are one factor (Avolio & Bass, 1988; Carless, 1998; Den Hartog, Van Muijen, & Koopman, 1997; Phaneuf, Boudrias, Rousseau, & Brunelle, 2016) and postulated that a three factor model may be more statistically appropriate (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999).

Charismatic leaders provide followers with purpose and enable them to believe that they can achieve goals (Bass & Avolio, 1990a). They reframe negative situations and facilitate positive emotions to allow for growth (Bass & Avolio, 1990a; Chiaburu et al., 2011; Guay & Choi, 2015). Charismatic leaders induce followers to pursue their leaders' vision and goals (Howell & Avolio, 1993), enable high task adjustment and performance (Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999) and moderate the impact of stressful demands (LePine, Zhang, Crawford, & Rich, 2016).

The third factor of TL, individualised consideration, refers to the leader having genuine and authentic concern for the follower, their feelings and their needs by acting as a coach or mentor (Avolio & Bass, 1988; Boerner et al., 2007). The fourth factor, intellectual stimulation, is where the leader challenges followers to be creative and approach situations in new ways (Bass, 1991). The leader reframes existing problems and questions assumptions to facilitate a growth mindset devoid of ridicule or criticism of identified mistakes as well as facilitating ideas and solutions to fix problems (Bass, 1991; Boerner et al., 2007).

Since inception of the TL construct, there have been many scholars who have argued that the four factor model (idealised influence, inspirational motivation, individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation) (Bass, 1991) should be a three factor model (charisma, individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation) (Avolio & Bass, 1988; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Lowe et al., 1996), or a

one factor model due to issues of multi-collinearity (Carless, 1998; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; G. Wang, Oh, Courtright, & Colbert, 2011).   Others have argued that an alternative scale should be used (P. M. Podsakoff et al., 1990), that other methods such as diary-based measurement (Bass & Riggio, 2006) or observational methods (Mhatre & Riggio, 2014) are a better approach and that it should not be self-rated due to common method variance (P.M. Podsakoff et al., 2003).   Nevertheless, the MLQ remains the most popular measurement of TL (Bass & Avolio, 1999) and as such this study will use this measurement scale due to resource constraints that have made it difficult to obtain diary-based measurement and observational methods in addition to a follower rated MLQ.

Outcomes of Transformational Leadership.   Transformational Leadership is important to focus on in the present context as it has been found to be associated with a wide range of outcomes.   Transformational Leadership positively impacts employee engagement (Ghafoor, Qureshi, Khan, & Hijazi, 2011; Vincent-Höper, Muser, & Janneck, 2012), increases workplace happiness (Stairs & Galpin, 2010), assists in effective organisational knowledge (Hoon Song, Kolb, Hee Lee, & Kyoung Kim, 2012), increases OCBs (P. M. Podsakoff et al., 1990; G. Wang et al., 2011), increases job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Nguni, Sleegers, & Denessen, 2006) and organisational innovation (García-Morales, Jiménez-Barrionuevo, & Gutiérrez-Gutiérrez, 2012; Jung, Chow, & Wu, 2003).   Bommer, Rich, and Rubin (2005) found that TL reduced employee cynicism about organisational change and this positive effect increased over time.   This is important because in today's environment, organisations are constantly having to evolve and change to remain competitive.   Given that only 20% of employees are highly engaged (White, 2011), it is imperative that researchers understand how effective leadership can underpin an organisation's on-going success.

In a meta-analysis conducted by Lowe, Kroeck, and Sivasubramaniam (1996), TL was shown to have a positive impact on employees performance and satisfaction levels.   Descriptive studies have shown TL also transcends varied working situations such as sports coaching for both individual athletes and teams (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Tichy & Devanna, 1986).   Whilst many studies have highlighted the positive impact

of TL it is not universally effective (Bass, 2003), and not well explained as to what factors moderate the breakdown in the relationship between the TL and follower.

Although TL is predominately linked to increased work performance, some studies have shown it can lead to employee burnout (Owen, 1986), exploitation of employees and role conflict and ambiguity (Porter, Bigley, & Steers, 2003). Harrison (1987) also found that TL was associated with employee burnout however more recent studies have shown that TL can have the opposite effect on employees (Gill, Flaschner, & Shachar, 2006; Zopiatis & Constanti, 2010), especially older workers (Nielsen, Yarker, Brenner, Randall, & Borg, 2008). Rowold, Diebig, and Heinitz (2017) tested followers cortisol levels and found that TL had zero impact on follower's stress levels. The varied findings in relation to the impact of TL indicates
further research is required into what factors may moderate the positive impact of TL on employee outcomes such as OCBs.

Transformational Leadership & OCBI/OCBO.   Transformational leaders empower their followers to embrace the organisation's vision, mission and goals (Avolio et al., 1999) which subsequently fosters feelings of belonging and identification with the organisation leading to increased OCBs (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). Transformational leaders increase follower engagement leading them to perform tasks beyond their job requirements (P. M. Podsakoff et al., 1996) also known as discretionary behaviours (OCBs) (Organ, 1997). Employees have been previously shown to demonstrate increased levels of OCBs with TLs (Cohen, Ben-Tura, & Vashdi, 2012; Kirkman, Chen, Farh, Chen, & Lowe, 2009) both directed towards individuals (OCBI) and the organisation (OCBO) (Guay & Choi, 2015; Jha, 2014).

Transformational leaders theoretically motivate employees and facilitate employee engagement which leads to higher levels of follower OCBs (Barling et al., 1996; Bass, 1999; Boerner et al., 2007; Engelen, Gupta, Strenger, & Brettel, 2015). Evidence suggests TL behaviours boost perceptions of procedural justice (Kirkman, 2009), assimilation with the organisation (Schuh et al., 2012) which is often associated as a component of OCBO and rapport with co-workers (Carter, Mossholder, Feild, & Armenakis, 2014) which is associated with OCBIs (Williams & Anderson, 1991).

Transformational leaders boost the productive feeling of subordinates (Hsiung, 2012), increase employees' agreement and sense of accountability to go above and beyond what is required from them (Choi, 2007). Mhatre and Riggio (2014) even found that TL creates an obligation to engage in OCBs. Ebgelbrecht and Samuel (2019) also found TL was positively linked to increased perceived organisational support which can be posited as an antecedent to OCBs.

Further studies have been conducted to ascertain exactly how it is that TLs create an environment that nurtures and promotes follower OCBs. In their meta-analysis of 117 independent samples over 113 primary studies, Wang (2011) found that TL had a stronger relationship with contextual performance, which they described as discretionary behaviours voluntary in nature, as opposed to task performance. Wang (2011) postulated that followers of TLs are more likely to view actions of their work as meaningful if it is in line with their self-concept and that TLs empowered and motivated their followers to engage in extra-role behaviours. P. M. Podsakoff et al. (1990) also argued that the crux of the reason followers exhibit discretionary behaviours when working with TLs was due to motivational effects, enabling followers to engage in extra-role behaviours. This theory supports Wang's (2011) meta-analysis finding that TL has more of an effect on contextual behaviours or OCBs rather than task performance due to the motivational effects of TLs on followers.

As mentioned previously, direct positive links have been found between TL and OCBs (Choi, 2007; Cohen et al., 2012; Kirkman et al., 2009). Bottomley et al. (2016) used the MLQ and William's and Anderson's (1991) OCBI and OCBO measurement scales to further understand the link between Transformational Leadership, OCBI and OCBO. They found evidence that TL (as a single factor) enhances both OCBIs and OCBOs in the private sector. Dust, Resick, and Mawritz (2014) also obtained similar results using William's and Anderson's (1991) OCBI and OCBO measurement scales as well as Lee & Allen's (2002) OCB measure and combining TL into one factor. Similarly, Guay and Choi (2015) also found a direct link with TL and OCBI and OCBO using TL as a one factor solution using the MLQ and Lee & Allen's (2002) OCB measure. Little research has been conducted on whether all four factors of Transformational Leadership individually are positively related to follower OCBI and OCBO. Given the previous literature on TL and OCB it

is expected that higher levels of all factors of TL will lead to higher levels of follower OCBI & OCBO.

Hypothesis 1 (H1).

TL (idealised influence, inspirational motivation, individual consideration, intellectual stimulation) will be positively related to follower OCBI (H1a) and follower OCBO (H1b).

2.3   *Five-factor Personality Model*

Background and key constructs. One potential construct that might influence the TL-OCB relationship is personality. Indeed, personality has been researched independently with respect to both TL (Judge & Bono, 2000) and OCBs (Shin, Kim, Choi, Kim, & Oh, 2017). It has been stipulated that the researchers have, "underestimated the predictive power of personality", more specifically the FFM when analysing work effectiveness and retention (Li, Barrick, Zimmerman, & Chiaburu, 2014, p. 348). Li et al. (2014) argue that personality is a more powerful predictor of employee effectiveness and retention than situational predictors. Few studies have looked at the potential moderating impact of follower personality, and more specifically the five-factor personality model on the TL and OCB relationship (Guay & Choi, 2015), with most studies looking at the personality traits of the leader as opposed to the follower (Judge & Bono, 2000; Rubin, Munz, & Bommer, 2005).

The five-factor model of personality (FFM) measures the basic dimensions of personality and has displayed discriminant and convergent validity across decades, observers and instruments (Costa Jr & McCrae, 1988). The FFM, also known as the big-five, OCEAN, CANOE, NEOIPIP amongst other names is a widely accepted and publicized measure of five abstract dimensions of personality traits: openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism (Costa Jr & McCrae, 1992; Digman, 1990; Donnellan et al., 2006). The FFM has also shown to be mostly robust throughout different cultures (Digman, 1990; Donnellan et al., 2006).

Openness, also known as openness to experience or intellect is the most debated of the five factors with scholars generally agreeing that people who score high on this dimension are creative, imaginative, curious and sensitive (Costa Jr & McCrae, 1992; Digman, 1990; Donnellan et al., 2006) with some also stipulating that they may be prone to experimentation (Schaller & Murray, 2008). Individuals who score high on openness may display scientific talent (Simonton, 2008) and creative achievement (Feist, 1998) and excel at tasks that involve originality, dexterity and intuition (DeYoung, Quilty, & Peterson, 2007).

Conscientiousness refers to people who are self-disciplined, dependable and exercise a degree of caution (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Those low in conscientiousness often lack time-management skills, are disorganised, irresponsible, unreliable, lack attention to detail and are careless (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Digman, 1990). Employees with high conscientiousness are more motivated, set higher personal goals than those with low conscientiousness and tend to have higher levels of OSBs (Barrick, Mount, & Judge, 2001; Witt, Burke, Barrick, & Mount, 2002).

Those who score high on the extraversion scale are often assertive, outgoing, sociable and talkative (Digman, 1990). Extraversion is a predictor of job performance for those in the sales profession and managerial roles (Barrick & Mount, 1993). Those who score low in extraversion are generally quiet, shy, experience social anxiety in large gatherings or when conducting meetings and seminars (Snyder, 1983). Extroverts obtain their energy from external sources (the outer world and interactions with others) whereas introverts derive energy from the internal world, for example personal reflection (Barrick & Mount, 1991).

Agreeableness refers to empathy, caring, being courteous and good natured (Barrick et al., 2001). Those who score low in agreeableness are obstinate, stubborn, short-tempered, irritable and uncooperative (Digman, 1990). Agreeableness is often associated with team work, conflict-handling and customer service as employees are expected to be non-confrontational, helpful and cooperative (Barrick & Mount, 1991).

Neuroticism refers to traits such as anxiety, frustration, worry, fear, depression, self-consciousness, hostility, guilt and low emotional stability (McCrae & John, 1992). Individuals who score high on neuroticism are at a higher risk of mental health issues and substance abuse (Larkins & Sher, 2006), and are more prone to experience stress, anxiety, irritability, mood swings, sadness and emotional instability (Power & Pluess, 2015). Kotov, Gamez, Schmidt, and Watson (2010) when studying the FFM in relation to anxiety, depression and substance abuse also found that high neuroticism was the strongest predictor of anxiety, depressive and substance abuse disorders and Bienvenu et al. (2004) found that neuroticism was a strong predictor of anxiety and depression, particularly general anxiety disorder and major depressive disorder. Those who score low on the neuroticism scale are generally calm, secure, even tempered and

less likely to feel upset or experience negative feelings (Digman, 1990; Guay & Choi, 2015) and are often referred to as emotionally stable (Power & Pluess, 2015). Personality influences employee well-being (Barrick et al., 2001) their coping strategies and their career path (Hurtz & Donovan, 2000). Employees who experience high neuroticism are generally underpaid in comparison to their peers even though they are more likely to be workaholics (Burke, Matthiesen, & Pallesen, 2006).

Five factor personality model and transformational leadership. As discussed, the FFM and TL have been researched independently in order to ascertain the personality traits of a TL. Whilst this research study was not based around the personality traits of a TL, it is worth noting previous studies as some scholars assert that the principle of similarity applies to leaders and followers (Felfe & Schyns, 2010; Keller, 1999), meaning the more the follower identifies as similar to the leader, the more likely they are to be engaged and developed (Shamir et al., 1993). Previous studies have concluded that TLs exhibit high levels of conscientiousness (Bono & Judge, 2004; Judge & Bono, 2000) as they are required to act as role models and to lead by example. As individuals who are high in conscientiousness generally are more likely to hold managerial and leadership positions (Judge, Higgins, Thoresen, & Barrick, 1999), it is consistent that previous studies have found significant links between TL and conscientiousness (Cavazotte, Moreno, & Hickmann, 2012).

Transformational leaders are also more likely to be extraverts (Judge & Bono, 2000), with extraversion having the strongest correlation to TL behaviours (Judge & Bono, 2000). Extraverts display optimism, enthusiasm and convey positive emotions (Watson & Clark, 1997) which is in line with charismatic leadership theory, inspirational motivation and idealised influence. Deinert (2016) found extraversion was positively associated with TL with the exception of individualised consideration and found that leader's neuroticism didn't have any significant impact on the effect of TL however other studies have shown that neuroticism has a negative impact on TL effectiveness (Cavazotte et al., 2012). Neuroticism is not associated with TLs due to the personality traits required of them. Transformational Leaders are required to be gregarious, even tempered, positive and could not operate in their capacity as leader if they were overly angry, insecure, depressed or worried which are common traits of neuroticism (Judge & Bono, 2000).

The personality trait of agreeableness is also not commonly associated with TL as leaders with high agreeableness may find their position particularity challenging as they are forced to conform within the organization's beliefs and values, norms and traditions that may require choices for the good for the individual, group and organization (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002; Judge, Piccolo, & Kosalka, 2009). Such choices may create conflict for those high in agreeableness as they want to be helpful for all stakeholders but that may not be able to be achieved (Judge et al., 2009). As such, agreeableness has not generally been correlated with Transformational Leadership effectiveness (Judge et al., 2009) and not is related to performing the function of a TL (Bono & Judge, 2004).

Judge and Bono (2000) found that although openness was positively linked to TL, it did not account for a significant difference once all five personality factors were entered into the equation. Similarly, other studies on TL have also not come to a conclusion that openness has any significant impact on TL behaviours (Bono & Judge, 2004; Phipps & Prieto, 2011). Cavazotte et al. (2012) did find a positive link between TL and openness however, once all factors were entered into the model, openness did not account for any significance. Again, whilst the personality attributes were not being tested in this study, it is important to ascertain the general traits of a TL based on previous research in order to assess if the principle of similarity may affect the study considering this theory has previously been postulated by Felfe and Schyns (2010).

Five Factor Personality Model and follower OCBs. Researchers have also explored whether different employees with more prominent personality traits in relation to the FFM are more prone to OCBs. A number of studies have focused on follower extraversion (Singh & Singh, 2009), conscientiousness (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000), neuroticism (Guay & Choi, 2015; Yukl, 1999), agreeableness (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; Ilies et al., 2009) and openness (Guay & Choi, 2015). Little research has attempted to ascertain if personality, in particular each factor of the FFM, moderates the TL and OCB relationship (Guay & Choi, 2015). The following section will look at the FFM in relation to OCB as well as the TL, OCB and follower FFM relationship.

OCB & Follower Extraversion. Although follower extraversion has been positively theoretically linked to OCBs, many studies have failed to attain statistical significance when testing this theory (Organ & Lingl, 1995; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2005). Singh and Singh (2009) and Akinbode (2011) however did find a positive relationship between follower extraversion and OCBs. Chahal and Metha (2010) found that there was a plausible argument that both extraversion and introversion are linked to increased OCBs and that further research is needed to establish if either trait is occupation or organisation specific and if other factors may contribute such as age, gender and leadership styles.

TL, OCB & Follower Extraversion. Although it is established that leadership positively impacts follower OCBs little research has examined the impact of extraversion/introversion (Chalal and Metha, 2010). Transformational leaders, particularly charismatic TLs are often associated with high levels of extraversion (Bono & Judge, 2004; De Hoogh, Den Hartog, & Koopman, 2005). Felfe and Schyns (2010) previously found that follower extraversion moderated the perception of Transformational Leadership and increased the acceptance of the leader. This is in line with Shamir, House and Arthur's (1993) hypothesis that subordinate's similarity to TL contributes to both attribution and subordinate development. Keller (1999) also implied that similarity of the subordinate is preferable in relation to TL as similarity begets attraction to the leader as well as projections of positive self-illusion. Similarly, Felfe and Schyns (2004) found follower extraversion able to predict the "romance" of leadership and Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996) found strong relationship congruence between persons who identified with charismatic leaders.

Interestingly, more recent research by Guay and Choi (2015) found that followers with low extraversion actually benefit more from TLs than those with high extraversion as those followers who already have high extraversion "already possess the resources needed to perform a high level of OCB" (p. 854) which contradicts

previous older theoretical assumptions based on the principle of similarity. Additionally, Lee, Chiang, Chen, & Chen (2010), when analysing the moderating impact of personality on the positive relationship between charismatic leadership and OCBs found that subordinates who identified as introverted on the FFM were more likely to engage in helping behaviours towards other employees and the organisation when they perceived the leader as being charismatic. These studies affirm Chalal and Metha's (2010) hypothesis that follower introversion has a positive impact on OCBs and indicates that follower introversion may moderate the positive relationship between TL and OCBs particularly in the presence of a charismatic leader.

Given the recent research indicating that follower introversion moderates the positive relationship between TL and OCBs such that both OCBI and OCBO are stronger when the follower identifies as more introverted (Guay & Choi, 2015) it was decided to test this hypothesis with the original four factor solution (Bass & Avolio, 1991).

Hypothesis 2 (H2),

Follower extraversion will moderate the relationship between TL (idealised influence, inspirational motivation, individual consideration, intellectual stimulation) and follower OCB (OCBI & OCBO) such that those with low extraversion will benefit significantly from high transformational leadership and subsequently exhibit higher levels of OCBO and OCBI compared to those with high extraversion.

OCB & Follower Conscientiousness. Chiaburu et al. (2018) found that follower conscientiousness and agreeableness are "two of the best predictors of OCB" (p. 205). Borman, Penner, Allen, and Motowidlo (2001) also found that follower conscientiousness correlates with OCB more than task performance. Conscientiousness is also more likely to predict overall job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000). When both OCBI and OCBO were analysed separately however, conscientiousness was found to be a better predictor of OCBO (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; Ilies et al., 2009). Chiaburu et al. (2011) noted that predictively conscientiousness is linked to both OCBI and OCBO. A meta-analytic review of 55 studies on OCB in relation to attitudinal and dispositional correlations of OCB found that only conscientiousness was associated with OCBs (Organ & Ryan, 1995) with conscientiousness having correlation of .30 with "generalised compliance", an antecedent of OCB.

TL, OCB, Follower Conscientiousness. Transformational leaders have high levels of conscientiousness (Bono & Judge, 2004; Judge & Bono, 2000) and individuals who show high levels of conscientiousness are more inclined to also exhibit higher levels of OCBI & OCBO (Chiaburu et al., 2018), however little research has been undertaken to establish if follower conscientiousness moderates the TL and OCB relationship. Given that followers with high levels of conscientiousness are hardworking, persevering and achievement orientated (Digman, 1990) as well as responsible and organised (Barrick & Mount, 1991), it is arguable that these characteristics would have a positive impact on the relationship between certain factors of TL and OCB such that the follower will make it their duty to enact the vision and mission of the transformational leader and thereby exhibit increased OCBs (Digman, 1990).

However, there is evidence that the relationship between elements of TL and OCB might be differently moderated by conscientiousness, for example individual consideration. Individual consideration includes mentoring, supporting, developing and coaching and enhances follower self-efficacy (Yukl, 1999). Individuals who score high on the conscientiousness dimension are already dependable, responsible, organised and self-efficacious (Barrick & Mount, 1991). As previous research has shown that individual consideration has a weak effect on performance (Bass & Avolio,

1990a; Yukl, 1998), and those with high conscientiousness already display many of the desirable qualities that individual consideration tries to instil on the follower, therefore, it is logical that high follower conscientiousness will not impact the positive individual consideration/OCB relationship.

Intellectual stimulation causes followers to look at problems in different ways (Bass, 1990), and challenges a follower's traditional beliefs (Yukl, 1999). One aspect of conscientiousness is conforming to the status quo (Hogan, Champagne, & Glaser, 1985) with individuals who identify as having high levels of conscientiousness more inclined to be careful and plan in advance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Costa Jr & McCrae, 1992; Digman, 1990). High levels of follower consciousness could impact the TL/OCB relationship as theoretically a subordinate with high conscientiousness would potentially find intellectual stimulation challenging to their pre-existing beliefs, experience uncomfortable and unpleasant feelings however they would still feel the need to conform to the transformational leader and be dependable despite these inherent feelings. As such, it is possible that high follower conscientiousness would moderate the TL/OCB relationship such that followers who identify as having high conscientiousness and perceive high transformational leadership will exhibit higher levels of OCBO/OCBI.

Charismatic leaders inspire self-efficacious behaviour in followers, emphasise follower beliefs and clarify purpose (Bass, 1991), therefore those who are high in conscientiousness may be more likely to experience engagement and would also subsequently be more likely to display increased personal levels of OCBI and OCBOs due to their will to achieve (Digman, 1990). Charismatic leaders may also impact followers with high conscientiousness by positive reinforcement of the followers pre-existing habits of being hardworking, dependable, achievement orientated and conforming (Digman, 1990; Barrick & Mount, 1991). As such it is expected that follower conscientiousness could moderate the TL and OCB relationship, more specifically in relation to intellectual stimulation and charisma. Therefore, I hypothesised the following:

Hypothesis 3 (H3)

Follower conscientiousness will moderate the relationship between TL (intellectual stimulation) and charisma (idealised influence, inspirational motivation) and follower OCB (OCBI & OCBO) such that OCBs will be higher in the presence of intellectual stimulation and charisma when conscientiousness is high compared to low.

OCBs & Follower Neuroticism. Le et al. (2011) found that initially follower emotional stability (the inverse of neuroticism) is positively related to OCB however that this relationship decreases in low-complexity jobs. Low-complexity jobs are those that require speed and accuracy but are not highly complex or creative (Mount, Oh, & Burns, 2008). Neuroticism has shown a meaningful negative relationship with both OCBI and OCBO (Chiaburu et al., 2018; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000). Aspects of neuroticism such as irritability, and hostility have been linked to lower levels of OCB (DeYoung et al., 2007; Felfe & Schyns, 2004; Lee & Allen, 2002). N. P. Podsakoff et al. (2018) asserts that theoretically another aspect of neuroticism, volatility, will also be negatively related to OCBs. Conversely, Borman (1993) found neuroticism more predictive of task performance and OCBs.

TL, OCB, Follower Neuroticism. Transformational Leaders typically display low levels of neuroticism (Bono & Judge, 2004), and increased follower neuroticism has been linked to lower levels of OCBs (Chiaburu et al., 2018; DeYoung et al., 2007; Felfe & Schyns, 2004; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000) although little research has looked at whether follower's neuroticism impacts the relationship between TLs and OCB. Whilst Felfe and Schyns (2010) maintain that the more similar the follower is to the leader, the more effective TL is, there is an argument that given the intrinsic capabilities of a TL, the calming and positive influence they invoke (Bass, 1985a), and the faith and confidence they instil suggests that followers with high neuroticism will benefit from transformational leaders (Guay & Choi, 2015; Yukl, 1999). Indeed, Bass (1985a) notes that TLs help followers by providing personal mentoring and individual attention which may instil confidence and increase self-worth in followers (Howell & Shamir, 2005) which could be reassuring to those high in neuroticism. Recently, Guay and Choi (2015) found that neuroticism moderates the relationship between TL and OCB such that both the OCBI and OCBO are stronger when perceived TL and follower neuroticism are higher.

Charisma (idealised influence and inspirational motivation) should make those followers with high neuroticism feel more self-efficacious and therefore reduce their anxiety levels which would lead to more OCBO behaviours (e.g. less sick leave) and OCBI behaviours (e.g. being more attentive and positive amongst co-workers). Guay and Choi (2015) assert that followers who identify as being high in neuroticism are

more sensitive to TL and as such intellectual stimulation should benefit neurotic followers as they may feel more comfortable addressing problems that would otherwise cause anxiety such as finding innovative solutions to address the organisational problems. Individualised consideration is likely to improve self-worth and self-confidence in neurotic followers (Guay & Choi, 2015; Howell & Shamir, 2005) which would subsequently illicit discretionary behaviours towards the organisation.

Yukl (1999) suggests that followers are more receptive to Transformational Leadership if they are anxious, insecure and lack self-esteem. Accordingly, followers with high self-esteem would not perceive exceptional leadership qualities and accordingly not attribute charisma (Yukl, 1999). Felfe and Schyns (2006) noted that if this assumption was correct, one would expect that both follower neuroticism would moderate the TL-OCB relationship, such that the positive relationship between TL and OCBs would be stronger when follower neuroticism is higher. Given the recent literature suggesting that neuroticism moderates the TL/OCB relationship and the intrinsic components of TL that should illicit compliance and increase OCB, hypothesis the following:

Hypothesis 4 (H4).

Follower neuroticism will moderate the relationship between TL (idealised influence, inspirational motivation, individual consideration, intellectual stimulation) and follower OCB (OCBI & OCBO) such that OCBs will be higher in the presence of TL (idealised influence, inspirational motivation, individual consideration, intellectual stimulation) when neuroticism is high compared to low.

OCBs & Follower Agreeableness. As previously discussed*,* Chiaburu et al. (2018) found follower agreeableness a predictor of OCBs. When both OCBI and OCBO were analysed separately however, agreeableness a better predictor of OCBI (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; Ilies et al., 2009).   Chiaburu et al. (2011) noted that predictively agreeableness is linked to both OCBI and OCBO. Ilies (2009) found agreeableness did not have any meaningful relationship with OCBO but those with high levels of agreeableness were more likely to engage in OCBIs. DeYoung et al. (2007) found the trait of agreeableness appropriate for OCB as a single construct and Chiaburu et al. (2018) also proposed those with high levels of agreeableness are more likely to engage in OCBIs.

TL, OCB, Agreeableness.   Inspection of previous research reveals that no studies have explored the potential of agreeableness to moderate the TL-OCB relationship. However, a personality theory perspective provides some theoretical support for it potentially to be a moderator. Indeed, previous literature has found that employees high in agreeableness have tended to also demonstrate high OCBIs (Ilies et al., 2009). Further, research reveals that followers with high levels of agreeableness are more likely to engage in team work, cooperation and helpfulness (McCrae & John, 1992). Theoretically, then, followers high in agreeableness may be more sensitive to TLs, in particular, individualised consideration as this factor is related to mentoring and coaching (Avolio & Bass, 1988) and those high in agreeableness may feel inclined to oblige to their instructions.

Charismatic leaders (idealised influence, inspirational motivation) may also positively affect those demonstrating high agreeableness as this factor is concerned with trust, encouragement and motivation (Avolio & Bass, 1998) however, if they are already highly agreeable this may have limited positive impact on OCBIs as those who identify as being highly agreeable tend to be trusting and enjoy contributing and helping others (Power & Pluess, 2015). Similarly, those who identify with high levels of agreeableness may benefit from intellectual stimulation. as this factor involves creativity and challenges the follower to approach situations in new ways to solve problems (Avolio & Bass, 1988). Those who identify as having high agreeableness

care about others and feel the need to assist and help therefore they may be more sensitive to this TL trait (Power & Pluess, 2015).

As TLs facilitate an increase in OCBIs (Choi, 2007; Cohen et al., 2012; Kirkman et al., 2009), it is expected that individuals high in agreeableness will oblige and conform to the expectations of the TL thereby increasing their OCBIs. Conversely, followers who score low in agreeableness generally put their own interests before others, are distant, uncooperative and unfriendly (Digman, 1990). Given these traits are counterproductive to both OCBs and effective TL it is expected that low follower agreeableness will also moderate the positive relationship between TL and OCBI such that the relationship will be weaker when follower agreeableness is lower.

Hypothesis 5 (H5).

Follower agreeableness will moderate the relationship between TL (idealised influence, inspirational motivation, individual consideration, intellectual stimulation) and follower OCBI such that OCBI will be higher in the presence of TL (idealised influence, inspirational motivation, individual consideration, intellectual stimulation) when agreeableness is high compared to low.

OCB & Openness. Openness has been found to be positively associated with increased levels of OCBI indicating that the factor influences the communication process and relationships between other members (Suresh & Venkatammal, 2010). Akinbode (2011) also found openness was a positive significant predictor of overall OCBs. Conversely, Singh and Singh (2009) found no significant relationship between OCB and openness and Nikoloau (2003) found that the positive impact of follower openness is job specific and not a general predictor of OCBs.

TL, OCB & Openness. Although openness is related to divergent thinking (Judge & Bono, 2000), analytic and problem solving (Bono, Shen, Yoon, & Day, 2014) and leader emergence (Judge & Bono, 2000), previous studies have failed to link leader TL to openness (Bono & Judge, 2004). Felfe and Schyns (2010) also postulated that follower agreeableness would be related to TL based on the similarity principle however the results were predominantly insignificant (except for continuance engagement ($r= -0.22$, $p<0.01$)). The lack of evidence linking openness to OCBs as well as TL may be in line with Nikoloau's (2003) theory that openness is job specific and cannot be generalised.

Guay and Choi (2015), although they did not hypothesis that openness would moderate the TL and OCB relationship, included openness in their hierarchical regression analysis and found no significance. Given the fact that an effective transformational leader creates a vision, guides and leads the follower towards that vision reducing their resistance towards change and facilitating employee empowerment and self-efficacy (Bass, 1991), it is likely the core skills of a TL actually negate any need for an employee to have a high level of openness which is why previously it has been insignificant. Based on previous research it is unlikely that follower openness will moderate the TL/OCB relationship, however, for the purposes of this research it was included in the regression analysis.

2.4   *Overall Model*

The overall model below outlines the key theories being investigated in this study. Firstly, the researcher was seeking to affirm that TL is positively related to both OCBI and OCBO (H1). Secondly, the researcher was seeking to confirm the findings of a previous study that have shown low follower extraversion is positively linked to TL and OCBO and OCBI such that the positive relationship is stronger when follower extraversion is lower (H2). Thirdly, the study also was seeking to establish the moderating influence of follower conscientiousness such that the positive link between TL, specifically charisma (idealised influence, inspirational motivation) and intellectual stimulation and follower OCB (OCBI & OCBO) will be stronger when follower conscientiousness is higher (H3). Additionally, the researcher was seeking to validate existing literature showing the moderating influence of follower neuroticism by examining whether follower neuroticism will moderate the relationship between TL (idealised influence, inspirational motivation, individual consideration, intellectual stimulation) and follower OCB (OCBI & OCBO) such that the relationship is stronger when follower neuroticism is higher (H4). Finally, the researcher was also seeking to test the theory that follower agreeableness will moderate the relationship between TL (idealised influence, inspirational motivation, individual consideration, intellectual stimulation) and follower OCBI such that the relationship will be stronger when follower agreeableness is higher (H5).

Figure 2.a. *Overall Model to be tested*


```
┌─────────────────────────────┐                    ┌─────────────────────────┐
│ Transformational            │                    │ Organisational          │
│ Leadership                  │                    │ Citizenship behaviours  │
│ (Intellectual Stimulation,  │    (H1)            │ (OCBI & OCBO)           │
│ Inspirational Motivation,   │ ─────────────────► │                         │
│ Individualised Consideraton,│                    └─────────────────────────┘
│ Idealised Influence)        │          ▲
└─────────────────────────────┘          │
                              ┌──────────┴──────────────┐
                              │ Follower Personality Traits │
                              │ Extraversion (H2)          │
                              │ Conscientiousness (H3)     │
                              │ Neuroticism (H4)           │
                              │ Agreeableness (H5)         │
                              └────────────────────────────┘
```
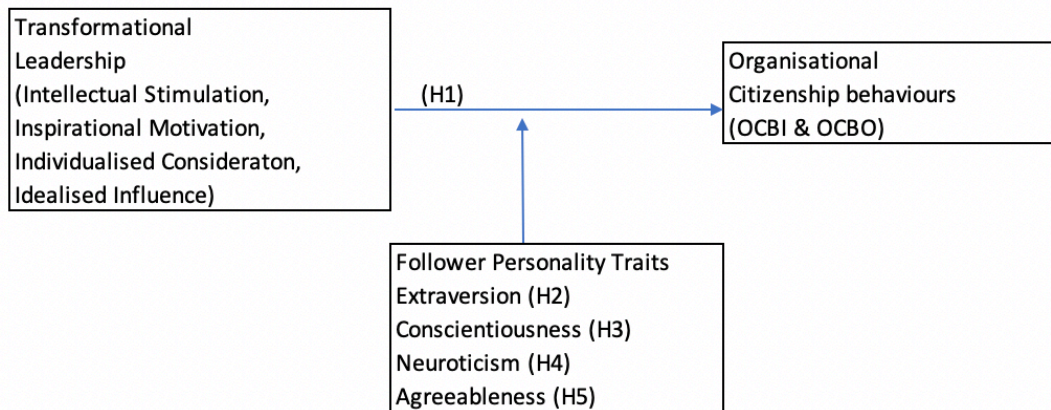
Chapter 3: Research Design

3.1 *Methodology and Research Design*

Methodology. The research was conducted using a quantitative research method embedded in a post positivist approach. A post positivist methodology assumes, unlike positivism, that there is no dualistic thinking or neutral knowledge and that objectivity and subjectivity is socially constructed and recognises the complexity of individual experiences (Brannen, 2012; Hammersley, 1992; Ryan, 2006). A post positive approach using quantitative data attempts to link variables, predict potential outcomes, defines categories before conducting research and determines any relationship between them as well as taking a learning position from the results of the data (Ryan, 2006). Punch (2000) notes that when theory verification is the emphasis of the study as opposed to theory generation or modification then pre-structured data using quantitative research is the most appropriate method for data collection. As the rationale behind the research was to examine existing theories, pre-structured well-developed scales were used to analyse whether the key variables interacted and/or impacted upon each other.

3.2 *Participants*

The participants were members of an on-line platform called Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTURK) which is a crowdsourcing marketplace that provides workers participants with Human Intelligence Tasks (HIT: surveys). Once participants complete the HIT they are renumerated. The HIT that was posted on-line specified how much the participant would get for completing the survey ($1 US dollar) and how many participants were needed.[1] A total of 450 HITs were offered over two weeks. The participants were informed that the survey would take approximately 20 minutes

---

[1] The rationale behind the small monetary incentive is further discussed in section 3.4.

to complete however they were not given any cut off times or maximum time to complete the survey. The survey participants had to be 'qualified' meaning they had to have completed a HIT successfully previously, had to be employed full-time for a minimum of one year in their current organisation, over the age of eighteen and from a western country (Australia, United Kingdom, USA, New Zealand, and Canada). The amount of completed HITs was 323. The survey was ended after two weeks as the MTURK system posts new jobs up on their notice board to respondents therefore older jobs are often not seen by potential respondents. The strict qualifications for the survey participants may have also affected the response rate.

Overall, a total of 321 usable surveys were completed for the study, of which 196 participants identified as male (61.1%) and 125 participants identified as female (38.9%). There was a wide age range (18 years to 73 years) with a mean age of 35.30 years (SD = 10.31), a median of 33 years and the mode 32 years. Participants reported a mean tenure in their organisation of 7.32 years (SD = 1.79). The majority of participants reported having undergraduate degrees 45.2% (145) with the remaining participants completing a graduate degree 30.2% (97), high school 12.1% (39), diploma 6.1% (21), a trade qualification 3.4% (11) or a PHD/Doctorate 2.5% (8).

As MTURK is owned and run by Amazon and has predominately US workers, the overwhelming majority of respondents identified as being from the United States 91.6% (294). The other respondents identified as being from the United Kingdom 5.3% (17), Canada 1.6% (5), Australia 1.2% (4) and New Zealand .3% (1).

The participants were also asked about their current role within their organisation. The majority of participants held a management position 19.6% (63), followed by a technical position 18.4% (59), administration 18.1% (58) and client contact 18.1% (59). A total of 16.2% (52) identified as being a team leader or supervisor, jobs with no client contact (e.g. manufacturing) accounted for 7.5% (24) of respondents with senior management accounting for 2.2% (7).

3.3 *Instruments*

All survey questions measuring independent variables, moderating variables and dependent variables were either directly quoted from pre-existing substantiated surveys or adapted from pre-existing validated surveys.

Transformational leadership. There are a number of validated scales to measure TL with the most frequently used being the multifactor leadership questionnaire MLQ (B. M. Bass & B. J. Avolio, 1992; Bono & Judge, 2004; Mhatre & Riggio, 2014). The questionnaire is self-rated and looks at four transformational and three transactional leadership identifiers. Leaders previously surveyed using the MLQ have been observed to have a self-rating bias (Judge et al., 2002; Lord, De Vader, & Alliger, 1986) which is in line with the concept of 'socially desirable responding ' (SDR) where respondents deliberately respond with socially desirable responses that are not accurate or genuinely reflective of the respondent (Van de Mortel, 2008). A study on self-reporting bias found that 53% of participant's results had evidence of SDR (Van de Mortel, 2008). Given that leadership is follower perception (Felfe & Schyns, 2010; Naber & Moffett III, 2017), it is more pertinent to survey leader behaviours through the lens of the follower. Philip M Podsakoff et al. (2003) also noted that the MLQ should not be self-rated due to common method variance and as such the scale will be given to followers only and the wording changed slightly to reflect this (See Appendix B). As such, whilst the MLQ was still used as the instrument of measurement, the scale was purposely changed to be follower rated.

The scale used to measure TL was the Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire 6S (1992) that assess the four factors of TL; inspirational motivation, individualised consideration, idealised influence and intellectual stimulation (B. M. Bass & B. J. Avolio, 1992). It should be noted that the MLQ 6S also contains questions pertaining to transactional leadership theory however they were not the focus of this study. The questions that were asked related to the follower's perceptions of their leader therefore the questions were altered slightly. For example, "I make others feel good to be around

me" was changed to "My manager makes others feel good to be around them" and "I enable others to think about old problems in new ways" was changed to "My manager enables others to think about old problems in new ways", (See Appendix A for the full list of questions asked) (B. M. Bass & B. J. Avolio, 1992). A total of twelve questions were asked and three questions for each factor, idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration were asked in total (B. M. Bass & B. J. Avolio, 1992). The responses to the questions were based on a Likert scale with the allowed responses being "Not at all, Once in a while, Sometimes, Fairly often and Frequently, if not always"(B. M. Bass & B. J. Avolio, 1992). As the MLQ (1992) survey was to assess an individual's personal reflection on their own management styles therefore in accordance with the hypothesis, the survey was changed to assess follower opinions of their manager's style (For example, "I make", was changed to "My manager makes").

Five Factor Model of Personality. Personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, openness, neuroticism and conscientiousness) were assessed based on the five-factor model (FFM) (Costa Jr & McCrae, 1992; Donnellan et al., 2006; Gosling et al., 2003). There are many validated existing scales for the big-five factor structure (Costa Jr & McCrae, 1992; Digman, 1990; Goldberg, 1990), some of which include over 250 questions. The decision was made to find the most reliable abbreviated scale as other questions were being asked in the survey and there are existing concerns over long questionnaires and participants time affecting validity (Donnellan et al., 2006; Gosling et al., 2003). Shorter questionnaires have been shown to improve on-line response rates (Nulty, 2008; Quinn, 2002). The abbreviated model known as the Mini-IPIP 10 item short form scale published by UWECK University was deemed reliable as it was tested in many different countries and languages and the findings consistently loaded to statistically acceptable levels (Donnellan et al., 2006). This short form scale has also been successfully used in a number of subsequent studies (Aneshensel, 2012; Donnellan et al., 2006; Grant & Berry, 2011; Waterman et al., 2010). The responses were again based on a five-point Likert scale with the responses being, "very accurate, moderately accurate, neither accurate or inaccurate, moderately inaccurate, very inaccurate". Questions that were asked included "I am the life of the party" which tests extraversion, "I get chores done right away" which tests

conscientiousness, "I have frequent mood swings" which tests neuroticism, "I have a vivid imagination" which tests openness, "I sympathise with others' feelings" which tests agreeableness (See Appendix B for full scale) (Donnellan et al., 2006). Small grammatical modifications were made to the survey as discussed below. It should be noted that Donnellan (2006) notes the identifier "openness or openness to experience" as "intellect/imagination" and states that the labels are used interchangeably. For the purposes of this study the term "openness" was used. The Mini-IPIP was also altered slightly for grammatical purposes. For example, "Am the life of the party", was altered to "I am the life of the party" (Donnellan et al., 2006). No other alterations were made.

Organisational Citizenship Behaviours (OCBs). The scale used to test OCB was also a pre-existing scale by Williams and Anderson (1991). This particular survey was chosen as the survey assesses behaviours centric to the organisation (for example; giving advance notice of absence) as well as behaviours associated with the personal interests and welfare of other employees (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Whilst there are a number of scales that measure OCB (Bateman & Organ, 1983; P. M. Podsakoff et al., 1990; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983), Williams and Anderson's (1991) OCB construct, which delineates two factors OCBI (individual) and OCBO (organisation) is widely used and contains the most unambiguous OCB terminology (Organ, 1997). The answers were again based on a 5-point Likert scale with the responses being, "Strongly agree, moderately agree, neither agree or disagree, moderately disagree and strongly disagree". A total of fourteen questions were asked, seven related to OCBI and seven related to OCBO. Questions that were asked included, "Helps others who have been absent" which related to OCBI and "Attendance at work is above the norm" which related to OCBO. No modifications were made to the existing scale (See Appendix C for the full scale).

Covariates. Based on previous research, gender, age and tenure were controlled for in this study. Females are more likely to be transformational leaders (Bass, 1999; Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & Van Engen, 2003; Eagly & Johnson, 1990) and rate higher on inspirational motivation and idealised influence (Martin, 2015). Gender (or sex) has been shown previously to impact OCBs (Emami et al., 2012), although not conclusively as these results have not always been replicated

(Cheung & Cheung, 2013). Given the potential for gender to influence both the IVs and the DVs it was decided to control for this potential impact of sex in step one of the hierarchical regression analysis.

Age has also been shown to positively impact follower OCBs (Wanxian & Weiwu, 2007) as well as tenure with longer tenured employees exhibiting increased OCBs (Ng & Feldman, 2010). Little research indicting if follower age or tenure has any impact on the effectiveness or perception of TL behaviours with most studies controlling for age and tenure (Guay & Choi, 2015; Gumusluoglu & Ilsev, 2009). Based on the previous research specifically denoting the impact of age and tenure on OCBs, age and tenure, these questions were asked so they could be subsequently controlled for in step one for all hierarchal regression analysis. (See Appendix C for full list of identifying questions)

3.4 *Procedure and Timeline*

Procedure and Timeline. The survey was undertaken using Qualtrics and offered to participants on the MTURK platform. A small monetary incentive ($1US for the completion of the survey) was used was to increase participation and response rates (Church, 1993; Quinn, 2002; Yu & Cooper, 1983). There is evidence to suggest that incentives may provide better quality responses (Baumgartner, Rathbun, Boyle, Welsh, & Laughland, 1998; Singer & Kulka, 2002). The survey was offered on-line for two weeks. Although Mason, Lesser, and Traugott (1999) found persuading reluctant respondents to participate can lead to missing data, Singer and Kulka (2002) found paying participants to complete surveys may elicit responses from groups of individuals who may have been unwilling or unlikely to participate in the first instance. Given no advertisements were undertaken aside from the internal posting to MTURK members and the monetary amount was small, the threat posed by Mason et al. (1999) was deemed negligible. The survey was completed anonymously, and participants were provided with an anonymous code at the end of the survey that they used to be reimbursed by MTURK at the conclusion of survey. Participants were only able to complete the survey if they came from a Western country (e.g., Australia, United

Kingdom, USA, New Zealand, and Canada).   The majority of respondents identified as being from the United States of America.

3.5   Methodological Limitations

MTURK. Some limitations of using MTURK as the platform for the survey is that users are able to re-route their VPN using programs to make it appear that they are in a different country.   Also, the survey relies on the participants making honest answers and understanding the questions. Singer and Kulka (1999) noted that monetary incentives can entice low-income sample surveys therefore it should not be ruled out that some data may not be accurate in respect to annual income, country of origin, etc.

OCB Measurement. Whilst there is an argument that OCBs should not be self-rated (Organ & Ryan, 1995), other studies have found that supervisor rating and self-ratings show significant convergence (Carpenter, Berry, & Houston, 2014). Self-reporting causes common method variance, social desirability and the consistency motif (P. M. Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). One way to try and control for common method variance is to obtain data from different sources (Philip M Podsakoff et al., 2003), specifically different organisations. Some studies have attempted to control for common method variance when testing OCB by asking the follower's leader. Whilst this is accurate for measuring task performance (Borman et al., 2001), the researcher postulates that in relation to OCBI, the leader or manager would only be able to accurately describe the follower's discretionary behaviours in relation to them and would not be privy to other OCBI behaviours pertaining to other employees. For example, emailing a work colleague to see if they needed help or phoning them if they had called in sick to make sure they are okay. In relation to OCBO the same problem exists as the leader would not be aware of how the employee represents the ethos of their organisation to others. For example, whether they wear the company logo outside of work hours.

Bolino and Turnley (2005) noted that a positive supervisor assessment of employee OCBs due to an employees' high productivity may also result in work-family conflict and harmful relationship outcomes. This indicates that theoretically supervisor assessment of OCBs may not be an accurate indicator of OCBOs as whilst the employee may display discretionary behaviours to their supervisor, if they are experiencing work-family conflict then they may not engage in OCBOs. It also may mean that over-time their level of OCBs will reduce to balance the work-family conflict. Realistically, it is very difficult, if not impossible to measure an individual's OCBI and OCBO as it would require a culmination of information to be collected by supervisors, fellow employees, peers, significant others as well as the individual employee.

Sample Demographics. The demographics of the survey sample were people from Western Countries, over the age of eighteen and who had worked continuously in their employment for the last year. By not including other countries, it is impossible to get a perspective on whether country culture may impact the findings of the study. Also, the majority of participants were around 30 years old and identified as male. Therefore, any findings in terms of whether gender or age had an impact on this study have limited validity and were not analysed.

MLQ Measurement. As stated before, the study was not conducted on leader-follower dyads therefore it is difficult to ascertain if self-rated TL is comparable with follower-rated TL although they are extremely similar, they are essentially analysing different constructs. It should be noted that follower-rated TL does circumvent the Dunning-Kruger effect (1999) therefore it would be expected that self-rated and follower-rated surveys would illicit different results.

Chapter 4: Results

Overview of Analyses. All analyses were conducted using SPSS version 23 for Mac. The data consisted of self-reported ratings for the multifactor leadership questionnaire, the Mini-IPIP personality traits short answer questionnaire, organisational citizenship behaviours for both individual and organisation. Individual responses were obtained through Qualtrics using the MTURK platform and comprised of qualified individuals over the age of eighteen who had continuously worked in their organisation full-time for a minimum of one year. As there was a time frame for completing the survey, participants who did not complete the survey within the specific time frame were not included in the data used. The data was also inspected to identify participants responding with all the same value to all questions. No cases were identified and removed. The remaining missing data was less than 5% and a list wise deletion was undertaken in order to generate a complete dataset for use with AMOS. This is in line with Schafer's (1999) assertion that data sets with less than 5% missing is inconsequential.

4.1 *Exploratory Factor Analysis*

Notwithstanding the fact that all surveys used were pre-existing scales, an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) on the combined data (N =321) was performed using SPSS 23.0 to check the factor structure of the variables and the strength of the relationship between each variable and their corresponding factor (DeCoster, 1998). The Kaiser-Myer-Olkin (1974) (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was undertaken with the result (*KMO* = .92) being above acceptable parameters (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2009). It was also above the recommended minimum threshold of 0.60 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). As the result was higher than .80 it indicates a measure of sampling adequacy and justifies the use of a factor analysis (Kaiser, 1974). Bartlett's (1950) test of spherity was undertaken to measure the appropriateness of the factor model (χ^2 = 9407.11, *p* <.001.) that indicated enough correlation between variables to validate the use of a factor analysis (Hair et al., 2009). It also signals rejection of the null hypothesis is accurate and the data is statistically appropriate for a factor analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

4.2 *Factor Analyses of Transformational Leadership Scale*

Two separate factor analytic investigations were undertaken to ensure that the Transformational Leadership variables used in the study loaded adequately onto each separate factor and to ensure that multicollinearity was not a threat to the analyses It is important to note that although the MLQ contains seven latent variables, only four relate to Transformational Leadership and the other three are associated with transactional leadership (B. M. Bass & B. J. Avolio, 1992). Therefore, the analysis was only conducted on the four variables directly corresponding to Transformational Leadership.

4.3 *Confirmatory Factor Analysis – Transformational Leadership - Four Factor Model*

A Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted, using AMOS 23.0 to assess the fit of the 4-category Transformational Leadership model (i.e., idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration) to the data (Bass, 1991). The data however, displayed signs of multicollinearity with very high correlations between the two factors of Transformational Leadership, idealised influence and inspirational motivation ($r = 1.03$) which is consistent with Bass's (1992) claim that the factors are interrelated. Further inspection of the latent variables revealed that deleting any items would not reduce the issue of the strong relationship between idealised influence and inspirational motivation. Bass (1992) noted that idealised influence and inspirational motivation together fit within the definition of charismatic leadership which may explain the incidence of multicollinearity existing between these two latent variables. Studies conducted by Howell and Avolio (1993), Avolio et al. (1999) and Phaneuf et al. (2016) experienced the same issue of multicollinearity between these two variables and subsequently combined idealised influence and inspirational motivation renaming the latent variable "Charisma". We then proceeded to combine the two latent variables of idealised influence and inspirational motivation, relabelled them "Charisma" and reran the model.

4.4   *Confirmatory Factor Analysis – Transformational Leadership - Three Factor Model*

A second confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted, using AMOS 23.0 to assess the fit of a 3-category Transformational Leadership model (charisma, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration) to the data (Bass, 1992).   Table 4.1 below illustrates the results of the standardised estimates of each factor with all standardised estimates loading significantly onto their corresponding latent variable. To ensure the non-normal data did not influence the results, a Bollen-Stine bootstrap procedure (1000 iterations) was employed (Bollen & Stine, 1992). This analysis was not significant indicating that the chi-square indicator of model fit was not inflated and the model is a good fit to the data (Bollen & Stine, 1992).

Table 4.1: Confirmatory factor analysis of Transformational Leadership 3 factor model using AMOS

Transformational Leadership Items	Standardised Estimates		
	Charisma	Intellectual Stimulation	Individualised Consideration
My manager makes others feel good to be around them	.82		
My manager has complete faith in me.	.79		
My colleagues are proud to be associated with my manager	.78		
My manager expresses with a few simple words what we could and should do.	.66		
My manager provides appealing images about what we can do	.78		
My manager helps others find meaning in their work	.80		
My manager enables others to think about old problems in new ways		.77	
My manager provides others with new ways of looking at puzzling things.		.88	
My manager gets others to rethink ideas that they had never questioned before.		.74	
My manager helps others develop themselves			.82
My manager lets others know how they think they are doing			.73
My manager gives personal attention to others who seem rejected			.68
Highest Item SMC	.77		
Lowest Item SMC	.42		

Note. SMC = squared multiple correlation.

Table 4.2 below highlights the fit indices relating to the CFA and indicate a reasonable fit of the model to the data with acceptable parameters identified by Hu and Bentler (1999) and Browne and Cudeck (1993). The SRMR and RMSEA (SRMR = 0.034, RMSEA = 0.08) was within acceptable parameters. The CMIN/DF was 3.03 which is slightly above the recommended benchmark of 3.0 (Marsh, Balla, & McDonald, 1988). The RMSEA was within the acceptable range (.08) (Steiger & Lind, 1980) and the standardized RMR was .03 being under the preferred cut-off of .05 (Bentler, 1995). The CFI was only slightly over the acceptable minimum of .95 (.96) indicating overall appropriateness of the latent variables (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Overall these analyses indicated a good fit for the data.

Modification indices were also inspected. Independent variables cross-loaded on the covariance modification indices and the regression weights were all under 14 therefore no changes to the model were made (Byrne, 2001; Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2014).

Table 4.2   Goodness of fit statistics for confirmatory factor analysis for Transformational Leadership (three factor Model)

Goodness of Fit Statistics	Value
Chi-square/DF	3.03
CFI	.96
NFI	.94
RMSEA	.08
Standardised RMR	.03

The specific model, along with parameter estimates is illustrated in Table 4.1. Overall, the fit indices indicated adequate fit. Based on the CFA analysis, the correlations between the factors of Transformational Leadership are consistent with Bass's (1991) claim that the factors are interrelated. The amalgamation of the two latent variables, idealised influence and inspirational motivation renamed as 'charisma' reduced the issue of multicollinearity to although high but acceptable levels. Howell and Avolio (1993) had a similar issue in their study of Transformational Leadership and organisational outcomes and reduced their version of the MLQ to contain only three subscales; charisma, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration. Therefore, the use of the latent variable 'charisma' is statistically a better model fit.

Cronbach's alpha (1955) was calculated on all three latent variables (See Table 4.3). Most latent variables loaded over the ideal level of α = .80 or above (Santos, 1999). A further test was conducted on SPSS to ascertain if removal of an item would increase validity however the result was a reduction in validity therefore no items were removed.

Descriptive data analysis. Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations and range) as well as intercorrelations among focal variables are displayed in Table 4.3. With exception to the latent variables relating to Transformational Leadership, all correlations were low to moderate, ranging from negligible to $r = .57$ indicating that multicollinearity was not a significant threat (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). There was an issue with the identifiers of Transformational Leadership loading considerably high, between $r = .73$ to $r = .83$, with the highest being charisma and individualised consideration at $r = .83$. As these latent variables load onto the same independent variable, the objective was to use the MLQ without substantial modification and previous studies have also encountered this issue (Carless, 1998; Den Hartog, Van Muijen, & Koopman, 1997), the decision was made not to modify the scales. These limitations will be discussed further.

Table 4.3 Descriptive data for focal variables

	Variables	Mean (SD)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1	Charisma	13.70 (5.42)	(.90)												
2	Intellectual Stimulation	7.20 (3.02)	.77**	(.87)											
3	Individualised Consideration	6.51 (2.72)	.83**	.73**	(.77)										
4	OCBI	29.99 (5.29)	.41**	.33**	.38**	(.87)									
5	OCB -O	27.38 (5.05)	.28*	.15**	.24**	.50**	(.77)								
6	Openness	14.97 (3.47)	.19**	.16**	.18**	.25**	.41**	(.73)							
7	Conscientiousness	14.54 (3.43)	.32**	.17**	.23**	.33**	.57**	.29**	(.70)						
8	Extraversion	15.52 (3.94)	.21**	.28**	.22**	.19**	-.09	.23**	-.01	(.76)					
9	Agreeableness	14.59 (3.54)	.28**	.20**	.25**	.50**	.38**	.44**	.31**	.23**	(.78)				
10	Neuroticism	9.96 (3.58)	-.24**	-.16**	-.20**	-.25**	-.42**	-.28**	-.53**	-.22**	-.23**	(.71)			
11	Tenure	7.32 (6.45)	.16**	.12*	.13*	.11	.19**	.12*	.18**	-.03	.14*	-.17**			
12	Age	35.30 (10.31)	.08	.00	.50	.23**	.34**	.15**	.20**	-.05	.23**	-.18**	.47**		
13	Sex	1.39 (.49)	.08	.06	.02	.19**	.15**	.10	.13*	.03	.25**	.02	.06	.13*	

Note. Cronbach's (1951) alpha reliability coefficients appear in the diagonal.
    $^*p < .05$; $^{**}p < .005$

Common Method Variance. Harman's single-factor test was used to assess the potential effects of Common Method Variance (CMV) (P. M. Podsakoff, S. B. Mackenzie, J. Y. Lee, & N. P. Podsakoff, 2003). An Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) using varimax rotation was conducted using all single items associated with the focal variables of this study. The unrotated factor solution revealed fourteen separate factors with the first factor only accounting for 26% of total variance. As such, common method variance was not considered a reasonable threat in the extant study.

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses. The hypotheses were tested using six separate hierarchical multiple regression analyses (see Tables, 4.5, 4.6 and 4.7). Predictor variables were mean-centered in order to circumvent issues relating to multicollinearity between the main effects and two-way interactions (see Aiken & West, 1991). For all analyses, the control variables were entered on Step 1 (age, sex and number of years worked in the organization), the main effects (charisma, intellectual stimulation, individualised consideration, extraversion, openness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, agreeableness) were entered on Step 2, and interaction terms with the latent independent variables (i.e., extraversion x charisma) entered on Step 3. Results are deemed significant at $p < .05$ as the research has used previously validated existing scales and the research is not exploratory but rather assessing the interactive effects between the existing scales.

Based on previous research, gender, age and tenure was controlled for in all hierarchical regression analyses. Based on the previous research denoting the impact of gender, age and tenure on OCBs, they were controlled for in step one for all hierarchal regression analysis (Emami et al., 2012; Ng & Feldman, 2010; Wanxian & Weiwu, 2007).

For the first regression, the dependent variable was OCBI. The control variables were entered on Step 1 (age, sex and number of years worked in the organization), the main effects (intellectual stimulation, extraversion, openness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, agreeableness) were entered on Step 2, and interaction terms with the latent independent variables (i.e., intellectual stimulation x extraversion, intellectual stimulation x openness, intellectual stimulation x

conscientiousness, intellectual stimulation x neuroticism, intellectual stimulation x agreeableness) entered on Step 3, (See Table 4.7).

For the second regression, the dependent variable was OCBO. The control variables were entered on Step 1 (age, sex and number of years worked in the organization), the main effects (intellectual stimulation, extraversion, openness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, agreeableness) were entered on Step 2, and interaction terms with the latent independent variables (i.e., intellectual stimulation x extraversion, intellectual stimulation x openness, intellectual stimulation x conscientiousness, intellectual stimulation x neuroticism, intellectual stimulation x agreeableness) were entered on Step 3, (See Table 4.7).

For the third regression, the dependent variable was OCBI. The control variables were entered on Step 1 (age, sex and number of years worked in the organization), the main effects (individualised consideration , extraversion, openness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, agreeableness) were entered on Step 2, and interaction terms with the latent independent variables (i.e., individualised consideration x extraversion, individualised consideration x openness, individualised consideration x conscientiousness, individualised consideration x neuroticism, individualised consideration x agreeableness) entered on Step 3, (See Table 4.8).

For the fourth regression, the dependent variable was OCBO. The control variables were entered on Step 1 (age, sex and number of years worked in the organization), the main effects (individualised consideration, extraversion, openness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, agreeableness) were entered on Step 2, and interaction terms with the latent independent variables (i.e., individualised consideration x extraversion, individualised consideration x openness, individualised consideration x conscientiousness, individualised consideration x neuroticism, individualised consideration x agreeableness) entered on Step 3 (See Table 4.8).

For the fifth regression, the dependent variable was OCBI. The control variables were entered on Step 1 (age, sex and number of years worked in the organization), the main effects (charisma, extraversion, openness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, agreeableness) were entered on Step 2, and interaction terms with the latent independent variables (i.e., charisma x extraversion, charisma x openness, charisma x conscientiousness, charisma x neuroticism, charisma x agreeableness) entered on Step 3, (See Table 4.9).

For the sixth regression, the dependent variable was OCBO. The control variables were entered on Step 1 (age, sex and number of years worked in the organization), the main effects (charisma, extraversion, openness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, agreeableness) were entered on Step 2, and interaction terms with the latent independent variables (i.e., charisma x extraversion, charisma x openness, charisma x conscientiousness, charisma x neuroticism, charisma x agreeableness) entered on Step 3, (See Table 4.9).

Hierarchical Regression Analysis - Transformational Leadership - Intellectual Stimulation, FFM, OCBI & OCBO. As can be observed in Table 4.4, entry of the FFM individual personality trait variables in addition to intellectual stimulation accounted for a significant variance on OCBI (R^2 *ch.* = .28, $F(9,311)$ = 18.96, $p < .001$) and OCBO (R^2 *ch.* = .36, $F(9,311)$ = 32.47, $p < .001$). Entry of the five factor personality variables and Intellectual Stimulation as the identification variable in step 2 found OCBI's were positively related to intellectual stimulation (β = .22, p = .001), agreeableness (β = .37, p = .001), conscientiousness (β = .15, p = .05) but was not significantly related to extraversion, neuroticism or openness. The five factor personality variables and intellectual stimulation were also assessed in a separate regression with the dependent variable OCBO. The results demonstrated that extraversion (β = -.21, p = .001) and neuroticism (β = -.16, p = .05) were significantly negatively related to OCBI whereas agreeableness (β = .14, p = .05), conscientiousness (β = .34, p = .001) and openness (β = .22, p = .001) were positively related to levels of OCBO. Intellectual stimulation was not significantly related to OCBO (β = .07, p = .11).

The interaction between OCBI and intellectual stimulation and the five factor personality variables was then assessed in a third regression which explained variance on OCBI (R^2 $ch.$ = .04, $F(14,306)$ = 13.92, $p < .001$). The results demonstrated a significant interaction between leader intellectual stimulation, follower neuroticism, and OCBI ($\beta = .16$, $p = .05$). There was also a significant interaction between leader intellection stimulation, follower agreeableness and OCBI ($\beta = -.12$, $p = .05$). These interactions were then plotted one standard deviation higher and lower as per Aiken and West (1991) to ascertain if higher or lower levels affect the interaction.

The results revealed that that those with higher levels of follower neuroticism reported significantly higher OCBIs as leader intellectual stimulation increased ($B = .71$, $t(306) = 5.05$, $p < .001$) (See Figure 4.a).

Figure 4.a. Two-way interaction of intellectual stimulation and neuroticism on organisational citizenship behaviour individual

For individuals reporting low neuroticism, levels of OCBI did not significantly increase as perceived intellectual stimulation increased ($B = .15$, $t(306) = 1.18$, $p = ns$).

Additionally, low levels of follower agreeableness and high perceived leader intellectual stimulation was related to higher levels of OCBI (B = .63, $t(306)$ = 4.77, $p<$ .001) (See Figure, 4.b). High levels of agreeableness did not moderate the TL and OCBI relationship (B = .22, $t(306)$ = 1.67, $p = ns$).

A regression was also conducted on the interaction between OCBO, intellectual stimulation and the five factor variables (R^2 $ch.$ = .01, $F(14,306)$ = 21.19, $p < $ .001) however no interactions were statistically significant.
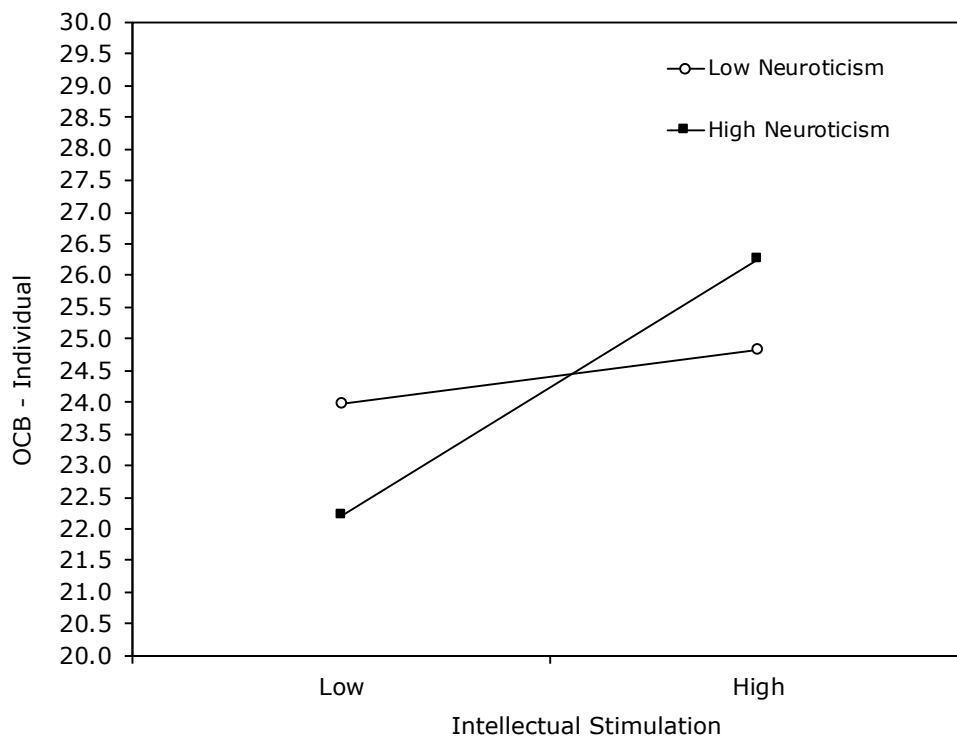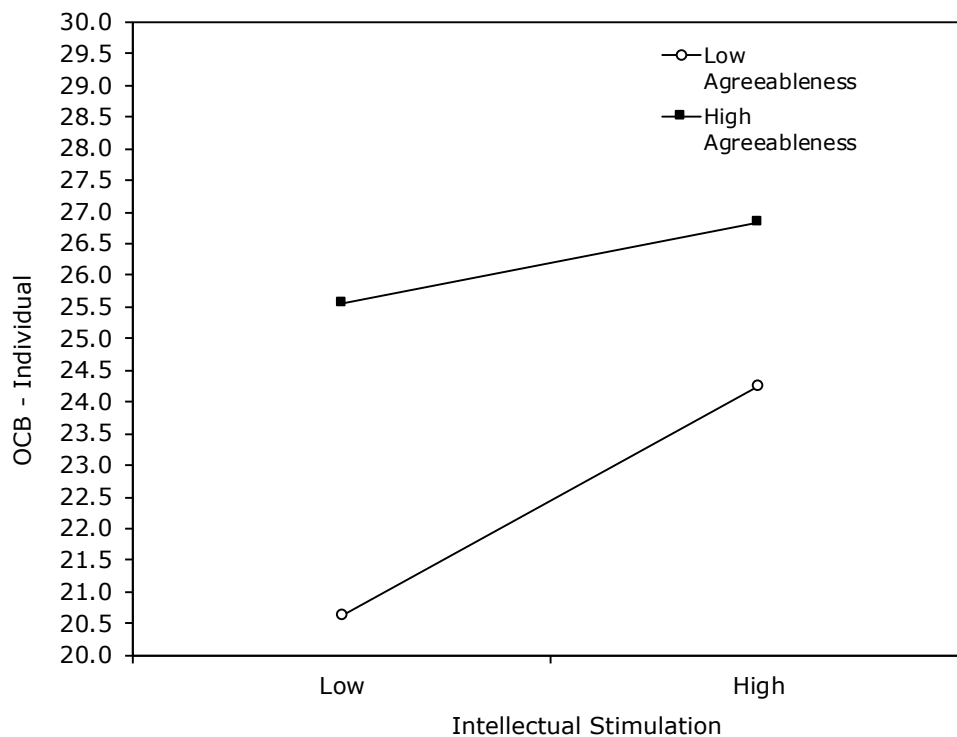

Figure 4.b. Two-way interaction of intellectual stimulation and agreeableness on organisational citizenship behaviour individual

Hierarchical Regression Analysis - Transformational Leadership –
Individualised Consideration, FFM, OCBI & OCBO. A regression was then undertaken on the five factor personality traits (extraversion, openness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, agreeableness), the latent independent variable individualised consideration and dependent variables OCBI and OCBO accounting for control variables as can be observed in Table 4.5. The FFM individual personality variables in addition to individualised consideration accounted for a significant variance on OCBI (R^2 *ch.* = .29, *F*(9,311) = 19.98, *p* < .001) and OCBO (R^2 *ch.* = .36, *F*(9,311) = 33.25, *p* < .001).

Entry of the five factor personality variables and individualised consideration as the identification variable in step 2 found OCBI's were positively related to agreeableness (β = .35, *p* = .001), conscientiousness (β = .13, *p* = .05) and individualised consideration (β = .25, *p* = .001) but extraversion, neuroticism and openness had no statistical influence. The five factor personality variables and individualised consideration were also assessed in a separate regression with the dependent variable OCBO. The results demonstrated that OCBO's were positively related to individualised consideration (β = .11, *p* = .05), agreeableness (β = .13, *p* = .05), conscientiousness (β = .33, *p* = .001) and openness (β = .22, *p* = .001) but negatively related to extraversion (β = -.21, *p* = .001) and neuroticism (β = -.15, *p* = .05).

The interaction between OCBI and individualised consideration and the five factor personality variables was then assessed in a third regression which explained variance on OCBI (R^2 *ch.* = .03, *F*(14,306) = 14.12, *p* < .001). The results demonstrated a negative interaction between individualised consideration, agreeableness and OCBI (β = -.11, *p* = .05) and a positive interaction between individualised consideration, neuroticism and OCBI (β = .13, *p* = .05). These interactions were then plotted one standard deviation higher and lower as per Aiken and West (1991) to ascertain if higher or lower levels affect the interaction.

The results revealed that low levels of agreeableness and perceived high individualised consideration leads to higher levels of follower OCBI ($B = .64$, $t(306) = 5.06$, $p < .001$) (See Figure, 4.c). High levels of follower agreeableness and perceived high individualised consideration did not affect OCBI ($B = .25$, $t(306) = 1.81$, $p = ns$). Additionally, high levels of follower neuroticism and high perceived individualised consideration was related to higher levels of OCBI ($B = .66$, $t(306) = 4.92$, $p = <.001$ (See Figure, 4.d). Low follower neuroticism and perceived high individualised consideration did not affect OCBI ($B = .23$, $t(306) = 1.75$, $p = ns$).

A regression was also conducted on the interaction between OCBO, individualised consideration and the five factor variables (R^2 ch. $= .01$, $F(14,306) = 21.57$, $p < .001$) however no interactions were statistically significant.
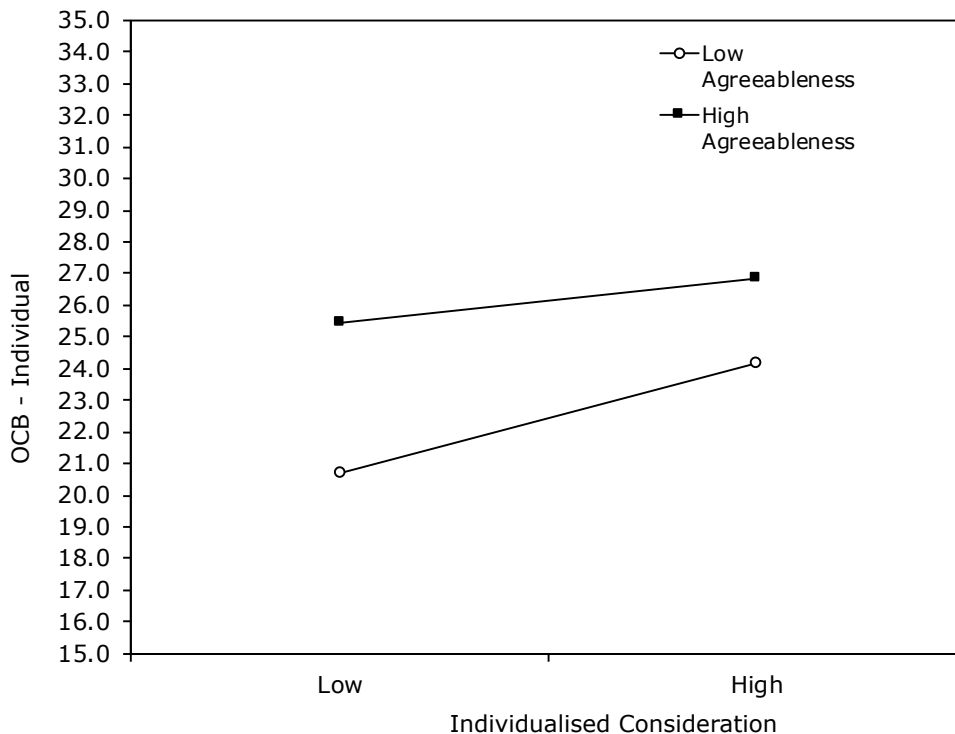

Figure 4.c. Two-way interaction of individualised consideration and agreeableness on organisational citizenship behaviour individual
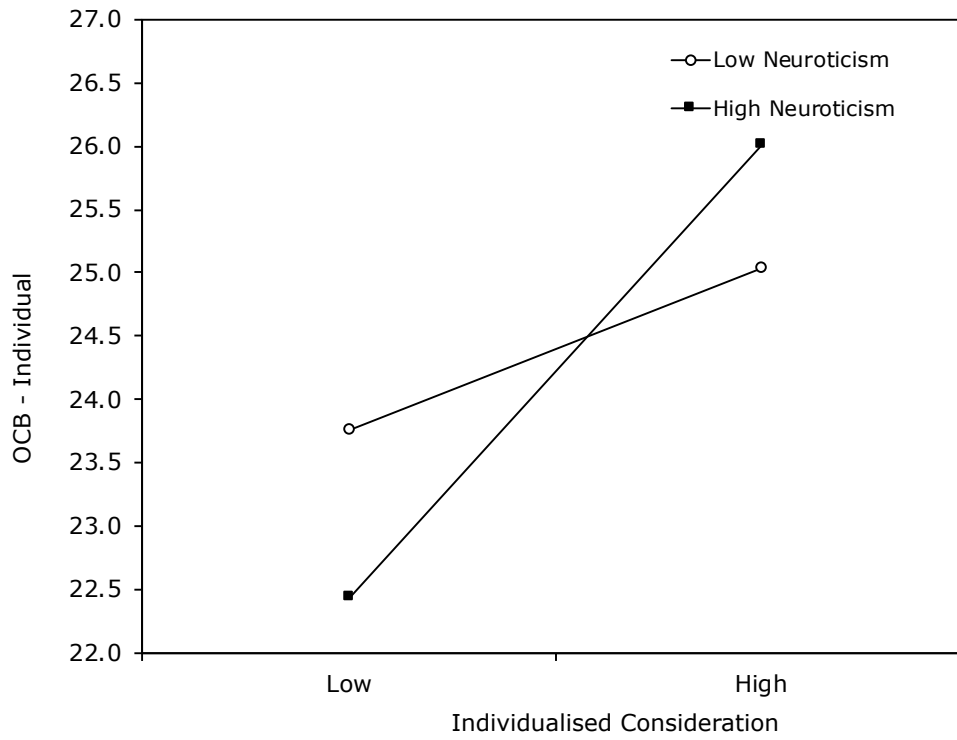
Figure 4.d. Two-way interaction of individualised consideration and neuroticism on organisational citizenship behaviour individual

Hierarchical Regression Analysis – Transformational Leadership - Charisma, FFM, OCBI & OCBO. A third hierarchical regression analysis was then conducted on the latent independent variable identified, charisma, the FFM individual personality traits and OCBI and OCBO again accounting for control variables as can be observed in Table (Table 4.6). Entry of the individual personality trait variables in addition to charisma accounted for a significant variance on OCBI (R^2 *ch.* = .29, $F(9,311)$ = 19.86, $p < .001$) and OCBO (R^2 *ch.* = .36, $F(9,311)$ = 33.04, $p < .001$).

Entry of the FFM variables and charisma as the identification variable in step 2 found OCBI's were statistically related to agreeableness ($\beta = .35$, $p = .001$) and charisma ($\beta = .25$, $p = .015$) but had no statistical influence in relation to extraversion, neuroticism and openness. The five factor personality variables and charisma were also assessed again in a separate regression with the dependent variable OCBO. The results demonstrated that OCBO's were positively related to charisma ($\beta = .10$, $p = .05$), agreeableness ($\beta = .13$, $p = .05$), conscientiousness ($\beta = .32$, $p = .001$) and openness ($\beta = .22$, $p = .001$) but negatively related to neuroticism ($\beta = -.15$, $p = .05$) and extraversion ($\beta = -.21$, $p = .001$),

The interaction between OCBI and charisma and the five factor personality variables were then assessed in a third regression model which explained variance on OCBI (R^2 *ch.* = .03, $F(14,306)$ = 13.97, $p < .001$). The results demonstrated a positive interaction between charisma, neuroticism and OCBI ($\beta = .14$, $p = .05$) as well as a charisma, conscientiousness and OCBI ($\beta = .11$, $p = .05$). The interaction between OCBO and charisma and the five factor personality variables were also assessed which explained variance on OCBO (R^2 *ch.* = .02, $F(14,306)$ = 22.21, $p < .001$). The results demonstrated a positive interaction between charisma, neuroticism and OCBO ($\beta = .12$, $p = .05$). It should be noted that there was near significance between charisma, conscientiousness and OCBO ($\beta = .10$, $p = < .06$). The significant interactions were then plotted one standard deviation higher and lower as per Aiken and West (1991) to ascertain if higher or lower levels affect the interaction.

The results revealed that that higher levels of neuroticism and high perceived leader charisma leads to higher levels of follower OCBO ($B = 1.23$, $t(306) = 3.46$, $p < .05$) (See Figure, 4.e). Lower levels of neuroticism and high perceived leader charisma had no significant effect on OCBO ($B = .00$, $t(306) = .01$, $p = ns$). High levels of follower conscientiousness and high perceived leader charisma was related to higher levels of OCBI ($B = 2.04$, $t(306) = 5.08$, $p = < .001$) (See Figure, 4.f). Low levels of follower conscientiousness and high perceived leader charisma was not related to higher levels of OCBI ($B = .81$, $t(306) = 1.88$, $p = ns$). Also, high levels of follower self-rated neuroticism and high perceived leader charisma is positively related to higher levels of follower OCBI ($B = 2.18$, $t(306) = 5.27$, $p = <.001$) (See Figure, 4.g). Low levels of follower neuroticism and high perceived leader charisma had no significant effect on follower OCBI ($B = .68$, $t(306) = 1.65$, $p = ns$).
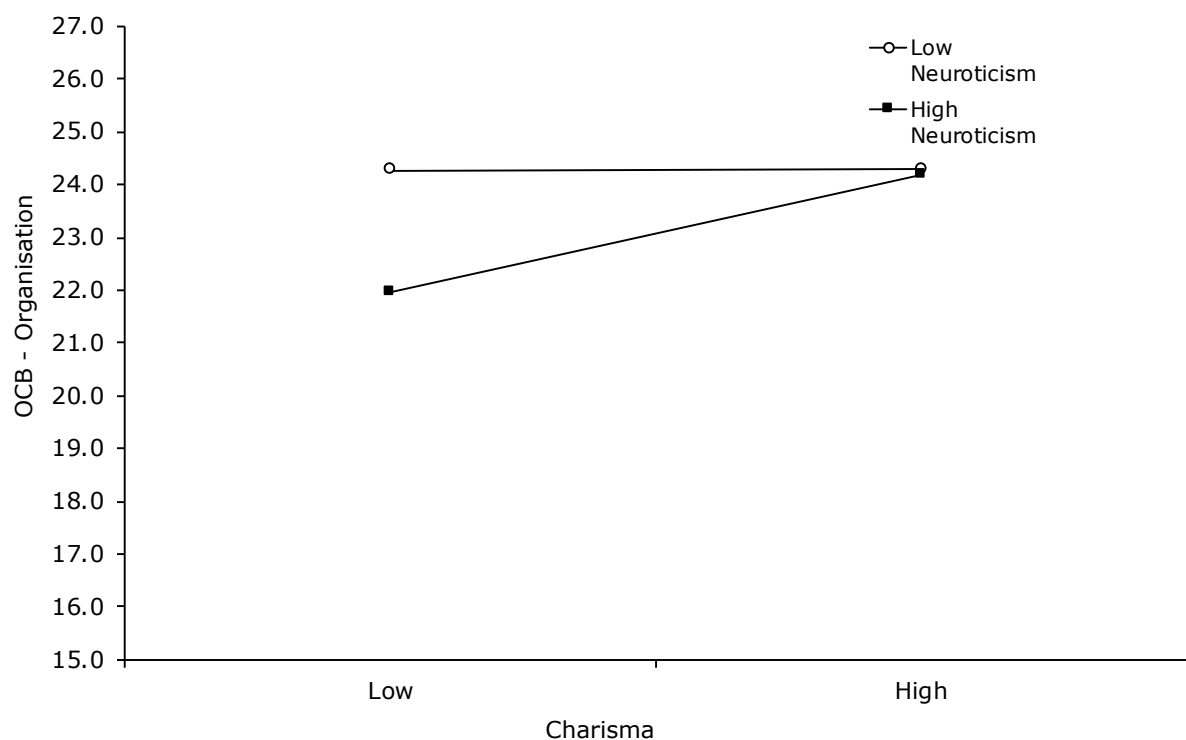
Figure 4.e. Two-way interaction of charisma and neuroticism on organisational citizenship behaviour organisation
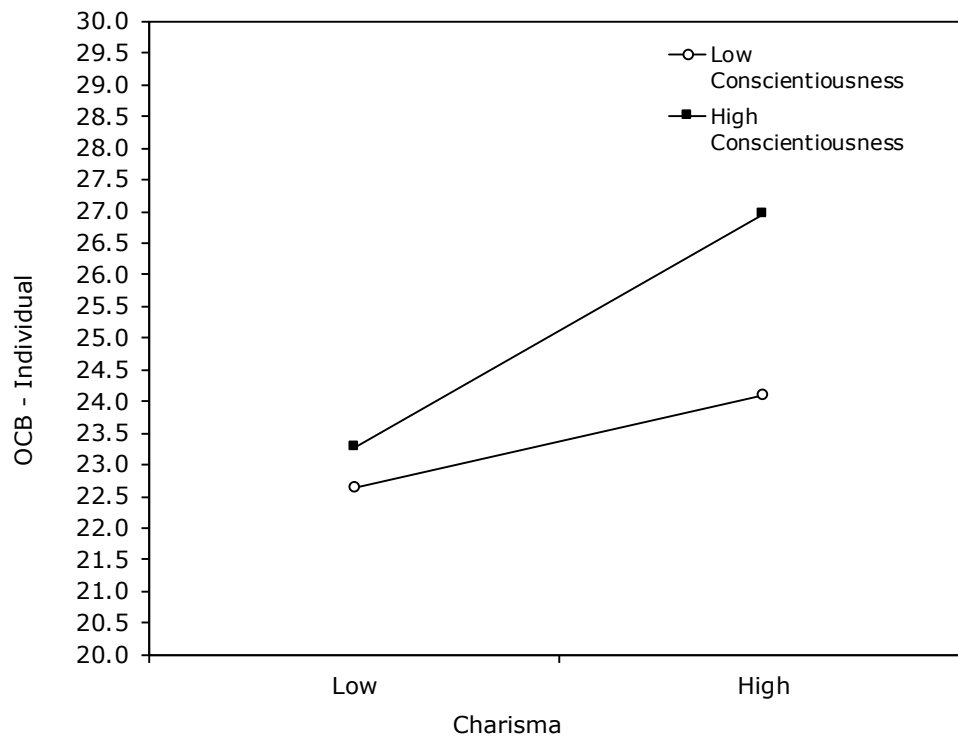
Figure 4.f. Two-way interaction of charisma and conscientiousness on organisational citizenship behaviour individual
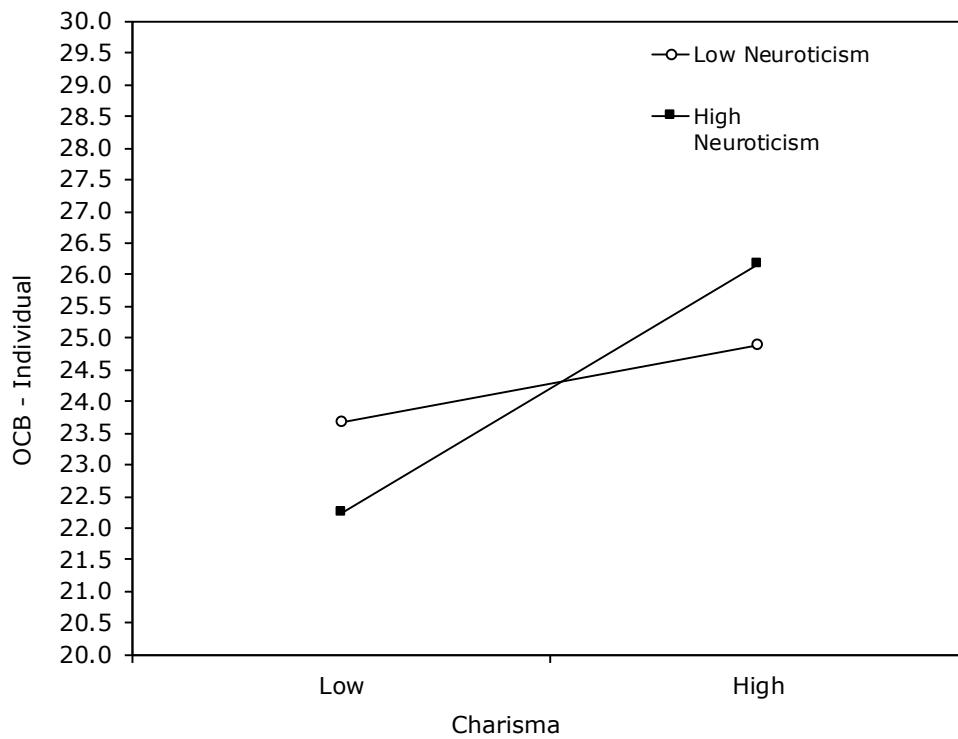
Figure 4.g. Two-way interaction of charisma and neuroticism on organisational citizenship behaviour individual

Table 4.4. Hierarchical multiple regression analyses on Intellectual Stimulation outcomes

Independent Variables	OCBI β	OCBO β
Step 1 – Control variables		
Sex	.17*	.11*
Age	.21*	.31**
How long have you been continuously working full-time for your organisation in years?	.00	.04
R^2	.07**	.12**
Step 2 – Main effects		
Openness	-.03	.22**
Conscientiousness	.15*	.33**
Extraversion	.05	-.21**
Agreeableness	.37**	-.14*
Neuroticism	-.04	-.16*
Intellectual Stimulation	.22**	.07
R^2 Change	.28**	.36**
Step 3 – Interaction terms		
Openness X Intellectual Stimulation	-.01	.03
Conscientiousness X Intellectual Stimulation	.10†	.08†
Extraversion X Intellectual Stimulation	.03	.06
Agreeableness X Intellectual Stimulation	-.12*	-.02
Neuroticism X Intellectual Stimulation	.16*	.08
R^2 Change	.04*	.01

†$p < .10$; *$p < .05$; **$p < .001$.

Table 4.5. Hierarchical multiple regression analyses on Individualised Consideration outcomes

Independent Variables	OCBI β	OCBO β
Step 1 – Control variables		
Sex	.17**	.11*
Age	.21*	.31**
How long have you been continuously working full-time for your organisation in years?	.00	.04
R^2	.07**	.12**
Step 2 – Main effects		
Openness	-.03	.22**
Conscientiousness	.13*	.33**
Extraversion	.06	-.21**
Agreeableness	.35**	.13*
Neuroticism	-.04	-.15*
Individualised Consideration	.25**	.11*
R^2 Change	.29**	.36**
Step 3 – Interaction terms		
Openness X Individualised Consideration	.00	.00
Conscientiousness X Individualised Consideration	.10†	.03
Extraversion X Individualised Consideration	.00	.08†
Agreeableness X Individualised Consideration	-.11*	-.03
Neuroticism X Individualised Consideration	.13*	.06
R^2 Change	.03*	.01

† $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .001$.

Table 4.6. Hierarchical multiple regression analyses on Charisma outcomes

Independent Variables	OCBI β	OCBO β
Step 1 – Control variables		
Sex	.17*	.11*
Age	.21*	.31**
How long have you been continuously working full-time for your organisation in years?	.00	.04
R^2	.07**	.12**
Step 2 – Main effects		
Openness	-.02	.22**
Conscientiousness	.11†	.32**
Extraversion	.06	-.21**
Agreeableness	.35**	.13*
Neuroticism	-.04	-.15*
Charisma	.25**	.10*
R^2 Change	.29**	.36**
Step 3 – Interaction terms		
Openness X Charisma	.01	.01
Conscientiousness X Charisma	.11*	.10†
Extraversion X Charisma	.03	.09†
Agreeableness X Charisma	-.10†	-.04
Neuroticism X Charisma	.14*	.12†
R^2 Change	.03*	.02

$^†p < .10$; $^*p < .05$; $^{**}p < .001$.

Overview of Results. The analyses revealed significant results in relation to the moderating impact of follower personality on the relationship between positive TL and OCBs. First, in relation to hypothesis 1, the findings established the positive link between TL and increased OCBs as was expected with exception of intellectual stimulation which had no effect on OCBOs after controlling for gender, tenure, age as well as all FFM factors.

The results revealed that follower extroversion (neither high or low) had no statistical impact on the relationship between TL and OCBI and OCBO when accounting for all factors in the regression model therefore hypothesis 2 is not supported. As expected, high follower conscientiousness did positively moderate the impact of charisma on OCBI but failed to have any moderating impact on OCBO which partially supports hypothesis 3. High follower neuroticism had a positive impact on all three of the Transformational Leadership latent variables and OCBI but only moderated the positive impact of the relationship between charisma and OCBO which partially supports hypothesis 4.

Whilst the findings did not support hypothesis 5, it should be noted the regression testing hypothesis 5 showed that individuals who identified as having low agreeableness actually increased their OCBIs the more they perceived their leader as being transformational. These findings will be discussed further in Chapter 5. (See Table 4.7 for Results Summary).

Table 4.7. Results Summary

Hypothesis Number	TL Factor	OCB Factor	FFM Factor	Supported / Not Supported
H1	Charisma	OCBI	N/A	Supported
	Intellectual Stimulation	OCBI	N/A	Supported
	Individualised Consideration	OCBI	N/A	Supported
	Charisma	OCBO	N/A	Supported
	Intellectual Stimulation	OCBO	N/A	Not Supported
	Individualised Consideration	OCBO	N/A	Supported
H2	Charisma	OCBI	Extraversion	Not Supported
	Intellectual Stimulation	OCBI	Extraversion	Not Supported
	Individualised Consideration	OCBI	Extraversion	Not Supported
	Charisma	OCBO	Extraversion	Not Supported
	Intellectual Stimulation	OCBO	Extraversion	Not Supported
	Individualised Consideration	OCBO	Extraversion	Not Supported
H3	Charisma	OCBI	Conscientiousness	Supported
	Intellectual Stimulation	OCBI	Conscientiousness	Not Supported
	Charisma	OCBO	Conscientiousness	Not Supported
	Intellectual Stimulation	OCBO	Conscientiousness	Not Supported
H4	Charisma	OCBI	Neuroticism	Supported
	Intellectual Stimulation	OCBI	Neuroticism	Supported
	Individualised Consideration	OCBI	Neuroticism	Supported
	Charisma	OCBO	Neuroticism	Supported
	Intellectual Stimulation	OCBO	Neuroticism	Not Supported
	Individualised Consideration	OCBO	Neuroticism	Not Supported
H5	Charisma	OCBI	Agreeableness	Not Supported
	Intellectual Stimulation	OCBI	Agreeableness*	Not Supported
	Individualised Consideration	OCBI	Agreeableness**	Not Supported

Legend:

* Low Agreeableness was statistically significant such that when an individual identified as having low agreeableness their OCBI was higher the more they perceived their leader to have the TL trait of Intellectual Stimulation.

** Low Agreeableness was statistically significant such that when an individual identified as having low agreeableness their OCBI was higher the more they perceived their leader to have the TL trait of Individualised Consideration.

Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion

This chapter's purpose is to objectively explain the findings of the hierarchical regression analysis chosen as the best measure to test the statistical significance between the latent variables using SPSS version 23 and the subsequent interactions between those variables that identified as having statistical significance at low and high intersections using Aiken and West (1991). The objective of the study was to continue and extend the existing literature supporting the positive link between TL and OCBs and ascertain if certain FFM personality traits moderated this relationship as postulated in the literature review. The Results Summary (Table 4.7) contains a specific breakdown of each interaction. In this chapter, the findings for each hypothesis will be discussed individually. Theoretical implications, limitations and future research and practical implications will also be discussed.

H1. TL > OCBI Supported. TL > OCBO. Partially Supported (Intellectual Stimulation no influence on OCBO). The first hypothesis was related to the effects of TL on follower OCBI and OCBO. In line with empirical research and other studies that elicited similar findings (Guay & Choi, 2015), the research replicated that TL was positively related to OCBI after controlling for the effects of age, sex and tenure. The results in relation to OCBO showed both charisma and individualised consideration were positively related but intellectual stimulation had no effect on OCBO. Given that intellectual stimulation is concerned with facilitating followers to re-examine existing problems in different ways (Bass, 1990), it may be that realistically, the factor is more aligned with OCBI.

H2. TL > OCBI & OCBO moderated by extraversion. Not Supported. Whilst the result did not show that low or high levels of extraversion moderated the positive relationship between TL and OCBI and OCBO either positively or negatively, it is interesting to note that prior research has been met with mixed results. Whilst some researchers have found that high follower extraversion positively impacts the TL

relationship (Felfe & Schyns, 2006, 2010; Keller, 1999; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996; Shamir et al., 1993), others have postulated that low follower extraversion (introversion) positively moderates TL (Guay & Choi, 2015; Yukl, 1999) especially in relation to both follower OCBI and OCBO (Guay & Choi, 2015). The failure to replicate the findings of Guay and Choi's (2015) research may be due to the fact that 74.5% of respondents were female, the majority of those were from three healthcare organisations and most were nurses. Due to the demanding nature of such an occupation and the consequences of making a mistake, nurses are required to be observant and good listeners (Eley, Eley, Bertello, & Rogers-Clark, 2012; Parker et al., 2013; Stickley & Freshwater, 2006), qualities often associated with an introvert (Culp & Smith, 2001; Nobel, 2010), therefore, it may be that the findings of Guay and Choi's (2015) research in relation to introversion is job specific. Needless to say, further research is needed to further understand the effect of follower extraversion/introversion on leadership behaviours and OCBs in order to understand what additional factors may contribute to such a diversion in results.

H3. TL (Intellectual Stimulation) > OCBI & OCBO moderated by conscientiousness. Not supported. TL (Charisma) > OCBI & OCBO moderated by conscientiousness (H3b). OCBI supported. OCBO not supported. Follower conscientiousness was found to positively moderate the relationship between charisma and OCBI but not OCBO. Elevated levels of follower conscientiousness and high perceived leader charisma was related to higher levels of OCBI. This is in line with assumptions that charismatic leaders provide positive reinforcement of existing habits which subsequently leads to higher follower OCBIs (Bass, 1991). The results indicate that follower conscientiousness is not related to charisma and OCBO may be explained by analysing the specific behaviours related to OCBO. Behaviour contrary to OCBOs includes taking sick leave, vacations and not participating in the culture of the organisation (parties, events etc.) (Organ et al., 2005). It may be that individuals who are highly conscientious avoid burnout by indulging in vacations, taking allocated sick leave and do not have time to participate in organisational culture activities due to effective time-management and work-life balance skills. If that is the case, high follower conscientiousness coupled with TL would not influence OCBOs as the follower will have predetermined time allocations that they mostly likely would not

deviate from as that would permit negative influences on other areas of their life such as family. It also may be that the nature of TL is to inspire and motivate a follower to be more self-efficacious, conscientious, pro-active and considerate (Bass & Avoilo, 1998), actions that would affect immediate co-workers which is more indicative of OCBI rather than OCBO.

H4. TL > OCBI & OCBO moderated by neuroticism. OCBI supported. TL (Charisma) and OCBO supported. Neuroticism, as predicted, moderated all factors of TL and OCBI. The results revealed that high levels of follower neuroticism and high perceived leader charisma is positively related to higher levels of follower OCBI, high levels of follower neuroticism and high perceived individualised consideration was related to higher levels of OCBI and higher levels of follower neuroticism and perceived higher leader intellectual stimulation leads to higher levels of follower OCBI. This is in line with both Yukl's (1999) assumption and Guay and Choi's (2015) finding that neurotic followers benefit from TL.

However, in relation to OCBO, follower neuroticism only positively moderated the relationship between charismatic leadership and OCBO with the results revealing that higher levels of neuroticism and high perceived leader charisma leads to higher levels of follower OCBO. This could be that charismatic leaders reduce follower's nervousness and increase their feelings of self-efficacy therefore they are less likely to take sick leave due to mental health conditions, particularily anxiety and depression which are directly linked to those who identify high on the neuroticism facet (Bienvenu et al., 2004). Charismatic leaders also enable those who identify as having high neuroticism to contribute opinions on important organisational issues which is a component of OCBO. Neuroticism did not moderate the relationship between individualised consideration and OCBO although this factor is specifically related to the personal attention of the needs and feelings of the follower by the leader and therefore may only be effective on an individual level as opposed to an organisational level. Neuroticism also did not moderate the positive relationship between intellectual stimulation which is often associated with creativity and innovation on a personal level (Bass & Avolio, 1998) which is also why it may be specifically related to OCBI only. It should be noted that Guay and Choi (2015) re-ran their model with all four factors

and also found that neuroticism did not moderate the relationship between intellectual stimulation or individualised consideration either.

H5.   TL > OCBI moderated by Agreeableness. Not supported. It was hypothesised that increased agreeableness, positively moderates the relationship between individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation and OCBIs. Whilst we did find a relationship, it was caused by low agreeableness. Low levels of follower agreeableness and high perceived leader intellectual stimulation related to higher levels of OCBI and lower levels of agreeableness and perceived high individualised consideration leads to higher levels of follower OCBI, however there was no effect on charisma. It may be that individualised consideration, specifically showing authentic and genuine concern for the follower's needs and feelings (Bass, 1991), assists to understand a follower's triggers that makes them openly unagreeable. The trait of individualised consideration is also concerned with mentoring and coaching (Bass, 1991) and would rationally also be associated with building trust with the follower. Hypothetically, if a leader built genuine trust and was a mentor with a follower who identified as having low agreeableness, then the follower would still enact advice from the leader. Such advice may be in the way of reframing the situation so that the follower is more cooperative with their fellow employees. This would also explain the positive significance between high intellectual stimulation, low agreeableness and higher levels of OCBI as this construct is specifically associated with reframing and providing solutions to problems by approaching them in new ways (Bass, 1991).

Theoretical Implications. Our findings provide some implications for further development of the TL literature, in particular the moderating effect of follower neuroticism. Whilst, many studies have looked at the personality characteristics of TLs, and the fact that leadership is associated with increased OCBs, the similarity effect of leader/follower, not many studies have analysed the moderating effect of follower personality and even less have asked the follower to assess the traits of the leader, instead asking the leader to self-rate. Our sample was predominately male, from many different organisations and was obtained anonymously and on-line. It also requested followers to rate their leader as opposed to the traditional scale which is self-rated and asked the follower to rate their own OCBs. Guay and Choi's (2015) study

used personal emails sent to participants from the first author and company executives endorsing the project. Respondents were predominately female, from the health sector and their study requested the leader to rate followers OCBs. It should be noted that Guay and Choi (2015) also asked followers to rate their leader. The fact that we obtained very similar results to Guay and Choi (2015) with respect to neuroticism despite markedly different sample characteristics gives weight and breadth to the argument that followers with high neuroticism benefit substantially from TL notwithstanding gender, age, tenure or occupation type. Also, a CFA was undertaken on the scale which confirmed that minor item changes did not impact the validity of the existing measurement scale.

Other theoretical implications are in regard to conscientiousness more so in relation to the fact that it showed limited moderation between TL and OCB despite it being both a predictor of leader TL and follower OCB. Although interestingly, conscientiousness still positively moderated charismatic leadership and OCBI. Given previous research suggesting the 'dark side' of leadership and follower OCBs suggesting burn-out, job-stress and work-family conflict (Bolino & Turnley, 2005; N. P. Podsakoff et al., 2018), it remains an important research area as individuals with high conscientiousness are less likely to engage in OCBOs. This may be because conscientious follower's achieve balance by taking vacations, sick leave and use effective time-management skills as mentioned earlier. Surprisingly, low agreeableness and high levels of intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration led to higher levels of OCBI. This indicates that those who are low in agreeableness will be less likely to engage in counter productive work behaviour in the presence of a transformational leader.

Limitations and future research. As previously discussed, we used pre-existing surveys with minor modifications in relation to grammar in the FFM and with the MLQ we changed the survey so that the follower rated the leader instead of being self-rated. We had a multi-collinearity issue with a four-factor solution for TL and as such we found a three-factor solution more applicable. Issues with the MLQ and multicollinearity are common with some researchers using the same three factor solution we adopted (Avolio et al., 1999) and others choosing a one factor solution

(Guay & Choi, 2015; P. M. Podsakoff et al., 1996; P. M. Podsakoff et al., 1990; (Carless, 1998; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; G. Wang et al., 2011). It may be that the dimensions of the MLQ may require some adjustment with more specific, narrower characteristics to reduce multi-collinearity issues or that a one factor solution is the most appropriate.

As we asked followers to rate their own OCBs there is a potential that the results may be augmented by common source bias and socially desirable responding (Van de Mortel, 2008). Given the nature of the OCB construct which measures behaviours that followers exhibit both internally (to their manager and fellow workers) as well as how they project the organisation externally we decided to ask the follower to self-rate. Requesting a supervisor to rate follower OCBs has been shown to only be effective measuring task performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997) and supervisor ratings may be more indicative of OCBI (Bolino and Turnley, 2005), therefore, it may be that the best way to measure OCBs would be a culmination of self-rated, supervisor-rated and peer-rated surveys or a combination of both quantitative and qualitative data over a period of time.

Further research is also needed to establish if introversion moderates the positive relationship between TL and OCBs. Our research failed to replicate Guay and Choi's (2015) findings however our data sample was very diverse. More research is needed to confirm if there is a link and what other factors may be involved such as job description, gender, age, culture to name a few. It may be that the moderating effect of introversion is job specific, but this is yet to be tested. Also, our research displayed some surprising characteristics in relation to low agreeableness and the positive effect of individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation on OCBI outcomes. Further research is needed to ascertain if this is replicable across many diverse data samples.

Practical Implications. High levels of neuroticism are an antecedent to anxiety and depression (Digman, 1990). In Australia alone, one in four people suffer anxiety and on average one in seven experience depression (ABS, 2007). In the US, they

predict about 40 million people suffer from anxiety and anxiety related disorders (APA, 2010). Understanding the needs of staff who are high in neuroticism and strategically pairing them with managers and leaders who they perceive as being transformational may lead to increased behaviours that go above and beyond the job requirements therefore benefiting the organisation. Companies that deliberately hire and train leaders that have the capacity to be transformational and in particular charismatic, will reap the benefits of increased OCBI and OCBO in the presence of subordinates who are high in neuroticism and low in agreeableness. As mentioned previously, from a bottom-line perspective increased follower OCBs increases productively, reduces absenteeism and turnover, increases baseline happiness for employees and consequently increases profits for the organisation (Li et al., 2017).

In addition, the findings of the positive impact of individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation on increased OCBI in individuals who identify as having low agreeableness has twofold implications. Firstly, the individual is likely to experience less confrontations in the workplace and hostility towards other employees as the leader is able to reframe situations due to the fact the individual trusts the leader and perceives them as a mentor (Bass & Avolio, 1998). Secondly, the experience of other employees in the organisation who work directly with said individual may also subsequently experience more cooperativeness and less stubbornness and irritability from that individual.

Conclusion. Effective followers are just as important as effective leaders (Guay & Choi, 2015). Whilst follower neuroticism is often regarded as an undesirable personality trait and a harbinger of potential depression and anxiety, it is more prevalent in society than often acknowledged. Our findings indicate that those who experience high levels of neuroticism benefit from TLs thereby increasing their levels of OCBI the more they perceive their leader as being transformational. They also benefit from charismatic leadership which also increases their levels of OCBO the more they perceive their leader as being charismatic. Those who have high conscientious also benefit from charismatic leaders and will subsequently display higher levels of OCBI the more they perceive their leader as being charismatic. Individuals who identify as having low agreeableness also benefit from high perceived

intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration as they in turn display higher levels of OCBI which ultimately benefits those whom they work with. In conclusion, we found that follower personality does moderate the effect of TL on OCBs particularity for those who display counter-productive work personalities such as high neuroticism and low agreeableness.

Bibliography

Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. (1991). *Multiple Regression: Testing and Interpreting Interactions*. London: Sage Publications.

Akinbode, G. (2011). Demographic and dispositional characteristics as predictors of organizational citizenship behaviour. *IFE PsychologIA: An International Journal, 19(1), 375-404.*

Allen, T. D. (2006). Rewarding Good Citizens: The Relationship Between Citizenship Behavior, Gender, and Organizational Rewards 1. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 36*(1), 120-143.

Allen, T. D. (2018). Gender and Organizational Citizenship Behavior. In *The Oxford Handbook of Organizational Citizenship Behavior*.

American Psychological Association (APA). (2010). *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (6th Ed.). Washington, DC: Author.*

Aneshensel, C. S. (2012). *Theory-based data analysis for the social sciences*: Sage Publications.

Arnold, K. A., Connelly, C. E., Walsh, M. M., & Martin Ginis, K. A. (2015). Leadership styles, emotion regulation, and burnout. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 20*(4), 481.

Australian Bureau of Statistics (2008). National Survey of Mental Health and Wellbeing 2007: Summary of results. ABS Cat. No 4326.0. Australian Bureau of Statistics: Canberra.

Avolio, B. J., Bass, B. M., & Jung, D. I. (1999). Re-examining the components of transformational and transactional leadership using the Multifactor Leadership. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 72*(4), 441-462.

Avolio, B. J., & Gardner, W. L. (2005). Authentic leadership development: Getting to the root of positive forms of leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly, 16*(3), 315-338.

Avolio, B. J., Waldman, D. A., & Yammarino, F. J. (1991). Leading in the 1990s: The four I's of transformational leadership. *Journal of European Industrial Training, 15*(4).

Banks, G. C., McCauley, K. D., Gardner, W. L., & Guler, C. E. (2016). A meta-analytic review of authentic and transformational leadership: A test for redundancy. *The Leadership Quarterly, 27*(4), 634-652.

Barling, J., Weber, T., & Kelloway, E. K. (1996). Effects of transformational leadership training on attitudinal and financial outcomes: A field experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81*(6), 827.

Barrick, M. R., & Mount, M. K. (1991). The big five personality dimensions and job performance: a meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology, 44*(1), 1-26.

Barrick, M. R., & Mount, M. K. (1993). Autonomy as a moderator of the relationships between the Big Five personality dimensions and job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78*(1), 111.

Barrick, M. R., Mount, M. K., & Judge, T. A. (2001). Personality and performance at the beginning of the new millennium: What do we know and where do we go next? *International Journal of Selection and assessment, 9*(1-2), 9-30.

Bartlett, M. S. (1950). Tests of significance in factor analysis. *British Journal of statistical psychology, 3*(2), 77-85.

Bass, B., & Avolio, B. (1992). Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) form 6S. Redwood City, CA: Mined Garden. In: Inc.

Bass, B. M. (1985a). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*: Collier Macmillan.

Bass, B. M. (1985b). Leadership and performance beyond expectations.

Bass, B. M. (1991). From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision. *Organizational dynamics, 18*(3), 19-31.

Bass, B. M. (1999). Two decades of research and development in transformational leadership. *European journal of work and organizational psychology, 8*(1), 9-32.

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1990a). Developing transformational leadership: 1992 and beyond. *Journal of European Industrial Training, 14*(5).

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1990b). *Transformational leadership development: Manual for the multifactor leadership questionnaire*: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1992). Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) form 6S. Redwood City, CA: Mind Garden Inc.

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1997). *Full range leadership development: Manual for the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*: Mind Garden.

Bass, B. M., & Riggio, R. E. (2006). *Transformational leadership*: Psychology Press.

Bass, B. M., & Steidlmeier, P. (1999). Ethics, character, and authentic transformational leadership behavior. *The Leadership Quarterly, 10*(2), 181-217.

Bateman, T. S., & Organ, D. W. (1983). Job satisfaction and the good soldier: The relationship between affect and employee "citizenship". *Academy of Management Journal, 26*(4), 587-595.

Baumgartner, R., Rathbun, P., Boyle, K., Welsh, M., & Laughland, D. (1998). *The effect of prepaid monetary incentives on mail survey response rates and response quality.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Association for Public Opinion Research, St. Louis, MO.

Bennis, W., & Nanus, B. (1985). The strategies for taking charge. *Leaders, New York: Harper. Row*.

Bentler, P. M. (1995). *EQS structural equations program manual*: Multivariate Software.

Berry, C. M., Ones, D. S., & Sackett, P. R. (2007). Interpersonal deviance, organizational deviance, and their common correlates: A review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(2), 410.

Blakely, G. L., Srivastava, A., & Moorman, R. H. (2005). The effects of nationality work role centrality, and work locus of control on role definitions of OCB. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 12*(1), 103-117.

Boerner, S., Eisenbeiss, S. A., & Griesser, D. (2007). Follower behavior and organizational performance: The impact of transformational leaders. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 13*(3), 15-26.

Bolino, M. C., & Turnley, W. H. (2005). The personal costs of citizenship behavior: the relationship between individual initiative and role overload, job stress, and work-family conflict. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*(4), 740.

Bollen, K. A., & Stine, R. A. (1992). Bootstrapping goodness-of-fit measures in structural equation models. *Sociological Methods & Research, 21*(2), 205-229.

Bommer, W. H., Rich, G. A., & Rubin, R. S. (2005). Changing attitudes about change: Longitudinal effects of transformational leader behavior on employee cynicism about organizational change. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 26*(7), 733-753.

Bono, J. E., & Judge, T. A. (2004). Personality and transformational and transactional leadership: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*(5), 901.

Bono, J. E., Shen, W., Yoon, D. J., & Day, D. (2014). Personality and leadership: Looking back, looking ahead. *The oxford handbook of leadership and organizations*, 199-218.

Borman, W. C., & Motowidlo, S. (1993). Expanding the criterion domain to include elements of contextual performance. *Personnel Selection in Organizations; San Francisco: Jossey-Bass*, 71.

Borman, W. C., & Motowidlo, S. J. (1997). Task performance and contextual performance: The meaning for personnel selection research. *Human performance, 10*(2), 99-109.

Borman, W. C., Penner, L. A., Allen, T. D., & Motowidlo, S. J. (2001). Personality predictors of citizenship performance. *International Journal of Selection and assessment, 9*(1-2), 52-69.

Bottomley, P., Mostafa, A. M. S., Gould-Williams, J. S., & León-Cázares, F. (2016). The impact of transformational leadership on organizational citizenship behaviours: The contingent role of public service motivation. *British Journal of Management, 27*(2), 390-405.

Bowler, W. (2006). Organizational Goals Versus the Dominant Coalition: A Critical View of the Value of Organizational Citizenship Behavior. *Journal of Behavioral & Applied Management, 7*(3).

Brannen, P. A. B. (2012). The SAGE Handbook of Social Research Methods.

Burke, R. J., Matthiesen, S. B., & Pallesen, S. (2006). Personality correlates of workaholism. *Personality and individual differences, 40*(6), 1223-1233.

Byrne, B. M. (2001). Structural equation modeling with AMOS, EQS, and LISREL: Comparative approaches to testing for the factorial validity of a measuring instrument. *International journal of testing, 1*(1), 55-86.

Calder, B. J. (1977). An attribution theory of leadership. In *New directions in organizational behavior*: St. Clair Press.

Carless, S. A. (1998). Assessing the discriminant validity of transformational leader behaviour as measured by the MLQ 1. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 71*(4), 353-358.

Carpenter, N. C., Berry, C. M., & Houston, L. (2014). A meta-analytic comparison of self-reported and other-reported organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 35*(4), 547-574.

Carroll, L. (2009). *Alice in Wonderland: & Through the Looking Glass*: Sterling Publishing Company, Inc.

Carter, M. Z., Mossholder, K. W., Feild, H. S., & Armenakis, A. A. (2014). Transformational leadership, interactional justice, and organizational citizenship behavior: The effects of racial and gender dissimilarity between supervisors and subordinates. *Group & Organization Management, 39*(6), 691-719.

Cavazotte, F., Moreno, V., & Hickmann, M. (2012). Effects of leader intelligence, personality and emotional intelligence on transformational leadership and managerial performance. *The Leadership Quarterly, 23*(3), 443-455.

Chahal, H., & Mehta, S. (2010). Antecedents and consequences of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB): A conceptual framework in reference to health care sector. *Journal of Services Research, 10*(2), 25.

Chemers, M. M. (2000). Leadership research and theory: A functional integration. *Group Dynamics: Theory, research, and practice, 4*(1), 27.

Chen, X.-P., Hui, C., & Sego, D. J. (1998). The role of organizational citizenship behavior in turnover: Conceptualization and preliminary tests of key hypotheses. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*(6), 922.

Cheung, F. Y.-L., & Cheung, R. Y.-H. (2013). Effect of emotional dissonance on organizational citizenship behavior: Testing the stressor-strain-outcome model. *The Journal of psychology, 147*(1), 89-103.

Chiaburu, D. S., Oh, I.-S., Berry, C. M., Li, N., & Gardner, R. G. (2011). The five-factor model of personality traits and organizational citizenship behaviors: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 96*(6), 1140.

Chiaburu, D. S., Oh, I.-S., & Marinova, S. V. (2018). Five-Factor Model of Personality Traits and Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Current Research and Future Directions. *The Oxford Handbook of Organizational Citizenship Behavior*, 203.

Cho, J., & Dansereau, F. (2010). Are transformational leaders fair? A multi-level study of transformational leadership, justice perceptions, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly, 21*(3), 409-421.

Choi, J. N. (2007). Change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior: effects of work environment characteristics and intervening psychological processes. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior, 28*(4), 467-484.

Church, A. H. (1993). Estimating the effect of incentives on mail survey response rates: A meta-analysis. *Public opinion quarterly, 57*(1), 62-79.

Cohen, A., Ben-Tura, E., & Vashdi, D. R. (2012). The relationship between social exchange variables, OCB, and performance: what happens when you consider group characteristics? *Personnel Review, 41*(6), 705-731.

Costa Jr, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (1988). From catalog to classification: Murray's needs and the five-factor model. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 55*(2), 258.

Costa Jr, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (1992). Four ways five factors are basic. *Personality and individual differences, 13*(6), 653-665.

Cronbach, L. J., & Meehl, P. E. (1955). Construct validity in psychological tests. *Psychological Bulletin, 52*(4), 281.

Culp, G., & Smith, A. (2001). Understanding psychological type to improve project team performance. *Journal of management in Engineering*, 17(1), 24-33.

Dalal, R. S. (2005). A meta-analysis of the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*(6), 1241.

De Hoogh, A. H., Den Hartog, D. N., & Koopman, P. L. (2005). Linking the Big Five-Factors of personality to charismatic and transactional leadership; perceived dynamic work environment as a moderator. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior, 26*(7), 839-865.

DeCoster, J. (1998). Overview of factor analysis.

Den Hartog, D. N., & Belschak, F. D. (2012). Work engagement and Machiavellianism in the ethical leadership process. *Journal of business ethics, 107*(1), 35-47.

Den Hartog, D. N., Van Muijen, J. J., & Koopman, P. L. (1997). Transactional versus transformational leadership: An analysis of the MLQ. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 70*(1), 19-34.

DeYoung, C. G., Quilty, L. C., & Peterson, J. B. (2007). Between facets and domains: 10 aspects of the Big Five. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 93*(5), 880.

Digman, J. M. (1990). Personality structure: Emergence of the five-factor model. *Annual review of psychology, 41*(1), 417-440.

Donnellan, M. B., Oswald, F. L., Baird, B. M., & Lucas, R. E. (2006). The mini-IPIP scales: tiny-yet-effective measures of the Big Five factors of personality. *Psychological assessment, 18*(2), 192.

Downton, J. V. (1973). *Rebel leadership: Commitment and charisma in the revolutionary process*: Free Press.

Dust, S. B., Resick, C. J., & Mawritz, M. B. (2014). Transformational leadership, psychological empowerment, and the moderating role of mechanistic–organic contexts. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 35*(3), 413-433.

Eagly, A. H., Johannesen-Schmidt, M. C., & Van Engen, M. L. (2003). Transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles: A meta-analysis comparing women and men. *Psychological Bulletin, 129*(4), 569.

Eagly, A. H., & Johnson, B. T. (1990). Gender and leadership style: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin, 108*(2), 233.

Earley, P. C., & Calic, G. (2018). A Cultural Perspective on Organizational Citizenship Behavior. *The Oxford Handbook of Organizational Citizenship Behavior*, 387.

Eatough, E. M., Chang, C.-H., Miloslavic, S. A., & Johnson, R. E. (2011). Relationships of role stressors with organizational citizenship behavior: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 96*(3), 619.

Eisenbach, R., Watson, K., & Pillai, R. (1999). Transformational leadership in the context of organizational change. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 12*(2), 80-89.

Ellington, J. K., Dierdorff, E. C., & Rubin, R. S. (2014). Decelerating the diminishing returns of citizenship on task performance: The role of social context and interpersonal skill. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 99*(4), 748.

Emami, M., Alizadeh, Z., Nazari, K., & Darvishi, S. (2012). Antecedents and consequences of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB).

Engelen, A., Gupta, V., Strenger, L., & Brettel, M. (2015). Entrepreneurial orientation, firm performance, and the moderating role of transformational leadership behaviors. *Journal of management, 41*(4), 1069-1097.

Farh, J.-L., Earley, P. C., & Lin, S.-C. (1997). Impetus for action: A cultural analysis of justice and organizational citizenship behavior in Chinese society. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 421-444.

Feist, G. J. (1998). A meta-analysis of personality in scientific and artistic creativity. *Personality and social psychology review, 2*(4), 290-309.

Felfe, J., & Schyns, B. (2004). Is similarity in leadership related to organizational outcomes? The case of transformational leadership. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 10*(4), 92-102.

Felfe, J., & Schyns, B. (2006). Personality and the Perception of Transformational Leadership: The Impact of Extraversion, Neuroticism, Personal Need for Structure, and Occupational Self-Efficacy 1. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 36*(3), 708-739.

Felfe, J., & Schyns, B. (2010). Followers' personality and the perception of transformational leadership: Further evidence for the similarity hypothesis. *British Journal of Management, 21*(2), 393-410.

Furnham, A. (1996). The big five versus the big four: the relationship between the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and NEO-PI five factor model of personality. *Personality and individual differences, 21*(2), 303-307.

García-Morales, V. J., Jiménez-Barrionuevo, M. M., & Gutiérrez-Gutiérrez, L. (2012). Transformational leadership influence on organizational performance through organizational learning and innovation. *Journal of Business Research, 65*(7), 1040-1050.

Ghafoor, A., Qureshi, T. M., Khan, M. A., & Hijazi, S. T. (2011). Transformational leadership, employee engagement and performance: Mediating effect of psychological ownership. *African Journal of Business Management, 5*(17), 7391-7403.

Gill, A. S., Flaschner, A. B., & Shachar, M. (2006). Mitigating stress and burnout by implementing transformational-leadership. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 18*(6), 469-481.

Goldberg, L. R. (1990). An alternative" description of personality": the big-five factor structure. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 59*(6), 1216.

Gosling, S. D., Rentfrow, P. J., & Swann Jr, W. B. (2003). A very brief measure of the Big-Five personality domains. *Journal of Research in personality, 37*(6), 504-528.

Grant, A. M., & Berry, J. W. (2011). The necessity of others is the mother of invention: Intrinsic and prosocial motivations, perspective taking, and creativity. *Academy of Management Journal, 54*(1), 73-96.

Guay, R. P., & Choi, D. (2015). To whom does transformational leadership matter more? An examination of neurotic and introverted followers and their organizational citizenship behavior. *The Leadership Quarterly, 26*(5), 851-862.

Gumusluoglu, L., & Ilsev, A. (2009). Transformational leadership, creativity, and organizational innovation. *Journal of Business Research, 62*(4), 461-473.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2014). Multivariate Data Analysis: Pearson New International Edition, Always Learning. In: Pearson Harlow, Essex.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E., & Tatham, R. L. (2009). *Análise multivariada de dados*: Bookman Editora.

Halbesleben, J. R., Harvey, J., & Bolino, M. C. (2009). Too engaged? A conservation of resources view of the relationship between work engagement and work interference with family. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*(6), 1452.

Hammersley, M. (1992). The paradigm wars: Reports from the front. *British Journal of Sociology of Education, 13*(1), 131-143.

Harrison, R. (1987). Harnessing personal energy: How companies can inspire employees. *Organizational dynamics, 16*(1), 5-20.

Hoch, J. E., Bommer, W. H., Dulebohn, J. H., & Wu, D. (2018). Do ethical, authentic, and servant leadership explain variance above and beyond transformational leadership? A meta-analysis. *Journal of management, 44*(2), 501-529.

Hogan, R. C., Champagne, D. W., & Glaser, R. O. (1985). *Personal style inventory*: Organization Design and Development.

Hoon Song, J., Kolb, J. A., Hee Lee, U., & Kyoung Kim, H. (2012). Role of transformational leadership in effective organizational knowledge creation

practices: Mediating effects of employees' work engagement. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 23*(1), 65-101.

Howell, J. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1993). Transformational leadership, transactional leadership, locus of control, and support for innovation: Key predictors of consolidated-business-unit performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78*(6), 891.

Howell, J. M., & Hall-Merenda, K. E. (1999). The ties that bind: The impact of leader-member exchange, transformational and transactional leadership, and distance on predicting follower performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 84*(5), 680.

Howell, J. M., & Shamir, B. (2005). The role of followers in the charismatic leadership process: Relationships and their consequences. *Academy of management review, 30*(1), 96-112.

Hsi, E. (2017). An Examination of Predictors of Counterproductive Work Behaviors: Personality Traits and Transformational Leadership.

Hsiung, H.-H. (2012). Authentic leadership and employee voice behavior: A multi-level psychological process. *Journal of business ethics, 107*(3), 349-361.

Hu, L. t., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural equation modeling: a multidisciplinary journal, 6*(1), 1-55.

Hurtz, G. M., & Donovan, J. J. (2000). Personality and job performance: The Big Five revisited. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*(6), 869.

Ilies, R., Fulmer, I. S., Spitzmuller, M., & Johnson, M. D. (2009). Personality and citizenship behavior: The mediating role of job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*(4), 945.

Jha, S. (2014). Transformational leadership and psychological empowerment: Determinants of organizational citizenship behavior. *South Asian Journal of Global Business Research, 3*(1), 18-35.

Judge, T. A., & Bono, J. E. (2000). Five-factor model of personality and transformational leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*(5), 751.

Judge, T. A., Heller, D., & Mount, M. K. (2002). Five-factor model of personality and job satisfaction: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(3), 530.

Judge, T. A., Higgins, C. A., Thoresen, C. J., & Barrick, M. R. (1999). The big five personality traits, general mental ability, and career success across the life span. *Personnel Psychology, 52*(3), 621-652.

Judge, T. A., & Piccolo, R. F. (2004). Transformational and transactional leadership: a meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*(5), 755.

Judge, T. A., Piccolo, R. F., & Kosalka, T. (2009). The bright and dark sides of leader traits: A review and theoretical extension of the leader trait paradigm. *The Leadership Quarterly, 20*(6), 855-875.

Jung, D. I., Chow, C., & Wu, A. (2003). The role of transformational leadership in enhancing organizational innovation: Hypotheses and some preliminary findings. *The Leadership Quarterly, 14*(4-5), 525-544.

Kaiser, H. F. (1974). An index of factorial simplicity. *Psychometrika, 39*(1), 31-36.

Katz, D. (1964). The motivational basis of organizational behavior. *Behavioral science, 9*(2), 131-146.

Keller, T. (1999). Images of the familiar: Individual differences and implicit leadership theories. *The Leadership Quarterly, 10*(4), 589-607.

Kent, A., & Chelladurai, P. (2001). Perceived transformational leadership, organizational commitment, and citizenship behavior: A case study in intercollegiate athletics. *Journal of sport management, 15*(2), 135-159.

Kiffin-Petersen, S. A., Jordan, C. L., & Soutar, G. N. (2011). The big five, emotional exhaustion and citizenship behaviors in service settings: The mediating role of emotional labor. *Personality and individual differences*, 50(1), 43-48.

Kim, H. (2014). Transformational leadership, organizational clan culture, organizational affective commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior: A case of South Korea's public sector. *Public Organization Review, 14*(3), 397-417.

Kirkman, B. L., Chen, G., Farh, J.-L., Chen, Z. X., & Lowe, K. B. (2009). Individual power distance orientation and follower reactions to transformational leaders: A cross-level, cross-cultural examination. *Academy of Management Journal, 52*(4), 744-764.

Kirkpatrick, S. A., & Locke, E. A. (1996). Direct and indirect effects of three core charismatic leadership components on performance and attitudes. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81*(1), 36.

Kolb, D. A. (2005). Developing teams using the Kolb Team Learning Experience. *Simulation & Gaming, 36*(3), 355-363. doi:10.1177/1046878105279013

Kruger, J., & Dunning, D. (1999). Unskilled and unaware of it: how difficulties in recognizing one's own incompetence lead to inflated self-assessments. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 77*(6), 1121.

Lam, C. F., Wan, W. H., & Roussin, C. J. (2016). Going the extra mile and feeling energized: An enrichment perspective of organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 101*(3), 379.

Larkins, J. M., & Sher, K. J. (2006). Family history of alcoholism and the stability of personality in young adulthood. *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors, 20*(4), 471.

Le, H., Oh, I.-S., Robbins, S. B., Ilies, R., Holland, E., & Westrick, P. (2011). Too much of a good thing: Curvilinear relationships between personality traits and job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 96*(1), 113.

Lee, Y.-D., Chiang, S.-H., Chen, S.-H., & Chen, P.-C. (2010). The moderating effect of employees' personality on the relationship between charismatic leadership and organizational citizenship behavior: Analysis of the high-tech firms in Southern Taiwan. *Picmet 2010 Technology Management for Global Economic Growth*, 1-7.

Lee, K., & Allen, N. J. (2002). Organizational citizenship behavior and workplace deviance: The role of affect and cognitions. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(1), 131.

LePine, M. A., Zhang, Y., Crawford, E. R., & Rich, B. L. (2016). Turning their pain to gain: Charismatic leader influence on follower stress appraisal and job performance. *Academy of Management Journal, 59*(3), 1036-1059.

Li, J. J., Kim, W. G., & Zhao, X. R. (2017). Multilevel model of management support and casino employee turnover intention. *Tourism Management*, 59, 193-204.

Li, N., Barrick, M. R., Zimmerman, R. D., & Chiaburu, D. S. (2014). Retaining the productive employee: The role of personality. *The Academy of Management Annals, 8*(1), 347-395.

Lievens Pascal Van Geit Pol Coetsier, F. (1997). Identification of transformational leadership qualities: An examination of potential biases. *European journal of work and organizational psychology, 6*(4), 415-430.

Loi, R., & Ngo, H.-y. (2009). Work outcomes of relational demography in Chinese vertical dyads. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 20*(8), 1704-1719.

López-Domínguez, M., Enache, M., Sallan, J. M., & Simo, P. (2013). Transformational leadership as an antecedent of change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Business Research, 66*(10), 2147-2152.

Lord, R. G., De Vader, C. L., & Alliger, G. M. (1986). A meta-analysis of the relation between personality traits and leadership perceptions: An application of validity generalization procedures. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 71*(3), 402.

Lord, R. G., & Maher, K. J. (2002). *Leadership and information processing: Linking perceptions and performance*: Routledge.

Lovell, S. E., Kahn, A. S., Anton, J., Davidson, A., Dowling, E., Post, D., & Mason, C. (1999). Does gender affect the link between organizational citizenship behavior and performance evaluation? *Sex Roles, 41*(5-6), 469-478.

Lowe, K. B., Kroeck, K. G., & Sivasubramaniam, N. (1996). Effectiveness correlates of transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic review of the MLQ literature. *The Leadership Quarterly, 7*(3), 385-425.

Marsh, H. W., Balla, J. R., & McDonald, R. P. (1988). Goodness-of-fit indexes in confirmatory factor analysis: The effect of sample size. *Psychological Bulletin, 103*(3), 391.

Martin, J. (2015). Transformational and transactional leadership: An exploration of gender, experience, and institution type. *portal: Libraries and the Academy, 15*(2), 331-351.

Maslow, A. H. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological review, 50*(4), 370.

Mason, R., Lesser, V., & Traugott, M. (1999). *Impact of missing values from converted refusals on nonsampling error*. Paper presented at the International Conference on Survey Nonresponse.

McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T. (1989). Reinterpreting the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator From the Perspective of the Five-Factor Model of Personality. *Journal of personality, 57*(1), 17-40.

McCrae, R. R., & John, O. P. (1992). An introduction to the five-factor model and its applications. *Journal of personality, 60*(2), 175-215.

McCrae, R. R., Zonderman, A. B., Costa Jr, P. T., Bond, M. H., & Paunonen, S. V. (1996). Evaluating replicability of factors in the Revised NEO Personality Inventory: Confirmatory factor analysis versus Procrustes rotation. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 70*(3), 552.

McKay, P. F., Avery, D. R., Tonidandel, S., Morris, M. A., Hernandez, M., & Hebl, M. R. (2007). Racial differences in employee retention: are diversity climate perceptions the key? *Personnel Psychology, 60*(1), 35-62.

McNeese-Smith, D. (1996). Increasing employee productivity, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. *Journal of Healthcare Management, 41*(2), 160.

McShane, S. L., & Von Glinow, M. A. (2015). Organizational Behavior 7/e.

Mhatre, K. H., & Riggio, R. E. (2014). Charismatic and transformational leadership: Past, present, and future. *The oxford handbook of leadership and organizations*, 221-240.

Mount, M. K., Oh, I. S., & Burns, M. (2008). Incremental validity of perceptual speed and accuracy over general mental ability. *Personnel Psychology*, *61*(1), 113-139.

Naber, A. M., & Moffett III, R. G. (2017). Follower moral reasoning influences perceptions of transformational leadership behavior. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 47*(2), 99-112.

Ng, T. W., & Feldman, D. C. (2010). Organizational tenure and job performance. *Journal of management, 36*(5), 1220-1250.

Nguni, S., Sleegers, P., & Denessen, E. (2006). Transformational and transactional leadership effects on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior in primary schools: The Tanzanian case. *School effectiveness and school improvement, 17*(2), 145-177.

Nielsen, K., Yarker, J., Brenner, S. O., Randall, R., & Borg, V. (2008). The importance of transformational leadership style for the well-being of employees working with older people. *Journal of advanced nursing, 63*(5), 465-475.

Nikolaou, I. (2003). Fitting the person to the organisation: examining the personality-job performance relationship from a new perspective. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 18(7), 639-648.

Nobel, C. (2010). Introverts: The best leaders for proactive employees. *Harvard Business School Working Knowledge*, 1-2.

Nulty, D. D. (2008). The adequacy of response rates to online and paper surveys: what can be done? *Assessment & evaluation in higher education, 33*(3), 301-314.

Organ, D. W. (1988a). Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome.

Organ, D. W. (1988b). A restatement of the satisfaction-performance hypothesis. *Journal of management, 14*(4), 547-557.

Organ, D. W. (1997). Organizational citizenship behavior: It's construct clean-up time. *Human performance, 10*(2), 85-97.

Organ, D. W., & Lingl, A. (1995). Personality, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior. *The Journal of Social Psychology*.

Organ, D. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (2005). *Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature, antecedents, and consequences*: Sage Publications.

Organ, D. W., & Ryan, K. (1995). A meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organizational citizenship behavior. *Personnel Psychology, 48*(4), 775-802.

Owen, H. (1986). Leadership indirection. *Transformational leadership*, 111-122.

Parker, R., Forrest, L., Ward, N., McCracken, J., Cox, D., & Derrett, J. (2013). How acceptable are primary health care nurse practitioners to Australian consumers? *Collegian*, 20(1), 35-41.

Phaneuf, J. É., Boudrias, J. S., Rousseau, V., & Brunelle, É. (2016). Personality and transformational leadership: The moderating effect of organizational context. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *102*, 30-35.

Phipps, S. T., & Prieto, L. C. (2011). The influence of personality factors on transformational leadership: Exploring the moderating role of political skill. *International Journal of Leadership Studies, 6*(3), 430-447.

Piccolo, R. F., Buengeler, C., & Judge, T. A. (2018). Leadership [Is] Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Review of a Self Evident Link. *The Oxford Handbook of Organizational Citizenship Behavior*, 297.

Pirola-Merlo, A., Härtel, C., Mann, L., & Hirst, G. (2002). How leaders influence the impact of affective events on team climate and performance in R&D teams. *The Leadership Quarterly, 13*(5), 561-581.

Podsakoff, N. P., Morrison, E. W., & Martinez, T. M. (2018). The Role of a Good Soldier: A Review of Research on Organizational Citizenship Behavior Role Perceptions and Recommendations for the Future Research. *The Oxford Handbook of Organizational Citizenship Behavior*, 1904.

Podsakoff, N. P., Podsakoff, P. M., Mackenzie, S. B., Maynes, T. D., Whiting, S. W., & Spoelma, T. M. (2017). Multilevel Antecedents of Organizational Citizenship Behavior. In *The Oxford Handbook of Organizational Citizenship Behavior*.

Podsakoff, N. P., Whiting, S. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & Blume, B. D. (2009). Individual- and organizational-level consequences of organizational citizenship behaviors: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*(1), 122.

Podsakoff, N. P., Whiting, S. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & Mishra, P. (2011). Effects of organizational citizenship behaviors on selection decisions in employment interviews. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 96*(2), 310.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., & Bommer, W. H. (1996). Transformational leader behaviors and substitutes for leadership as determinants of employee satisfaction, commitment, trust, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of management, 22*(2), 259-298.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*(5), 879.

Podsakoff, P. M., Mackenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioural research: a critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88* (5), 879-903.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly, 1*(2), 107-142.

Podsakoff, P. M., & Organ, D. W. (1986). Self-reports in organizational research: Problems and prospects. *Journal of management, 12*(4), 531-544.

Porter, L. W., Bigley, G. A., & Steers, R. M. (2003). Motivation and work behavior.

Power, R. A., & Pluess, M. (2015). Heritability estimates of the Big Five personality traits based on common genetic variants. *Translational psychiatry, 5*(7), e604.

Punch, K. (2000). *Developing effective research proposals*: Sage.

Quinn, D. (2002). Improving online response rates. *DD Nulty (2008) The adequacy of response rates to online and paper surveys: what can be done*, 301-314.

Rowold, J., Diebig, M., & Heinitz, K. (2017). The effects of transformational and instrumental leadership on followers' levels of cortisol. *German Journal of Human Resource Management, 31*(3), 219-237.

Rubin, R. S., Munz, D. C., & Bommer, W. H. (2005). Leading from within: The effects of emotion recognition and personality on transformational leadership behavior. *Academy of Management Journal, 48*(5), 845-858.

Ryan, A. B. (2006). Post-positivist approaches to research. *Researching and Writing your Thesis: a guide for postgraduate students*, 12-26.

Santos, J. R. A. (1999). Cronbach's alpha: A tool for assessing the reliability of scales. *Journal of extension, 37*(2), 1-5.

Schafer, J. L. (1999). Multiple imputation: a primer. *Statistical methods in medical research, 8*(1), 3-15.

Schaller, M., & Murray, D. R. (2008). Pathogens, personality, and culture: disease prevalence predicts worldwide variability in sociosexuality, extraversion, and

openness to experience. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 95*(1), 212.

Schuh, S. C., Zhang, X. a., Egold, N. W., Graf, M. M., Pandey, D., & van Dick, R. (2012). Leader and follower organizational identification: The mediating role of leader behaviour and implications for follower OCB. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 85*(2), 421-432.

Shamir, B., House, R. J., & Arthur, M. B. (1993). The motivational effects of charismatic leadership: A self-concept based theory. *Organization science, 4*(4), 577-594.

Shin, Y., Kim, M. S., Choi, J. N., Kim, M., & Oh, W.-K. (2017). Does leader-follower regulatory fit matter? The role of regulatory fit in followers' organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of management, 43*(4), 1211-1233.

Shore, L. M., Barksdale, K., & Shore, T. H. (1995). Managerial perceptions of employee commitment to the organization. *Academy of Management Journal, 38*(6), 1593-1615.

Simonton, D. K. (2008). Scientific talent, training, and performance: Intellect, personality, and genetic endowment. *Review of General Psychology, 12*(1), 28.

Singer, E., & Kulka, R. A. (2002). Paying respondents for survey participation. *Studies of welfare populations: Data collection and research issues, 4*, 105-128.

Smith, C., Organ, D. W., & Near, J. P. (1983). Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature and antecedents. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 68*(4), 653.

Singh, A. K., & Singh, A. (2009). Does personality predict organisational citizenship behaviour among managerial personnel. *Journal of the Indian Academy of Applied Psychology, 35*(2), 291-298.

Snyder, M. (1983). The influence of individuals on situations: Implications for understanding the links between personality and social behavior. *Journal of personality, 51*(3), 497-516.

Stairs, M., & Galpin, M. (2010). Positive engagement: From employee engagement to workplace happiness.

Statistics, A. B. o. (2008). National Survey of Mental Health and Wellbeing 2007: Summary of results. ABS Cat. No 4326.0. Australian Bureau of Statistics: Canberra.

Steiger, J. H., & Lind, J. C. (1980). *Statistically based tests for the number of common factors.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Psychometric Society, Iowa City, IA.

Stickley, T., & Freshwater, D. (2006). The art of listening in the therapeutic relationship. *Mental health practice*, 9(5).

Suresh, S., & Venkatammal, P. (2010). Antecedents of organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of the Indian Academy of Applied Psychology*, 36(2), 276-286.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2001). Using multivariate statistics.

Tichy, N. M., & Devanna, M. A. (1986). The transformational leader. *Training & Development Journal.*

Tims, M., Bakker, A. B., & Xanthopoulou, D. (2011). Do transformational leaders enhance their followers' daily work engagement? *The Leadership Quarterly, 22*(1), 121-131.

Todnem By, R. (2005). Organisational change management: A critical review. *Journal of change management, 5*(4), 369-380.

Tsang, S.-S., Chen, T.-Y., Wang, S.-F., & Tai, H.-L. (2012). Nursing work stress: The impacts of social network structure and organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Nursing Research, 20*(1), 9-18.

Van de Mortel, T. F. (2008). Faking it: social desirability response bias in self-report research. *Australian Journal of Advanced Nursing, The, 25*(4), 40.

Van Scotter, J. R., & Motowidlo, S. J. (1996). Interpersonal facilitation and job dedication as separate facets of contextual performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81*(5), 525.

Vincent-Höper, S., Muser, C., & Janneck, M. (2012). Transformational leadership, work engagement, and occupational success. *Career Development International, 17*(7), 663-682.

Wang, G., Oh, I.-S., Courtright, S. H., & Colbert, A. E. (2011). Transformational leadership and performance across criteria and levels: A meta-analytic review of 25 years of research. *Group & Organization Management, 36*(2), 223-270.

Wang, H., Law, K. S., Hackett, R. D., Wang, D., & Chen, Z. X. (2005). Leader-member exchange as a mediator of the relationship between transformational leadership and followers' performance and organizational citizenship behavior. *Academy of management Journal, 48*(3), 420-432.

Wanxian, L., & Weiwu, W. (2007). A demographic study on citizenship behavior as in-role orientation. *Personality and individual differences, 42*(2), 225-234.

Waterman, A. S., Schwartz, S. J., Zamboanga, B. L., Ravert, R. D., Williams, M. K., Bede Agocha, V., . . . Brent Donnellan, M. (2010). The Questionnaire for Eudaimonic Well-Being: Psychometric properties, demographic comparisons, and evidence of validity. *The Journal of Positive Psychology, 5*(1), 41-61.

Wilkinson, L. (2005). Gender stereotypes of citizenship performance and their influence on organizational rewards.

Williams, L. J., & Anderson, S. E. (1991). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviors. *Journal of management, 17*(3), 601-617.

Witt, L., Burke, L. A., Barrick, M. R., & Mount, M. K. (2002). The interactive effects of conscientiousness and agreeableness on job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(1), 164.

Wysong, P. R., & Driver, E. (2009). Patients' perceptions of nurses' skill. *Critical care nurse*, 29(4), 24-37.

Yammario, F., & Bernard, M. (1990). Bass (1990). Long-term forecasting of transformational leadership and its effects among Naval officers. *Measures of Leadership*, 151-184.

Yu, J., & Cooper, H. (1983). A quantitative review of research design effects on response rates to questionnaires. *Journal of Marketing research*, 36-44.

Yukl, G. (1998). Leaders in organizations. In: Upper Saddle River: Prentice Hall.

Yukl, G. (1999). An evaluation of conceptual weaknesses in transformational and charismatic leadership theories. *The Leadership Quarterly, 10*(2), 285-305.

Yukl, G. (2008). How leaders influence organizational effectiveness. *The Leadership Quarterly, 19*(6), 708-722.

Zopiatis, A., & Constanti, P. (2010). Leadership styles and burnout: is there an association? *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 22*(3), 300-320.

Appendices

Appendix A - Screenshot of Participant Information Sheet

<table>
<tr>
<td>**QUT**</td>
<td colspan="2">**PARTICIPANT INFORMATION FOR QUT RESEARCH PROJECT**
– Survey –</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td colspan="3">**Transformational Leadership, Employee Engagement and the moderating influence of multiple levels of foci and identification.**

QUT Ethics Approval Number 1700000512</td>
</tr>
</table>

RESEARCH TEAM

Principal Researcher:	Miss Lisa Jankowski	M Bus (Research) student
Associate Researchers:	Professor Cameron Newton	Principal Supervisor
	Dr Tim Donnet	Associate Supervisor
	School of Management, QUT Business Faculty	
	Queensland University of Technology (QUT)	

DESCRIPTION

This project is being undertaken as part of a Masters study for Lisa Jankowski.

The purpose of this research is to further understand the impact of different styles of leadership on employee engagement. This research will also look at the quality of individual's relationships with their leaders and different personality factors and how they impact employee engagement.

You are invited to participate in this project if you are aged over eighteen and have been employed for a minimum of one year in your current organisation (full time).

PARTICIPATION

Participation will involve completing a 131 item anonymous survey with various response scales that will take approximately 20 minutes of your time, for example, rating from strongly agree to strongly disagree or indicating your preference for a response.

Examples of the questions will include:
> My manager helps others develop themselves.
> I am enthusiastic about my job

Your participation in this project is entirely voluntary. If you agree to participate you do not have to complete any question(s) you are uncomfortable answering. Your decision to participate or not participate will in no way impact upon your current or future relationship with QUT or any associated external organisation. If you do agree to participate you can withdraw from the project during your participation without comment or penalty. However as the survey is anonymous once it has been submitted it will not be possible to withdraw.

Partially completed surveys will not be included in the research and the participant will not qualify for the $1US.

EXPECTED BENEFITS

To compensate you for your contribution should you choose to participate, you will receive a total of $1US (one dollar) for submitting a fully completed survey through M-Turk as per the instructions. Once you submit a fully completed survey, the $1US will be approved for payment within 24hours from submission.

RISKS

There are minimal risks associated with your participation in this project. These include feeling uncomfortable answering any questions. Please note that if there are any questions you do not want to answer you can leave them blank however you will only be compensated for submitting a completed survey.

PRIVACY AND CONFIDENTIALITY

All comments and responses are anonymous and will be treated confidentially unless required by law. The names of individual persons are not required in any of the responses.

Any data collected as part of this project will be stored securely as per QUT's Management of research data policy. Please note that non-identifiable data from this project may be used as comparative data in future projects or stored on an open access database for secondary analysis.

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE

Submitting the completed online survey is accepted as an indication of your consent to participate in this project.

QUESTIONS / FURTHER INFORMATION ABOUT THE PROJECT

If you have any questions or require further information please contact one of the listed researchers:

Lisa Jankowski	l.jankowski@hdr.qut.edu.au	
Cameron Newton	cj.newton@qut.edu.au	+61 7 3138 2523
Tim Donnet	timothy.donnet@qut.edu.au	+61 7 3138 2746

CONCERNS / COMPLAINTS REGARDING THE CONDUCT OF THE PROJECT

QUT is committed to research integrity and the ethical conduct of research projects. However, if you do have any concerns or complaints about the ethical conduct of the project you may contact the QUT Research Ethics Advisory Team on +61 7 3138 5123 or email humanethics@qut.edu.au. The QUT Research Ethics Advisory Team is not connected with the research project and can facilitate a resolution to your concern in an impartial manner.

THANK YOU FOR HELPING WITH THIS RESEARCH PROJECT.
PLEASE KEEP/PRINT THIS SHEET FOR YOUR INFORMATION.

Appendix B MTURK – Landing Page with link to Qualtrics

Subject Title:
Participate in a research study on transformational leadership, employee engagement and the moderating influence of leader-member exchange and other personality traits.

My name is Lisa Jankowski from the School of Management, Queensland University of Technology (QUT) and I'm doing a Master of Business (Research) into transformational leadership, employee engagement and the influence of leader-member exchange and personality.

I'm looking for people aged over the age of eighteen who have been employed for a minimum of one year in their current organisation (full time) to complete a 20 minute online survey.

Further details on the study and how to participate can be found by clicking on the following link:

https://busqut.au1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_a2YYetKJCIm1phr

Please note that this study has been approved by the QUT Human Research Ethics Committee (approval number 1700000512).

Many thanks for your consideration of this request.

Qualtrics – Landing Page and Survey Questions

Transformational Leadership, Employee Engagement and Personality

---

Transformational Leadership, Employee Engagement and the moderating influence of multiple levels of foci and identification.

 QUT Ethics Approval Number 1700000512

 RESEARCH TEAM: Lisa Jankowski, Prof. Cameron Newton & Dr. Tim Donnet

Principal Researcher:
Lisa Jankowski, M Bus (Research) student
Associate Researcher(s):
Prof. Cameron Newton, Principal Supervisor
Dr. Tim Donnet, Associate Supervisor
 School of Management, QUT Business Faculty Queensland University of Technology (QUT)

Description
 This project is being undertaken as part of a Masters study for Lisa Jankowski.

 The purpose of this research is to further understand the impact of different styles of leadership on employee engagement. This research will also look at the quality of individual's relationships with their leaders and different personality factors and how they impact employee engagement.

 You are invited to participate in this project if you are aged over eighteen and have been employed for a minimum of one year in your current organisation (full time).

 Participation Participation will involve completing a 131 item anonymous survey with various response scales that will take approximately 20 minutes of your time, for example, rating from strongly agree to strongly disagree or indicating your preference for a response.

Examples of the questions will include:

        My manager helps others develop themselves.

        I am enthusiastic about my job

Your participation in this project is entirely voluntary. If you agree to participate you do not have to complete any question(s) you are uncomfortable answering. Your decision to participate or not participate will in no way impact upon your current or future relationship with QUT or any associated external organisation. If you do agree to participate you can withdraw from the project during your participation without comment or penalty. However as the survey is anonymous once it has been submitted it will not be possible to withdraw.

Partially completed surveys will not be included in the research and the participant will not qualify for the $1US.

Expected benefits

To compensate you for your contribution should you choose to participate, you will receive a total of $1US (one dollar) for submitting a fully completed survey through M-Turk as per the instructions. Once you submit a fully completed survey, the $1US will be approved for payment within 24hours from submission.

Risks

There are minimal risks associated with your participation in this project. These include feeling uncomfortable answering any questions. Please note that if there are any questions you do not want to answer you can leave them blank however you will only be compensated for submitting a completed survey.

PRIVACY AND Confidentiality

All comments and responses are anonymous and will be treated confidentially unless required by law. The names of individual persons are not required in any of the responses.

Any data collected as part of this project will be stored securely as per QUT's Management of research data policy. Please note that non-identifiable data from this project may be used as comparative data in future projects or stored on an open access database for secondary analysis.

Consent to Participate

Submitting the completed online survey is accepted as an indication of your consent to participate in this project.

Questions / further information about the project

If you have any questions or require further information please contact one of the researchers listed below.

Lisa Jankowski
l.jankowski@hdr.qut.edu.au

Prof. Cameron Newton
cj.newton@qut.edu.au
+61 7 3138 2523

Dr. Tim Donnet
timothy.donnet@qut.edu.au
+61 7 3138 2746

Concerns / complaints regarding the conduct of the project
QUT is committed to research integrity and the ethical conduct of research projects. However, if you do have any concerns or complaints about the ethical conduct of the project you may contact the QUT Research Ethics Advisory Team on +61 7 3138 5123 or email humanethics@qut.edu.au. The QUT Research Ethics Advisory Team is not connected with the research project and can facilitate a resolution to your concern in an impartial manner.

THANK YOU FOR HELPING WITH THIS RESEARCH PROJECT.
A printable version of this information is available here: Participant information sheet

- -

I have read, understood the above participant information and desire of my own free will to participate in this study.

○ Yes (1)

End of Block: Participant Information For QUT Research Project

Start of Block: First Questions

What is your sex

○ Male (1)

○ Female (2)

○ Other (3)

- -

✳

What is your age?

_____

How long have you been continuously working full-time for your organisation in years? (e.g. 2)

_____

Please indicate the highest level of education you have completed. Click one only.

○ High School (1)

○ Trade Qualification (2)

○ Diploma (3)

○ Undergraduate degree / College (4)

○ Graduate Degree (5)

○ PhD / Doctorate (6)

In which country do you work?

○ USA (1)

○ Australia (2)

○ United Kingdom (3)

○ Canada (4)

○ New Zealand (5)

What is your main activity in your current role?

○ Client contact / Customer Service / Retail (1)

○ Industry / Manufacturing / food service / retail (no client contact) (2)

○ Administration (3)

○ Technical (4)

○ Team Leader / Supervisor (5)

○ Management (6)

○ Senior Management (7)

My manager makes others feel good to be around them.

○ Not at all (1)

○ Once in a while (2)

○ Sometimes (3)

○ Fairly often (4)

○ Frequently, if not always (5)

My manager expresses with a few simple words what we could and should do.

○ Not at all (1)

○ Once in a while (2)

○ Sometimes (3)

○ Fairly often (4)

○ Frequently, if not always (5)

My manager enables others to think about old problems in new ways.

○ Not at all (1)

○ Once in a while (2)

○ Sometimes (3)

○ Fairly often (4)

○ Frequently, if not always (5)

My manager helps others develop themselves.

○ Not at all (1)

○ Once in a while (2)

○ Sometimes (3)

○ Fairly often (4)

○ Frequently, if not always (5)

My manager tells others what to do if they want to be rewarded for their work.

   ○ Not at all (1)

   ○ Once in a while (2)

   ○ Sometimes (3)

   ○ Fairly often (4)

   ○ Frequently, if not always (5)

My manager is satisfied when others meet agreed-upon standards.

   ○ Not at all (1)

   ○ Once in a while (2)

   ○ Sometimes (3)

   ○ Fairly often (4)

   ○ Frequently, if not always (5)

My manager is content to let others continue working in the same way as always.

   ○ Not at all (1)

   ○ Once in a while (2)

   ○ Sometimes (3)

   ○ Fairly often (4)

   ○ Frequently, if not always (5)

My colleagues have complete faith in my manager.

○ Not at all (1)

○ Once in a while (2)

○ Sometimes (3)

○ Fairly often (4)

○ Frequently, if not always (5)

My manager provides appealing images about what we can do.

○ Not at all (1)

○ Once in a while (2)

○ Sometimes (3)

○ Fairly often (4)

○ Frequently, if not always (5)

My manager provides others with new ways of looking at puzzling things.

○ Not at all (1)

○ Once in a while (2)

○ Sometimes (3)

○ Fairly often (4)

○ Frequently, if not always (5)

My manager lets others know how they think they are doing.

○ Not at all (1)

○ Once in a while (2)

○ Sometimes (3)

○ Fairly often (4)

○ Frequently, if not always (5)

My manager provides recognition/rewards when others reach their goals.

○ Not at all (1)

○ Once in a while (2)

○ Sometimes (3)

○ Fairly often (4)

○ Frequently, if not always (5)

As long as things are working, my manager does not try to change anything.

○ Not at all (1)

○ Once in a while (2)

○ Sometimes (3)

○ Fairly often (4)

○ Frequently, if not always (5)

Whatever others want to do is O.K. with my manager.

○ Not at all (1)

○ Once in a while (2)

○ Sometimes (3)

○ Fairly often (4)

○ Frequently, if not always (5)

My colleagues are proud to be associated with my manager.

○ Not at all (1)

○ Once in a while (2)

○ Sometimes (3)

○ Fairly often (4)

○ Frequently, if not always (5)

My manager helps others find meaning in their work.

○ Not at all (1)

○ Once in a while (2)

○ Sometimes (3)

○ Fairly often (4)

○ Frequently, if not always (5)

My manager gets others to rethink ideas that they had never questioned before.

○ Not at all (1)

○ Once in a while (2)

○ Sometimes (3)

○ Fairly often (4)

○ Frequently, if not always (5)

My manager gives personal attention to others who seem rejected.

○ Not at all (1)

○ Once in a while (2)

○ Sometimes (3)

○ Fairly often (4)

○ Frequently, if not always (5)

My manager calls attention to what others can get for what they accomplish.

○ Not at all (1)

○ Once in a while (2)

○ Sometimes (3)

○ Fairly often (4)

○ Frequently, if not always (5)

My manager tells others the standards they have to know to carry out their work.

○ Not at all (1)

○ Once in a while (2)

○ Sometimes (3)

○ Fairly often (4)

○ Frequently, if not always (5)

My manager asks no more of others than what is absolutely essential.

○ Not at all (1)

○ Once in a while (2)

○ Sometimes (3)

○ Fairly often (4)

○ Frequently, if not always (5)

End of Block: MLQ Transformational Leadership Questionnaire

Start of Block: NEO IPIP

I am the life of the party.

○ Very inaccurate (1)

○ Moderately Inaccurate (2)

○ Neither Accurate nor inaccurate (3)

○ Moderately Accurate (4)

○ Very Accurate (5)

I sympathize with others' feelings

○ Very inaccurate (1)

○ Moderately Inaccurate (2)

○ Neither Accurate nor inaccurate (3)

○ Moderately Accurate (4)

○ Very Accurate (5)

I get chores done right away.

○ Very inaccurate (1)

○ Moderately Inaccurate (2)

○ Neither Accurate nor inaccurate (3)

○ Moderately Accurate (4)

○ Very Accurate (5)

I have frequent mood swings.

○ Very inaccurate (1)

○ Moderately Inaccurate (2)

○ Neither Accurate nor inaccurate (3)

○ Moderately Accurate (4)

○ Very Accurate (5)

I have a vivid imagination.

- ○ Very inaccurate (1)

- ○ Moderately Inaccurate (2)

- ○ Neither Accurate nor inaccurate (3)

- ○ Moderately Accurate (4)

- ○ Very Accurate (5)

I don't talk a lot.

- ○ Very inaccurate (1)

- ○ Moderately Inaccurate (2)

- ○ Neither Accurate nor inaccurate (3)

- ○ Moderately Accurate (4)

- ○ Very Accurate (5)

I am not interested in other people's problems.

- ○ Very inaccurate (1)

- ○ Moderately Inaccurate (2)

- ○ Neither Accurate nor inaccurate (3)

- ○ Moderately Accurate (4)

- ○ Very Accurate (5)

I often forget to put things back in their proper place.

○ Very inaccurate (1)

○ Moderately Inaccurate (2)

○ Neither Accurate nor inaccurate (3)

○ Moderately Accurate (4)

○ Very Accurate (5)

- -

I am relaxed most of the time.

○ Very inaccurate (1)

○ Moderately Inaccurate (2)

○ Neither Accurate nor inaccurate (3)

○ Moderately Accurate (4)

○ Very Accurate (5)

- -

I am not interested in abstract ideas.

○ Very inaccurate (1)

○ Moderately Inaccurate (2)

○ Neither Accurate nor inaccurate (3)

○ Moderately Accurate (4)

○ Very Accurate (5)

- -

I often forget to put things back in their proper place.

I talk to a lot of different people at parties.

◯ Very inaccurate (1)

◯ Moderately Inaccurate (2)

◯ Neither Accurate nor inaccurate (3)

◯ Moderately Accurate (4)

◯ Very Accurate (5)

- -

I feel others' emotions.

◯ Very inaccurate (1)

◯ Moderately Inaccurate (2)

◯ Neither Accurate nor inaccurate (3)

◯ Moderately Accurate (4)

◯ Very Accurate (5)

- -

I like order.

◯ Very inaccurate (1)

◯ Moderately Inaccurate (2)

◯ Neither Accurate nor inaccurate (3)

◯ Moderately Accurate (4)

◯ Very Accurate (5)

- -

I get upset easily.

    ◯ Very inaccurate (1)

    ◯ Moderately Inaccurate (2)

    ◯ Neither Accurate nor inaccurate (3)

    ◯ Moderately Accurate (4)

    ◯ Very Accurate (5)

I have difficulty understanding abstract ideas.

    ◯ Very inaccurate (1)

    ◯ Moderately Inaccurate (2)

    ◯ Neither Accurate nor inaccurate (3)

    ◯ Moderately Accurate (4)

    ◯ Very Accurate (5)

I keep in the background.

    ◯ Very inaccurate (1)

    ◯ Moderately Inaccurate (2)

    ◯ Neither Accurate nor inaccurate (3)

    ◯ Moderately Accurate (4)

    ◯ Very Accurate (5)

I am not really interested in others.

○ Very inaccurate (1)

○ Moderately Inaccurate (2)

○ Neither Accurate nor inaccurate (3)

○ Moderately Accurate (4)

○ Very Accurate (5)

I make a mess of things.

○ Very inaccurate (1)

○ Moderately Inaccurate (2)

○ Neither Accurate nor inaccurate (3)

○ Moderately Accurate (4)

○ Very Accurate (5)

I seldom feel blue.

○ Very inaccurate (1)

○ Moderately Inaccurate (2)

○ Neither Accurate nor inaccurate (3)

○ Moderately Accurate (4)

○ Very Accurate (5)

I do not have a good imagination.

○ Very inaccurate (1)

○ Moderately Inaccurate (2)

○ Neither Accurate nor inaccurate (3)

○ Moderately Accurate (4)

○ Very Accurate (5)

Helps others who have been absent

○ Strongly disagree (1)

○ Moderately disagree (2)

○ Neither agree or disagree (3)

○ Moderately agree (4)

○ Strongly Agree (5)

Helps others who have heavy work loads

○ Strongly disagree (1)

○ Moderately disagree (2)

○ Neither agree or disagree (3)

○ Moderately agree (4)

○ Strongly Agree (5)

Assists supervisor with his/her work (when not asked)

○ Strongly disagree (1)

○ Moderately disagree (2)

○ Neither agree or disagree (3)

○ Moderately agree (4)

○ Strongly Agree (5)

Takes time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries

○ Strongly disagree (1)

○ Moderately disagree (2)

○ Neither agree or disagree (3)

○ Moderately agree (4)

○ Strongly Agree (5)

Goes out of way to help new employees

○ Strongly disagree (1)

○ Moderately disagree (2)

○ Neither agree or disagree (3)

○ Moderately agree (4)

○ Strongly Agree (5)

Takes a personal interest in other employees

○ Strongly disagree (1)

○ Moderately disagree (2)

○ Neither agree or disagree (3)

○ Moderately agree (4)

○ Strongly Agree (5)

Passes along information to co-workers

○ Strongly disagree (1)

○ Moderately disagree (2)

○ Neither agree or disagree (3)

○ Moderately agree (4)

○ Strongly Agree (5)

End of Block: OCBI

Start of Block: OCBO

Attendance at work is above the norm

○ Strongly disagree (1)

○ Moderately disagree (2)

○ Neither agree or disagree (3)

○ Moderately agree (4)

○ Strongly Agree (5)

Gives advance notice when unable to come to work

○ Strongly disagree (1)

○ Moderately disagree (2)

○ Neither agree or disagree (3)

○ Moderately agree (4)

○ Strongly Agree (5)

Takes undeserved work breaks

○ Strongly disagree (1)

○ Moderately disagree (2)

○ Neither agree or disagree (3)

○ Moderately agree (4)

○ Strongly Agree (5)

Great deal of time spent with personal phone conversations

○ Strongly disagree (1)

○ Moderately disagree (2)

○ Neither agree or disagree (3)

○ Moderately agree (4)

○ Strongly Agree (5)

Complains about insignificant things at work

○ Strongly disagree (1)

○ Moderately disagree (2)

○ Neither agree or disagree (3)

○ Moderately agree (4)

○ Strongly Agree (5)

Conserves and protects organisational property

○ Strongly disagree (1)

○ Moderately disagree (2)

○ Neither agree or disagree (3)

○ Moderately agree (4)

○ Strongly Agree (5)

Adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order

○ Strongly disagree (1)

○ Moderately disagree (2)

○ Neither agree or disagree (3)

○ Moderately agree (4)

○ Strongly Agree (5)

End of Block: OCBO

Start of Block: Thank you for completing the survey.