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Leadership across hierarchical levels: Multiple levels of management and multiple levels of analysis

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ABSTRACT

We examined differences in leadership influence processes, perceptions, and multiple levels-of-analysis effects between close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership across three hierarchical levels in 13 Korean companies. Multi-source data revealed that followers' commitment to the leader mediated relationships between leadership and followers' attitudinal, behavioral, and performance outcomes in close situations, but not in distant relationships. Leadership at higher levels of management was positively related to leadership at the next lower level, which in turn related to follower outcomes at the lowest echelon. Multivariate within and between analysis indicated multiple-level effects differing by leader–follower distance and for the variables of interest.

Organizational leadership represents a linking process among various organizational members at different hierarchical levels (Likert, 1961). Close leadership between a focal leader and his/her immediate followers has been the subject of extensive research in various settings. But our understanding of distant leadership between a focal leader and his/her followers not reporting directly to him/her is much more limited (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002; Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatis, 2004; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999), and suggests several gaps in the leadership literature.

First, leadership scholars have tended to presume that organizational leadership at upper echelons represents distant leader–follower relationships. However, a leader's hierarchical level does not necessarily indicate the leader–follower distance, as evidenced by chief executive officers and their top management teams and U.S. presidents and their cabinet members (Shamir, 1995). Upper-echelon leadership perceived by close followers may not actually represent leadership at a distance and the perception of leadership and its effects may not be applicable to distant followers.

Second, the extant literature on charismatic leadership has been criticized for focusing primarily on leaders' personal characteristics and thus failing to recognize leadership based on a social relationship between the leader and follower (Howell & Shamir, 2005). The identification of differences in leaders' behaviors and influence processes between close and distant situations needs to be complemented by explanations of why those behaviors and processes are relevant to those situations in terms of follower perception formation and subsequent attitude change.

Lastly, leadership is by nature a multiple-level phenomenon occurring between an individual leader and individual followers, groups of followers, and/or collectives of the groups of followers (Dansereau & Yammarino, 1998). In particular, consideration of leader–follower distance requires us to reconceptualize previous multiple levels-of-analysis perspectives largely limited to close leadership situations and demands empirical testing of alternative possibilities regarding variability and other levels of analysis. Unfortunately, limited conceptual work (e.g., Waldman & Yammarino, 1999; Yammarino, 1994) exists which incorporates a multiple levels-of-analysis perspective to examine organizational leadership across multiple levels of management. Very few

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empirical studies correctly applied a multiple levels-of-analysis perspective to such an examination regardless of the leadership approach (Yammarino, Dionne, Chun, & Dansereau, 2005).

To begin to address these limitations in the current literature, this study examines various differences in charismatic and contingent reward leader influence processes and followers' leadership perceptions and outcomes across multiple levels of management through rigorous application of a multiple levels-of-analysis perspective. By integrating the literature on dual-mode information processing (Chaiken, 1980; Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) with the literature on charismatic and contingent reward leadership, we develop and test a conceptual model of close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership in organizations. Our study thus contributes to the leadership literature by providing conceptual and empirical evidence of differences in the appropriateness of these leadership behaviors and relationships across managerial levels and leader–follower distance.

1. Theoretical review and hypotheses

There has been no clear consensus on a theoretical and operational definition of leader–follower distance, due to little attention given to the construct in leadership literature. Antonakis and Atwater (2002) describe leader–follower distance as a configural effect composed of the following independent dimensions: (a) physical distance resulting from the difference in locations; (b) perceived social distance stemming from differentials in hierarchy, status, and power; and (c) perceived interaction frequency reflecting the perceived degree to which a leader and followers interact with each other.

Despite the configural nature of leader–follower distance, this study limits the conceptual discussion and empirical application to leader–follower distance which results from differences in organizational hierarchies. Greater hierarchical differences (i.e., socially distant) in organizations may most often manifest both greater physical distance and a lower frequency of direct

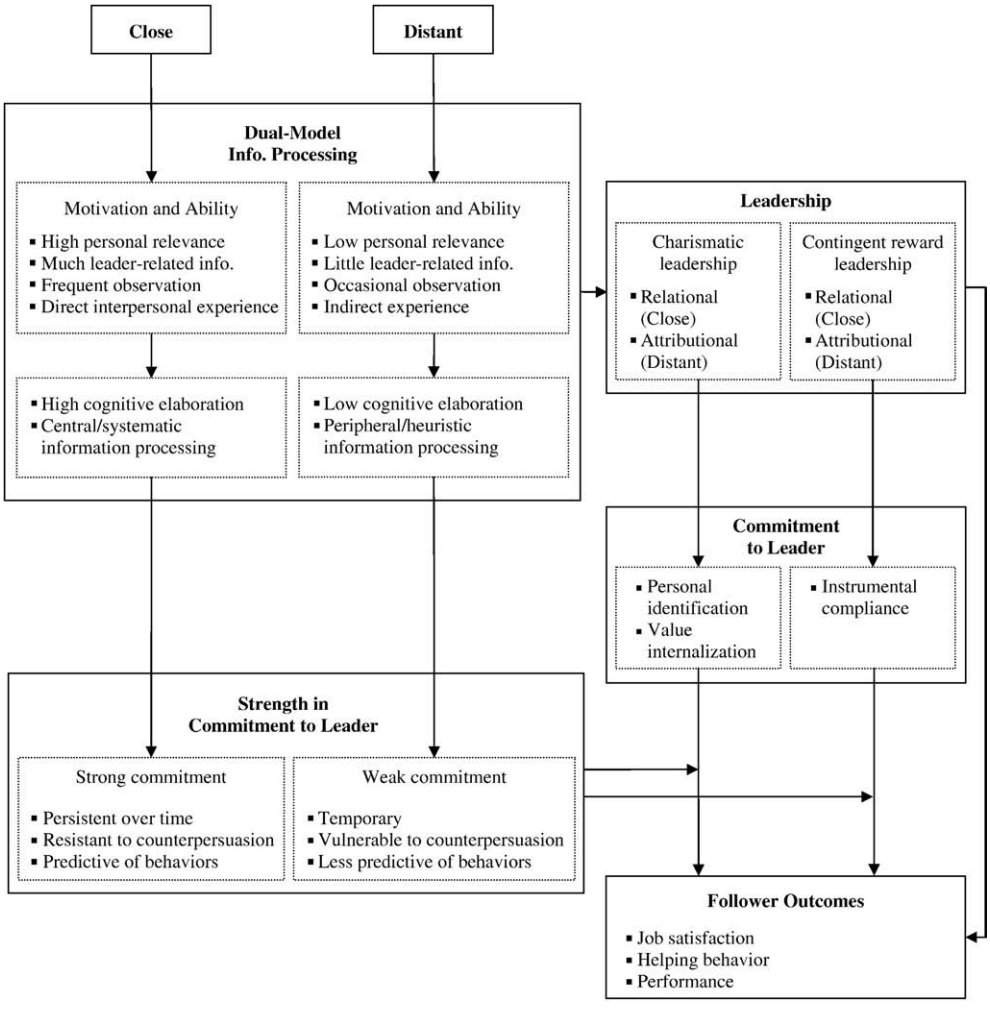

Fig. 1. A model of close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership.

interaction between leaders and followers, whereas lesser hierarchical differences (i.e., socially close) tend to result in both lesser physical distance and a higher frequency of direct interaction between the two parties. Based on this notion, Fig. 1 depicts a conceptual model of close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership in organizations which is developed below. The right-hand portion of the figure illustrates a general model of charismatic and contingent reward leadership, influence processes and follower outcomes. This model is integrated with dual-mode information processing and consequential attitudes differing by leader–follower distance, as described in the left-hand portion of the figure.

Charismatic leadership can be represented by a value-based emotional bond with followers. Charismatic leaders motivate followers to move beyond expectations and transcend their self-interests for the sake of a collective by implicating followers' self-concepts with the leader's values and goals (Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993; Sosik, 2005). Identification and internalization as influence processes (Kelman, 1958) and bases of commitment to leader (Becker, 1992) are readily applicable to a charismatic relationship (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Shamir et al., 1993). The effects of charismatic leadership on follower outcomes can be actualized through (a) a follower's personal identification with the leader, based on a leader's referent power and role-modeling behaviors, evoking follower's being proud to be associated with the leader, respect for the leader, and desire to idolize and imitate leader's behaviors and characteristics; and (b) a follower's internalization of a leader's values and beliefs, thereby leading a follower to be deeply espoused with the leader's vision and actions.

In contrast, contingent reward leadership is defined by the notion of exchange. Followers instrumentally comply with the leader and are motivated to carry out a leader's request and organizational role requirements in exchange for rewards (Bass, 1985; Podsakoff, Todor, & Skov, 1982). Instrumental compliance as an influence process explains why a follower is psychologically attached to a contingent rewarding leader who can control extrinsic rewards through position and reward power (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich, 2001).

Recent meta-analytic reviews of the charismatic and contingent reward leadership literature consistently provide strong support for the positive relationships between these leadership styles and many follower outcomes (DeGroot, Kiker, & Cross, 2000; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). These results indicate that followers of leaders who combine charisma with contingent rewards are affectively and cognitively attached to their leader, unit, and organization; highly satisfied with their working environment; deeply motivated to put forth more effort; receive higher performance ratings; and engage in organizational citizenship behaviors. The current study examines follower job satisfaction, helping behavior and job performance as follower attitudinal, behavioral and performance outcomes, respectively.

Several charismatic leadership researchers note that charisma is both *relational* and *attributional* and can be considered in terms of leader–follower distance (Antonakis & Atwater 2002; Kark & Shamir, 2002; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999; Yammarino, 1994). In light of this notion, the effectiveness of charismatic leadership may result from both actual leader behaviors in close interpersonal relations and followers' charismatic attributions in distant leadership situations. In the distant situation, follower attributions of charisma may be influenced by (a) the distant leader's symbolic impression management (Gardner & Avolio, 1998); (b) leader-related indirect information such as bulletins and mass media (Waldman & Yammarino, 1999); (c) shared implicit leadership theories (Hall & Lord, 1995) and social information processing in follower–follower relationships (Meindl, 1990); and (d) peripheral cues such as leader and organizational performance (Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987).

Contingent reward leadership also can be manifested by both relational and attributional phenomenon. For instance, the attribution of contingent reward leadership at a distance may based on (a) a company-wide contingent compensation system, policy or slogan (e.g., "Fair pay for fair work!"), and recognition system (e.g., employee of the month) (Yammarino, 1994); (b) leader-related indirect information such as story-telling, bulletins, and mass media; (c) shared implicit leadership theories (Hall & Lord, 1995); (d) social information processing in follower–follower relationships (Meindl, 1990); and (e) peripheral cues such as organizational performance (Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987). Therefore, as depicted in the right-hand portion of Fig. 1, both relational and attributional charismatic and contingent reward leadership have effects on follower outcomes directly and indirectly through follower commitment to the leader.

An important aspect of follower commitment to leader is *strength* of the commitment. We adopt the idea of attitude strength from literature on dual-mode information processing and attitude change and persuasion (e.g., Chaiken, 1980; Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) to make the concept of follower commitment to leader more applicable to the context involving leadership distance. In brief, the degree of commitment (high or low) is conceptually and empirically distinct from the strength of the commitment (strong or weak) representing how the commitment is persistent over time, resistant to counterpersuasion, and predictive of corresponding behaviors (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). For instance, a follower who is not very committed to a leader may strongly hold low commitment, while a follower with high commitment to the leader may be easily persuaded to alter that commitment when peers point out leader faults or weaknesses. Consequently, strength of the commitment moderates the relationship between the commitment and resulting attitudinal, behavioral, and performance outcomes (Petty, Wegener, & Fabrigar, 1997). The moderating effect of strength of the commitment on the commitment-outcome linkages is depicted in the lower portion of Fig. 1. Different information processing and commitment strength between close and distant situations and its moderation are foundations of our theory and hypothesis development below.

1.1. Close and distant leadership

The factors determining the level of cognitive elaboration which, in turn, affects the attitude strength, can be well matched with the individual and contextual factors characterizing the close and distant situations (see motivation and ability factors listed in the upper left-hand portion of Fig. 1). The close leadership context is characterized by a high level of followers' personal relevance to the leader, substantial amount of leader-related information, repeated observation of leader actual day-to-day behaviors, and

direct interpersonal experience with the leader (Antonakis & Atwater 2002; Shamir, 1995; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999). The dual-mode information processing literature (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) suggests that, in this context, immediate followers are more likely to engage in central/systematic information processing when they form an attitude toward their leader. Consequently, close leadership becomes a relational phenomenon and a strong follower commitment to the leader is likely to emerge. The strong commitment (i.e., persistent over time, resistant to counterpersuasion, and predictive of corresponding behaviors) may positively moderate the relationships between commitment to leader and follower outcomes (Petty, Haugtvedt, & Smith, 1995; Petty et al., 1997). Research on part-whole attitude effects (Krosnick, 1988) suggests that commitment to leader (a part of the job environment) is more strongly related to job satisfaction (an overall attitude toward the job) when the commitment is strong. A number of studies have found greater attitude–behavior consistency among people whose attitude is strong (e.g., Petty et al., 1997). Consequently, the positive moderation is likely to drive a mediation of commitment in the relationships between leadership and outcomes.

Compared to the close leadership situation, the distant leadership context is characterized by a low level of followers' personal relevance to leader, little leader-related information, occasional observation of leader, symbolic impression management, and indirect experience with the leader (Antonakis & Atwater 2002; Shamir, 1995; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999). In this distant context, distant followers may engage in peripheral/heuristic information processing when they form an attitude toward the leader. Accordingly, leadership at a distance may become a leadership phenomenon largely based on followers' attributions of the leader, and weak follower attitude toward the leader may be engendered. Finally, the attitude strength literature (Petty et al., 1995, 1997) suggests that the weak attitude toward the leader (i.e., temporary, susceptible to counterpersuasion, and less predictive of corresponding behaviors) may negatively moderate the relationships between the attitude and follower outcomes. In other words, attributional charisma and contingent reward leadership in distant situations also may increase the degree of follower commitment to the leader, but the commitment may not be strong enough to mediate the relationship between the attributional leadership and its criteria.

Taken together, followers of charismatic and contingent reward leadership in close situations may feel, behave, and perform in accordance with their commitment to the leader, whereas followers in distant, attribution-based leadership situations may not consistently feel, behave, and perform with positive or negative attitudes toward the distant leaders. Thus:

Hypothesis 1a. The relationship between charismatic leadership and followers' job satisfaction, helping behavior and performance will be mediated by followers' personal identification and value internalization with the leader in close leader–follower situations, but *not* in distant contexts.

Hypothesis 1b. The relationship between contingent reward leadership and followers' job satisfaction, helping behavior and performance will be mediated by followers' instrumental compliance with the leader in close leader–follower situations, but *not* in distant contexts.

Similar behavioral leadership patterns across levels of management may serve as an alternative influence mechanism by which distant leaders can influence their followers. A distant leader influences distant followers indirectly via his/her immediate followers who are also the immediate leaders for the distant followers. Namely, the influence of a distant leader can cascade down to distant followers through intermediate levels of management (Bass, Avolio, Waldman, & Bebb, 1987; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999; Yammarino, 1994) and thereby manifest a distant leader's behavioral pattern. Likert's (1961) 'linking pin' and Katz and Kahn's (1966) 'interpolation' notions represent the role of an intermediate level of management in the cascading model. Given Hypotheses 1a and 1b that distant followers' bases of commitment to the leader will not mediate the relationship between distant leadership and follower outcomes, this cascading model may explain why positive relationships between distant leadership and follower outcomes can be expected.

Bass et al. (1987) obtained support for the cascading effect of transformational and contingent reward leadership. However, their study did not demonstrate how the cascading effect occurred nor test it fully, as only bivariate correlations between two levels of management were employed. We suggest that the influence processes operating between charismatic and contingent reward leadership and follower outcomes also mediate the relationships between charismatic and contingent reward leadership and corresponding leadership at the next lower level of management.

Personal identification with a charismatic leader exerting referent power and displaying role-modeling exemplary behaviors evokes followers' pride in the association with the leader, respect for the leader, and ultimately, desire to idolize and imitate the charismatic behaviors and qualities (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Shamir et al., 1993). Internalization of the values and beliefs of a charismatic leader would transform follower attitudes toward the leader and work environments and induce followers' similar behavioral patterns consistent with the values and beliefs of the leader (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Intermediate levels of management hold dual positions as a leader as well as a follower. As such, performance of the middle managers can be gauged by their dual roles. Research on similarity/attraction (Williams & O'Reilly, 1998) suggests that a contingent rewarding superior of middle managers may favorably consider the contingent reward leadership and expect them to display that leadership style. Moreover, they may interpret the contingent reward role requirements, instrumentally comply with the contingent reward leader, and demonstrate the leadership behavior. Therefore, we posit:

Hypothesis 2a. The relationship in the ratings between charismatic leadership at the upper-level of management and charismatic leadership at the next lower level of management will be mediated by followers' personal identification and value internalization with the leader.

Hypothesis 2b. The relationship in the ratings between contingent reward leadership at the upper-level of management and contingent reward leadership at the next lower level of management will be mediated by followers' instrumental compliance with the leader.

1.2. Multiple levels of analysis

Consideration of levels of analysis is first a theoretical issue (see Yammarino et al., 2005). Members of a unit (e.g., dyad, group, or collective) can be *homogeneous* within the unit, *heterogeneous* within the unit, or *independent* of the unit (Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994; Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984). This conceptualization of variation predicts that theoretical constructs and their relationships can be a consequence of (a) differences between units, (b) differences within units, or (c) differences between members independent of the units, respectively. Building on this conceptualization, there are several plausible levels of analysis which are developed below, depending on the differences in leader behaviors, follower information processing and consequential attitude strength between close and distant situations.

1.2.1. Close leadership

Close charismatic leadership may be a relational phenomenon primarily manifested by a charismatic leader's actual day-to-day behaviors and followers' perceptions of the behaviors and attitude formations toward the leader through central/systematic information processing. Although a key role of charismatic leadership is to stimulate followers' collective efforts and enactment for a collective mission, at the same time, a relatively small span of control entailing interpersonal relationships in close situations may make it possible for a charismatic leader to recognize each immediate follower's unique needs, and tailor his/her charismatic behaviors to each of the followers. Showing sensitivity to a follower's needs is one charismatic leader behavior (Conger & Kanungo, 1998) representing a higher-order exchange (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987) based on a follower's higher-order needs. Accordingly, charismatic leader behaviors in close relationships may be characterized by those displaying and emphasizing a collective sense in combination with tailoring behaviors to one or some of followers within the group (Yammarino, Spangler, & Dubinsky, 1998).

Close followers' perceptions and reactions to the charismatic leader may also be correspondent to the charismatic behaviors toward followers within the group, because the close followers may not rely on secondary sources of information transmitted through social information processing, but rather, may solely rely on their direct personal experiences with the leader, resulting in different perceptions of the leader from others within the same group. Consideration of close charismatic leader behaviors and followers' perceptions and reactions to the leadership suggests the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3. The relationships between close charismatic leadership and follower outcomes (job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance) will occur at the within-group level of analysis; that is, the associations are based on *within-group differences*.

A contingent reward leader motivates followers to carry out the leader's requests and organizational role requirements in exchange for extrinsic rewards (Bass, 1985; Podsakoff et al., 1982). For contingent reward leadership to be effective, the rewards need to correspond to followers' needs and desires. The close leader–follower interpersonal context characterized by a relatively small span of control and direct interpersonal interaction may make it possible for a contingent reward leader to recognize each immediate follower's unique needs and provide each follower with rewards meeting his/her needs, contingent upon his/her performance. A close contingent reward leader is able to monitor each follower's actual behaviors and performance, and as such, the follower also directly observes the leader's day-to-day actual behaviors. The leader controls rewards to a particular follower, whereas the follower also controls his/her performance to the leader depending on the quality of exchange. The two parties may form an independent dyad (independent of the group) by exerting mutual influence (Yammarino et al., 1998). Accordingly, close contingent reward leadership may hold at the dyad level of analysis. Thus:

Hypothesis 4. The relationships between close contingent reward leadership and follower outcomes will occur at the between-dyads level of analysis; that is, the associations are based on *between-dyads differences*.

1.2.2. Distant leadership

Personal identification and value internalization with the charismatic leader whose values and beliefs are based on a collective sense is likely to be followed by social identification with the collective and the followers viewing the collective's success as their own success. To stimulate followers' collective efforts and enactment for the collective mission, the charismatic leader is likely to engage in leader behaviors toward the collective as a whole. This whole view of charismatic leader behaviors has been accepted in most theoretical work and used as an operational level of analysis in most empirical research (e.g., Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Shamir, Zakay, Breinin, & Popper, 1998).

The large span of control imposed on distant charismatic leaders may not make it plausible to tailor their charismatic behaviors to each of the distant followers, making the distant charismatic leader substantially involved in symbolic impression management behaviors toward the collective as a whole (e.g., a company-wide speech or email message). Distant followers under the charismatic leader also are likely to perceive the charismatic leader in a very similar way. Stories and ritual forms of symbolic impression management and various leader-related peripheral cues from bulletins, sagas, and slogans are passed and shared among the distant followers through social information processing in follower–follower relationships (Waldman & Yammarino, 1999). In addition, the social information processing seems to be more observable in the relationship among distant followers,

because their attitudes toward the leader could be weak and thereby vulnerable to the opinions of others. These arguments suggest:

Hypothesis 5. The relationships between distant charismatic leadership and follower outcomes will occur at the between-collectives level of analysis; that is, the associations are based on *between-collectives differences*.

A large span of control imposed on distant contingent reward leaders may make it impossible to recognize each distant follower's unique needs, and then tailor contingent rewards to each of the distant followers (Antonakis & Atwater 2002). Accordingly, role clarification and rewarding behaviors of a distant contingent reward leader may focus on each group of distant followers within a collective, and as such, each group of distant followers within the collective also controls its performance. Contingent reward leadership at a distance also is an attributional phenomenon where peripheral/heuristic information processing may be a primary route for distant followers to evaluate the leadership. Social information processing based on various leader-related peripheral cues may be more likely to operate among followers in groups within the collective rather than across all distant followers in the collective. This may be due to the notion that a distant contingent reward leader tailors his/her role clarification and rewarding behaviors to each group of followers within the collective. Therefore:

Hypothesis 6. The relationships between distant contingent reward leadership and follower outcomes will occur at the within-collective level of analysis; that is, the associations are based on *within-collective differences*.

2. Methods

2.1. Sample and procedure

The research design of the current study involves three hierarchical levels of management (department head–manager–staff member) that form two close leadership situations, one at the upper level (department head–manager) and one at the lower level (manager–staff member), and one distant leader–follower relationships (department head–staff member). This study was carried out at the headquarters site of 13 large Korean companies including Hyundai Motors and Samsung SDI. Survey questionnaires were administered during regular working hours to 42 executive directors working as heads of their departments. Adapted from Schriesheim, Castro, and Yammarino's (2000) study, matched reports from three levels of management (i.e., followers report about their leaders *and* the leaders report about *each* of their followers) were obtained to test for individual-, dyad-, group-, and department-level effects. However, participants were not asked to provide their names, and their responses remained anonymous. To further ensure confidentiality, enclosed with every questionnaire were a joint researcher-company cover letter and a sealable return envelope.

The department heads were first asked to randomly select three managers as their immediate followers and then to rate their leadership toward each of the managers and the managers' bases of commitment and outcomes. Included in the department heads' survey packet were three additional survey packets, labelled Manager A, Manager B, and Manager C, and numbered to correspond with each department head's questionnaire. The department heads, after completing their surveys, were directed to hand out those three survey packets to the focal managers rated in their questionnaires.

The managers were first asked to describe department heads' leadership and to rate their commitment to the department heads and their own outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance); then the identical procedure used with department heads was applied to managers as well. The managers were instructed to randomly select three staff members working as their direct reports and then complete questionnaires about their leadership toward each of the selected staff members and the follower's outcomes and commitment to themselves. After completing their questionnaires, the managers were asked to give the focal staff members three questionnaires, labeled Staff A, Staff B, and Staff C, and numbered to correspond with each department head's and manager's questionnaire. Finally, the three staff members were instructed to describe department head's leadership as well as manager's leadership, in addition to their own performance levels and commitment to each of the leaders. No matched report for distant leader–follower relationship was obtained, as it is very unusual for executive directors in large companies to establish formal working relationships with individual staff members.

Of the administered survey questionnaires, 33 department heads (78.6% of the distributed questionnaires), 94 managers (74.6%), and 269 staff members (71.2%) returned their questionnaires. Potential participants were excluded from analyses if a leader report was provided but a matching follower report was not obtained or if a follower report was available but a matching leader report was not. Additionally, the current study included only staff members and managers who had at least a three-month tenure with their leaders to ensure sufficient acquaintance of followers with leaders and to allow development of commitment to the leader. Final usable matched data set consisted of 27 department heads (81.8% of the returned questionnaires), 77 managers (81.9%), and 218 staff members (81.0%). This data set produced 77 department head–manager dyads within 27 groups at upper-level and 218 manager–staff member dyads within 77 groups at lower-level in 27 departments from 13 companies. As there were no significant differences in the variables of interest among the companies, all data were pooled for further analyses.

2.2. Measures

The Korean versions of all measures were created by following Brislin's (1980) translation-back-translation procedure. Unless otherwise indicated, each item was measured by a five-point scale ranging from 0 to 4.

2.2.1. Leader behavior

We used eight items of the idealized influence-behavior and inspirational motivation and four items of the contingent reward scales from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X, Bass & Avolio, 1997) to measure charismatic and contingent reward leadership (charisma: $\alpha = .91$ [leader ratings], .89 [follower ratings]; contingent reward: $\alpha = .81$ [leader ratings], .88 [follower ratings]). Four items measuring attributed idealized influence were not included, because they have been criticized for representing leadership impact rather than leader actual behavior (Yukl, 1999) and might artificially inflate its relationship with personal identification and value internalization.

2.2.2. Commitment to leader

Personal identification, value internalization, and instrumental compliance were assessed using four, three, and two items, respectively, adapted from several commitment and value congruence studies (Becker, 1992; Becker, Billings, Eveleth, & Gilbert, 1996; Posner, 1992) (personal identification: $\alpha = .86$ [leader ratings], .88 [follower ratings]; value internalization: $\alpha = .81$ [leader ratings], .79 [follower ratings]; instrumental compliance: $\alpha = .74$ [leader ratings], .73 [follower ratings]). A sample item from the follower version is (a) "I view his/her success as my own success" (personal identification); (b) "There is a great deal of agreement between my personal values and his/her core values" (value internalization); and (c) "How hard I work for my job is directly linked to how much I am rewarded by him/her" (instrumental compliance).

2.2.3. Outcomes

Affective and general job satisfaction was assessed using three items from Hackman and Oldham's (1980) Job Diagnostic Survey ($\alpha = .72$ [leader ratings], .76 [follower ratings]). Helping behavior was measured using three items of the altruism dimension of organizational citizenship behaviors (MacKenzie et al., 2001) ($\alpha = .86$ [leader ratings], .81 [follower ratings]). Follower performance was measured using three items with regard to quantity, quality, and efficiency of work adapted from Mott's (1972) scale measuring productivity dimension. Previous research using this adapted measure (e.g., Schriesheim et al., 2000; Schriesheim, Castro, Zhou, & DeChurch, 2006) has demonstrated good psychometric properties. Previous studies employing a long version of Mott's original scale demonstrated that it was significantly correlated with objective performance indicators (e.g., Fulk & Wendler, 1982).

2.2.4. Leader–follower distance check

Given the widely adopted team-based design, flattening structure and eliminating many middle-levels in parallel with technological advancement and corresponding task uncertainty and interdependence (Slocum & Sims, 1980), differences in hierarchy might not indicate the leader–follower interaction frequency and consequential attitude strength. To check whether the three hierarchical levels actually represent close and distant situations, the *interaction frequency* was measured by asking managers and staff members, "Looking back on the past 3 months, approximately how many hours per week do you spend interacting with the leader at work? Check one." Responses ranged from 0 = "less than 1 h" to 4 = "more than 15 h."

Strength in personal identification, value internalization, and instrumental compliance were assessed using a single-item measure of *attitude certainty*.[1] As an index of attitude strength, certainty has implications for persistency, resistance, and predictability of behaviors of an attitude (Gross, Holtz, & Miller, 1995). After completing each measure of the bases of commitment, managers and staff members were asked to make an overall rating of the certainty of each measure on a five-point scale ranging from 0 = "very uncertain" to 4 = "very certain." The single-item measure of certainty states, "How certain do you feel about your ratings on the questions above? Check one."

2.3. Construct validity and measurement equivalence

2.3.1. Construct validity

Given a well-established theoretical framework of charismatic and contingent reward leadership, confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) using AMOS 4.0 maximum likelihood procedure (Arbuckle & Wothke, 1999) were conducted to examine the validity of all measures. Various fit indices across leader and follower ratings of the measures of charismatic and contingent reward leadership indicate both the two-factor model (charisma and contingent reward: RMSEA = .05, TLI = .97, CFI = .97 for leader ratings; RMSEA = .08, TLI = .94, CFI = .95 for follower ratings) and three-factor model (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and contingent reward: RMSEA = .05, TLI = .97, CFI = .98 for leader ratings; RMSEA = .07, TLI = .95, CFI = .96 for follower ratings) are acceptable for use. The chi-square difference tests for the models, however, suggest the three-factor model is the best fitting model ($\Delta\ \chi^2\ (df) = 14.41(2)$, $p < .05$ for leader ratings; $\Delta\ \chi^2\ (df) = 44.90\ (2)$, $p < .05$ for follower ratings). Nonetheless, we decided to retain the two-factor model for the current study, because: (a) theoretically, inspirational motivation is regarded as a sub-factor of charisma along with idealized influence (Bass, 1985); (b) empirically, Bass and his colleagues have continuously demonstrated a six-factor model where idealized influence and inspirational motivation are pooled into one factor, charisma (Avolio, Bass, & Jung,

[1] A single-item scale was used because (a) the primary purpose of this study is to examine the contingency role of leader-follower distance, partly reflecting interaction frequency, but *not* about attitude strength itself; (b) there is neither a multi-item scale for attitude certainty nor a known psychometric measure for the reflective indicators of strength–persistency, resistance, and behavioral predictability; and (c) using attitude certainty seems appropriate for the self-reporting survey context.

1999; Bass et al., 2003); and (c) practically, the main purpose of current study is not to test the possible differentiated impact of idealized influence from inspirational motivation.

For the measures of personal identification, value internalization, instrumental compliance, chi-square comparisons with the next best fitting model across both rating sources supported the superiority of the three-factor model. Model fit statistics for the three-factor model also indicated good model fit for both rating sources (RMSEA = .04, TLI = .99, CFI = .99 for leader ratings; RMSEA = .03, TLI = .99, CFI = .99 for follower ratings). Lastly, a three-factor model of job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance was confirmed for both leader and follower ratings (RMSEA = .04, TLI = .99, CFI = .99 for leader ratings; RMSEA = .05, TLI = .98, CFI = .98 for follower ratings).

2.3.2. Measurement equivalence

Invariance in measurement between leader and follower ratings is a critical issue for the matched-report procedure; while the leaders and followers with different characteristics such as roles and positions may rate an identical target in different ways, the measurement of the target should be equivalent across two rating sources. The generalizability of the measurement model and the invariance of structural parameters between leader and follower ratings were tested using multi-group measurement analyses (Byrne, 2001; Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). First, a two-group baseline model was estimated, in which factor patterns were equal and all parameters were set free across the two groups (model A). Second, this baseline model was compared to another two-group model (model B) where factor patterns were equal *but* factor loadings were constrained to be equal across the two groups. This comparison demonstrates whether both factor loadings and factor patterns are invariant across the two rating groups. Specifically, to support the invariance, the chi-square difference between the two models should *not* be significant and model fit statistics for both models should be identical and acceptable.

For the two-factor measurement model of charismatic and contingent reward leadership, the chi-square difference between the two models (model A and model B) was not statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2(df) = 11.08(10)$, $p > .05$). Model fit statistics for both models were identical across two rating sources and showed good model fit (for both models: RMSEA = .05, TLI = .95, CFI = .96). The three-factor measurement model of personal identification, value internalization, and instrumental compliance also was invariant between leader and follower ratings ($\Delta\chi^2(df) = 4.30(6)$, $p > .05$; RMSEA = .02, TLI = .99, CFI = .99 for both models). Lastly, the three-factor measurement model of job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance was invariant across two rating sources as well ($\Delta\chi^2(df) = 4.14(6)$, $p > .05$; RMSEA = .03, TLI = .98, CFI = .99 for both models).

In all, the series of CFAs and multi-group measurement analyses indicate that all measures included for hypothesis testing can be differentiated empirically and that this distinction is invariant across two rating sources–leaders and followers. The supporting result for invariance in measurement between leader and follower ratings justifies the use of the matched-report procedure to test the multiple levels-of-analysis effects and to mitigate the potential of common-source bias.

2.4. Data analyses

Before the hypothesis testing per se, we examined potential effects of three demographic variables–age, organizational tenure, and tenure with leader-on the hypothesized relationships. Other typical demographics were not examined because (a) all respondents (except 8% of staff members) were male, so controlling gender seemed unnecessary; (b) all respondents were full-time employees doing office work at the headquarters site, implying that differences in function might not be an issue; and (c) no significant differences on any of the leadership and outcome variables were found across the various organizations or industries in this study. The three potentially relevant demographic variables were first entered into hierarchical regressions to determine whether they explained any meaningful variance in the outcome variables. Results of the multiple regressions including the demographic variables were virtually identical with the results excluding those variables. Hence, we present only the analyses and results without the control variables.

A series of traditional and multi-level analyses were employed to test the hypotheses. In terms of the former, descriptive statistics and raw-score correlations at the individual level of analysis were produced separately for focal hypothesis testing, because of unequal numbers of reports resulting from different sample sizes at different hierarchical levels. A series of hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to test the hypothesized mediation effects by following Baron and Kenny's (1986) recommended procedure.

Within and Between Analysis (WABA: Dansereau et al., 1984; Yammarino & Markham, 1992; Yammarino, Dubinsky, Comer, & Jolson, 1997; Yammarino et al., 1998) was employed to test the effects of multiple levels of analysis. There are three steps in WABA. First, in WABA I, *each variable* in a hypothesized relationship is assessed at a particular level (e.g., dyad) to determine whether scores for the variable vary primarily between, within, or both between and within the units of interest. Within- and between-eta (η) correlations are compared to identify the source of variation, and the difference is tested using *F*-tests for statistical significance and *E*-tests for practical significance (magnitude of effects) which are not dependent on degree of freedom.

Second, in WABA II, the hypothesized *relationship among variables* is assessed at a particular level to determine whether covariation among the variables varies primarily between, within, or both between and within the units of interest. Between- and within-cell correlations are examined using bivariate *t*- or multivariate *F*-tests for statistical significance and *R*-tests for practical significance. Differences between the paired between- and within-cell correlations are tested using *Z*-tests for statistical significance and *A*-tests for practical significance. Finally, in the third step, results from the first two steps are combined to draw an overall conclusion by decomposing the traditional raw-score correlation into within and between *components*.

The WABA procedure outlined above is a key aspect of the multi-level approach designed for application in bivariate analysis. The basic procedure is easily extended to conduct multi-level multivariate analysis through the application of hierarchical linear multiple regression (Schriesheim, 1995; Schriesheim et al., 2000; Schriesheim, Neider, & Scandura, 1998). Underlying the basic procedure of the multivariate WABA is the unstandardized partial regression coefficients multiplied by between- and within-cell scores, resulting in a new composite between-entities independent variable and a new composite within-entities independent variable. For the *F*- and *Z*-tests of statistical significance, degrees of freedom are adjusted to reflect the additional parameters (for details, see Dansereau et al., 1984; Schriesheim, 1995).

Finally, matched reports from leader and followers made it possible for us to test hypothesized relationships with single- and multi-rating sources. However, we present below only results from a combination of multi-rating sources, following the principle that leadership is assessed by followers and followers' outcomes are measured by corresponding leaders. Results from single-rating sources, while similar to those from multi-rating sources, may be subject to inflation related to single-source effects, and thus are avoided here.

3. Results

3.1. Leader–follower distance check

Results of paired sample *t*-tests showed a significant difference in interaction frequency reported by staff members between manager–staff relations and department head–staff relations ($t = 22.35$, $p < .01$). Also, independent sample *t*-tests reported the interaction frequency with department heads reported by managers was significantly higher than that with the department heads reported by staff members ($t = 21.58$, $p < .01$).

Attitude strength, as noted above, may serve as a proxy indicator for the interaction frequency. Paired sample *t*-tests revealed that strength in all three bases of staff members' commitment to managers was significantly greater than strength in staff members' commitment to department heads (strength in personal identification: $t = 14.53$, $p < .01$; strength in value internalization: $t = 15.25$, $p < .01$; strength in instrumental compliance: $t = 15.01$, $p < .01$). Furthermore, according to independent sample *t*-tests, managers' bases of commitment to department heads were significantly stronger than staff members' bases of commitment to department heads (strength in personal identification: $t = 10.51$, $p < .01$; strength in value internalization: $t = 9.80$, $p < .01$; strength in instrumental compliance: $t = 8.89$, $p < .01$). In all, these results confirmed that the partitioning of leadership situations into close and distant leader–follower relations in the current study seemed reasonable to test the hypotheses of interest regarding close and distant leadership.

3.2. Close and distant leadership

Two comparisons between close and distant leadership were conducted from three levels of management. A distant leadership situation (department head-staff member) was compared with two close leadership situations at the upper level (department head-manager) and at the lower level (manager-staff member). In the former case, it may be possible that any potential differences in the comparison result from various exogenous factors derived from two different followers (manager and staff member) in addition to leader–follower distance. Contrarily, in the latter case, any resulting differences can be caused by the exogenous factors from two different leaders (department head and manager) as well as leadership distance. Results from the two comparisons were virtually identical, indicating that the findings were primarily accounted by leader–follower distance. Hence, we present below only results from the comparison of the latter case to better represent how a follower (staff member) shapes his/her leadership perception and attitudes differently between close (manager) and distant (department head) leaders.

Table 1 presents raw-score descriptive statistics and correlations for close and distant leadership. Hypothesized differences appear well represented in the correlations. Specifically, the magnitude of correlations between staff members' bases of commitment to managers and their outcomes are stronger than that of correlations between their commitment to department heads and outcomes. This implies that differences in commitment strength between close and distant situations moderated the commitment–outcomes linkages.

Table 2 summarizes the results of regression analyses testing mediation effects in close and distant situations. Supporting Hypothesis 1a, staff members' personal identification and value internalization with managers *fully* mediated the relations between managers' charismatic leadership and staff members' job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance, whereas the two bases of commitment to department heads did *not* mediate the relationships between their charismatic leadership and staff members' outcomes (see Table 2, Steps 3a and 3b for charismatic leadership).

Hypothesis 1b regarding contingent reward leadership was not completely supported. Specifically, although managers' contingent reward leadership was significantly related to staff members' outcomes, the mediating role of instrumental compliance with the leader was not fully demonstrated, with an exception that the instrumental compliance fully mediated the relationship between manager's contingent reward and job satisfaction. However, as hypothesized, department heads' contingent reward leadership was associated with staff members' job satisfaction and performance, and the relationship with performance still remained significant, even after staff members' instrumental compliance with the leader was entered in the regression equation, suggesting no mediation in the distant situation (see Table 2, Steps 2 and 3 for contingent reward leadership).

In all, these findings suggest that while the followers of a charismatic and contingent reward leader in close situations feel, behave, and perform in accordance with their commitment to the leader, their commitment to a distant leader does not predict

Table 1
Means, standard deviations, and correlations for close and distant leadership.[a]

Variables[b]	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. MCHS	2.67	.60												
2. MCRS	2.50	.73	.61											
3. DCHS	2.58	.60	.48	.39										
4. DCRS	2.37	.75	.39	.43	.69									
5. SPIMS	2.74	.60	.55	.52	.35	.31								
6. SVIMS	2.61	.57	.57	.59	.35	.33	.58							
7. SICMS	2.87	.66	.34	.39	.29	.32	.42	.38						
8. SPIDS	2.34	.77	.41	.32	.61	.63	.43	.37	.33					
9. SVIDS	2.34	.69	.34	.32	.61	.58	.24	.36	.24	.68				
10. SICDS	2.65	.72	.22	.24	.42	.53	.19	.21	.47	.41	.44			
11. SSATM	2.76	.62	.18	.17	.22	.18	.22	.22	.21	.14	.15	.17		
12. SHBM	2.91	.63	.22	.29	.17	.11	.33	.30	.11	.17	.09	.01	.43	
13. SPERM	2.79	.60	.23	.24	.21	.20	.26	.24	.09	.14	.13	.09	.41	.52

$n = 218$. All correlations ≥ .14 are significant, $p < .05$ and those ≥ .18 are significant, $p < .01$.
[a] Close leadership between manager and staff member; distant leadership between department head and staff member.
[b] The first and last letters of each variable indicates levels of management and rating sources, respectively, and others mean the focal variable (CH = charismatic, CR = contingent reward, PI = personal identification, VI = value internalization, IC = instrumental compliance, SAT = job satisfaction, HB = helping behavior, PER = performance). For example, MCHS = manager's charismatic leadership rated by staff; SPIMS = Staff's personal identification with manager rated by staff; SVIDS = staff's value internalization with department head rated by staff; SHBM = staff's helping behavior rated by manager.

their outcomes. We found the same results even in single-source data sets, where the relationships between mediators and outcome variables have potential to be inflated. These findings imply that attributed leadership may not have greater impact than relational leadership on distant followers' individual outcomes.

Raw-score descriptive statistics and correlations for the variables in cascading leadership (i.e., leadership transmitted down through the levels of management) are presented in Table 3, and Table 4 summarizes the results of regression analyses testing mediation effects. Given the presence of unequal numbers of ratings between department head's leadership toward each manager ($n = 77$) and manager's leadership toward each staff member ($n = 218$), the leadership of managers toward each staff member within their units was aggregated to a manager's leadership score to test the cascading model. The results of WABA I analyses provided sufficient evidence for aggregation (charismatic leadership: between-eta = .93, within-eta = .36; contingent reward leadership: between-eta = .93, within-eta = .38).

Supporting Hypothesis 2a, manager's personal identification and value internalization with department head *partially* mediated the cascading model of charismatic leadership (see Table 4, Steps 3a and 3b for charismatic leadership). Although contingent reward leadership of department heads had a significant positive relationship with the corresponding leadership of a manager (see Table 4, Step 2, $\beta = .44$, $p < .01$), managers' instrumental compliance with their leaders did not mediate the

Table 2
Regression results for mediation in close and distant leadership.

	Dependent variables					
Independent variables	SPIMS (SPIDS)	SVIMS (SVIDS)	SICMS (SICDS)	SSATM	SHBM	SPERM
Charismatic						
Step 1: MCHS (DCHS)	.55** (.78**)	.55** (.70**)				
Step 2: MCHS (DCHS)				.19** (.23**)	.23** (.17*)	.23** (.21**)
Step 3a: MCHS (DCHS)				.09 (.22*)	.06 (.10)	.13 (.20*)
SPIMS (SPIDS)				.18* (.01)	.32** (.09)	.19* (.01)
3b: MCHS (DCHS)				.08 (.21*)	.07 (.19*)	.13 (.21*)
SVIMS (SVIDS)				.20* (.03)	.29** (−.02)	.18* (.01)
Contingent reward						
Step 1: MCRS (DCRS)			.35** (.51**)			
Step 2: MCRS (DCRS)				.14* (.15*)	.25** (.09)	.20** (.16**)
Step 3: MCRS (DCRS)				.08 (.10)	.25** (.13)	.20** (.17**)
SICMS (SICDS)				.17* (.09)	−.01 (−.06)	.00 (−.02)

Variables in parentheses represent distant leadership and distant followers' bases of commitment to the leader. Values in parentheses represent the regression coefficients from the testing of distant relationship. The first and last letters of each variable indicates levels of management and rating sources, respectively, and others represent the focal variable (CH = charismatic, CR = contingent reward, PI = personal identification, VI = value internalization, IC = instrumental compliance, SAT = job satisfaction, HB = helping behavior, PER = performance). For example, MCHS = manager's charismatic leadership rated by staff; SPIMS = Staff's personal identification with manager rated by staff; SVIDS = Staff's value internalization with department head rated by staff; SHBM = Staff's helping behavior rated by manager.
$n = 218$. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table 3
Means, standard deviations, and correlations for cascading leadership.[a]

Variables [b]	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. DCHM	2.86	.55						
2. DCRM	2.63	.64	.71					
3. MPIDD	2.74	.56	.34	.37				
4. MVIDD	2.96	.53	.36	.37	.73			
5. MICDD	2.70	.56	.23	.30	.57	.54		
6. MCHM	2.81	.58	.62	.51	.37	.43	.22	
7. MCRM	2.64	.56	.48	.50	.23	.27	.14	.73

$n = 77$. All correlations ≥ .23 are significant, $p < .05$ and those ≥ .34 are significant, $p < .01$.
[a] Leader–follower relationship between department head and manager.
[b] DCHM, DCRM = department head's charismatic and contingent reward leadership rated by manager; MPIDD, MVIDD, MICDD = manager's personal identification, value internalization, and instrumental compliance with department head rated by department head; MCHM, MCRM = Aggregated manager's self-ratings of charismatic and contingent reward leadership toward each staff member.

relationship between department head's contingent reward leadership toward them and their contingent reward leadership toward staff members. Thus, Hypothesis 2b was not supported.

Combining the cascading leadership (department head-manager) results with those of the close leadership (manager-staff member) produces a mediated leadership framework where a distant leader indirectly influences distant followers through intermediate leaders. To further validate this finding, we tested interaction effects of charismatic and contingent reward leadership of department heads and managers (2 × 2 combinations) on staff members' outcomes. There was no empirical support for the interaction effects, confirming the mediated framework. The supporting results for cascading leadership in conjunction with close leadership at the lower level of management may provide a plausible explanation of why there were significant relationships between department head's leadership and staff member's outcomes even though staff member's commitment to department head failed to mediate the significant relationships.

3.3. Multivariate WABA results

3.3.1. Close leadership

Hypothesis 3 proposed that close charismatic leadership phenomenon is based on a within-group level of analysis; however, it was neither fully supported at the upper-level (department head-manager) nor the lower-level (manager-staff member). As shown in Tables 6 and 8 for upper- and lower-levels, respectively, the lack of significant differences between the magnitude of the between and within indicators for WABA I and WABA II yielded many non-group effects. Instead, the results from the dyad level of analysis shown in Tables 5 and 7 for upper- and lower-levels, respectively, in conjunction with the non-group effects, revealed that close charismatic leadership appears to be a leadership phenomenon based on the between-dyads level of analysis, where a charismatic leader forms a unique one-to-one relationship with an immediate follower regardless of group membership.

Table 4
Regression results for mediation in cascading leadership.[a]

	Dependent variables [c]				
Independent variables [b]	MPIDD	MVIDD	MICDD	MCHM	MCRM
Charismatic					
Step 1: DCHM	.35**	.35**			
Step 2: DCHM				.65**	
Step 3a: DCHM				.59**	
MPIDD				.20*	
3b: DCHM				.56**	
MVIDD				.26*	
Contingent reward					
Step 1: DCRM			.26*		
Step 2: DCRM					.44**
Step 3: DCRM					.44**
MICDD					−.01

$n = 77$. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.
[a] leader–follower relationship between department head and manager.
[b] DCHM, DCRM = department head's charismatic and contingent reward leadership rated by manager; MPIDD, MVIDD, MICDD = manager's personal identification, value internalization, and instrumental compliance with department head rated by department head.
[c] MCHM, MCRM = Aggregated manager's self-ratings of charismatic and contingent reward leadership toward each staff member.

Table 5
Multivariate WABA Results for department head-manager close leadership: Dyad level of analysis.[a]

Variables and relationships[b]	Etas[c]		Correlations[d]		Differences[e]		Components[f]		Inference
	Between	Within	Between	Within	*A*	*Z*	Between	Within	
Charismatic									
PI and	.82†*	.58							
CH	.79*	.61	.64†*	.46†*	.22	1.59	.41	.16	Non-dyad
SAT and	.85†*	.53							
CH	.79*	.61	.52†*	.27†*	.28†	1.88*	.35†	.09	Between-dyad
CH + PI	.82†*	.57	.63†*	.39†*	.27†	1.95*	.44†	.12	Between-dyad
HB and	.85†*	.52							
CH	.79*	.61	.63†*	.37†*	.30†	2.13*	.42†	.12	Between-dyad
CH + PI	.82†*	.57	.82†*	.56†*	.38†	3.30*	.58†	.17	Non-dyad
PER and	.80†*	.60							
CH	.79*	.61	.49†*	.21	.31†	2.03*	.31	.08	Between-dyad
CH + PI	.82†*	.57	.70†*	.44†*	.33†	2.45*	.46†	.15	Non-dyad
VI and	.84†*	.54							
CH	.79*	.61	.63†*	.44†*	.23	1.69*	.42†	.14	Non-dyad
SAT and	.85†*	.53							
CH + VI	.84†*	.54	.68†*	.36†*	.38†	2.75*	.49†	.10	Between-dyad
HB and	.85†*	.52							
CH + VI	.85†*	.53	.85†*	.53†*	.46†	4.07*	.61†	.15	Non-dyad
PER and	.80†*	.60							
CH + VI	.85†*	.53	.74†*	.33†*	.49†	3.66*	.50†	.11	Between-dyad
Contingent reward									
IC and	.81†*	.58							
CR	.78*	.62	.80†*	.64†*	.22	2.01*	.51†	.23	Non-dyad
SAT and	.85†*	.53							
CR	.78*	.62	.41†*	.26*	.16	1.02	.27	.08	Non-dyad
CR + IC	.82†*	.58	.43†*	.36†*	.07	.46	.30	.11	Non-dyad
HB and	.85†*	.52							
CR	.78*	.62	.64†*	.20	.49†	3.40*	.43†	.06	Between-dyad
CR + IC	.81†*	.58	.66†*	.28†*	.44†	3.07*	.46†	.09	Between-dyad
PER and	.80†*	.60							
CR	.78*	.62	.58†*	.17	.45†	3.01*	.36†	.06	Between-dyad
CR + IC	.81†*	.58	.59†*	.22	.41†	2.79*	.39†	.08	Between-dyad

The variables involving two terms (e.g., CH + PI) are linear composites developed using multivariate WABA procedures.
[a] Analyses are based on $N = 154$ and $J = 77$. All relationships are based on department head–manager matched reports.
[b] CH = charismatic leadership; CR = contingent reward leadership; PI = personal identification; VI = value internalization; IC = instrumental compliance; SAT = job satisfaction; HB = helping behavior; PER = performance.
[c] Significant *E*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*$p < .05$) values are indicated.
[d] Significant *R*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*$p < .05$) values are indicated.
[e] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) and Z-test (*$p < .05$) values are indicated for differences between- and within-dyad correlation.
[f] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) of between- and within-dyad component differences are indicated.

Interestingly, the leadership phenomenon in the relationships between a department head's charismatic leadership and the manager's performance was found at both dyad and group levels of analysis (see Tables 5 and 6), indicating that the leadership phenomenon at the dyad level was replicated at the group level as well. Specifically, department head's charismatic one-to-one relationships with a manager regardless of group membership developed into charismatic one-to-one dyadic relationships within the group.

For close contingent reward leadership, Hypothesis 4 proposed that contingent reward leadership at upper- and lower-levels would be based on between-dyads level of analysis. The hypothesized level-effect was supported, with an exception that the relationship between department head's contingent reward leadership and manager's job satisfaction was based on individual differences (see Tables 5–8).

3.3.2. Distant leadership

Hypotheses 5 and 6 suggested that the distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership phenomena would be viewed as a collective level of analysis (i.e., department level of analysis) effect, assuming that the level effects would be tested only at collective levels, because distant leaders (department heads) and followers (staff members) would not have frequent enough interaction to form one-to-one dyadic relationships.

Contrary to expectations, the results for department level of analysis with multiple-rating sources indicated that distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership held at the individual level of analysis, and this was the case for all variables and substantive relationships among the variables. However, we found that the within-eta correlations for contingent reward leadership and three bases of commitment assessed by staff members were significantly greater in a practical sense than the between-eta correlations for the variables, implying that staff members' leadership perceptions and corresponding attitudes might

Table 6
Multivariate WABA results for department head–manager close leadership: group level of analysis.[a]

Variables and relationships [b]	Etas [c]		Correlations [d]		Differences [e]		Components [f]		Inference
	Between	Within	Between	Within	*A*	*Z*	Between	Within	
Charismatic									
MPIDM and	.66	.75							
DCHM	.62	.79	.73†*	.69†*	.06	.36	.30	.40	Non-group
MSATD and	.73*	.69							
DCHM	.62	.79	.24	.43†*	−.20	−.85	.11	.23	Non-group
DCHM + MPIDM	.65	.76	.25	.49†*	−.26†	1.12	.12	.26	Non-group
MHBD and	.70	.72							
DCHM	.62	.79	.27†	.56†*	−.32†	1.43	.12	.32	Non-group
DCHM + MPIDM	.65	.76	.30†	.64†*	−.38†	−1.74*	.14	.35	Non-group
MPERD and	.63	.77							
DCHM	.62	.79	.02	.59†*	−.61†	−2.60*	.01	.36†	Within-group
DCHM + MPIDM	.65	.76	.07	.68†*	−.69†	−3.02*	.03	.40†	Within-group
MVIDM and	.54	.84†							
DCHM	.62	.79	.68†*	.75†*	−.10	−.57	.23	.49†	Non-group
MSATD and	.73*	.69							
DCHM + MVIDM	.54	.84†	.39†	.54†*	−.17	−.77	.15	.31	Non-group
MHBD and	.70	.72							
DCHM + MVIDM	.57	.82†	.32†	.61†*	−.32†	−1.44	.13	.36	Non-group
MPERD and	.63	.77							
DCHM + MVIDM	.54	.84†	.29†*	.66†*	−.42†	−1.92*	.10	.43†	Within-group
Contingent reward									
MICDM and	.63	.78							
DCRM	.71*	.71	.75†*	.72†*	.05	.30	.33	.39	Non-group
MSATD and	.73*	.69							
DCRM	.71*	.71	.41†*	.44†*	−.03	−.14	.21	.21	Non-group
DCRM + MICDM	.68	.73	.42†	.47†*	−.05	−.23	.21	.24	Non-group
MHBD and	.70	.72							
DCRM	.71*	.71	.55†*	.51†*	.04	.17	.27	.26	Non-group
DCRM + MICDM	.68	.73	.55†*	.56†*	−.01	−.05	.26	.29	Non-group
MPERD and	.63	.77							
DCRM	.71*	.71	.33†	.51†*	−.21	−.91	.15	.28	Non-group
DCRM + MICDM	.68	.73	.35†	.52†*	−.18	−.80	.15	.29	Non-group

The variables involving two terms (e.g., DCHM + MPIDM) are linear composites developed using multivariate WABA.
[a] Analyses are based on $N = 77$ and $J = 27$. All relationships are based on cross-ratings (department head and manager).
[b] DCHM, DCRM = department head's charismatic and contingent reward leadership rated by manager; MPIDM, MVIDM, MICDM = manager's personal identification, value internalization, and instrumental compliance with department head rated by manager; MSATD, MHBD, MPERD = manager's job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance rated by department head.
[c] Significant *E*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*$p < .05$) values are indicated.
[d] Significant *R*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*$p < .05$) values are indicated.
[e] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) and *Z*-test (*$p < .05$) values are indicated for differences between- and within-group correlation.
[f] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) of between- and within-group component differences are indicated.

be the within-department-level phenomenon, as proposed in this study. (To conserve space, these tabular results for department level of analysis are not presented here but are available upon request from the first author.)

4. Discussion

This study examined various differences between close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership. Those differences were defined and investigated in terms of distinctive leader-influencing mechanisms and followers' leadership perceptions and multiple levels-of-analysis effects for close and distant leader–follower relationships. Hence, the primary purposes of study were two-fold, focusing on differences in substantive relationships among variables of interest and levels of analysis between close and distant leadership situations.

4.1. Levels of management issues

By integrating the literature on dual-mode information processing of persuasion and attitude change with the literature on charismatic and contingent reward leadership, a conceptual model of close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership was developed. Two key points of that conceptualization are that: (a) two different attitude consequences in terms of strength emerge (strong attitude toward close leader and weak attitude toward distant leader); and (b) attitude strength moderates the attitude-mediating relationship between leadership and follower outcomes. Therefore, we proposed that a strong attitude toward the leader in close leadership situations would fully, or at least partially, mediate the relationship between leadership and follower outcomes; and a weak attitude toward the leader in distant leadership contexts would not mediate the

Table 7
Multivariate WABA results for manager-staff member close leadership: dyad level of analysis.[a]

Variables and relationships[b]	Etas[c]		Correlations[d]		Differences[e]		Components[f]		Inference
	Between	Within	Between	Within	*A*	*Z*	Between	Within	
Charismatic									
PI and	.81†*	.59							
CH	.82†*	.57	.60†*	.38†*	.26	3.11*	.40†	.13	Non-dyad
SAT and	.80†*	.59							
CH	.82†*	.57	.45†*	.33†*	.14	1.53	.30	.11	Non-dyad
CH + PI	.83†*	.56	.54†*	.40†*	.15	1.79*	.36	.13	Non-dyad
HB and	.78*	.63							
CH	.82†*	.57	.47†*	.13*	.36†	3.91*	.30	.05	Between-dyad
CH + PI	.82†*	.57	.61†*	.33†*	.32†	3.85*	.39†	.12	Between-dyad
PER and	.73	.68							
CH	.82†*	.57	.42†*	.26†*	.17	1.90*	.25	.10	Non-dyad
CH + PI	.83†*	.55	.51†*	.31†*	.22	2.53*	.31	.12	Non-dyad
VI and	.81†*	.58							
CH	.82†*	.57	.68†*	.41†*	.32†	4.08*	.46†	.14	Non-dyad
SAT and	.80†*	.59							
CH + VI	.84†*	.54	.54†*	.35†*	.21	2.49*	.36	.11	Non-dyad
HB and	.78*	.63							
CH + VI	.84†*	.54	.58†*	.33†*	.29†	3.39*	.37	.12	Between-dyad
PER and	.73	.68							
CH + VI	.84†*	.54	.47†*	.35†*	.13	1.49	.29	.13	Non-dyad
Contingent reward									
IC and	.72	.69							
CR	.78*	.63	.53†*	.22*	.34†	3.82*	.30	.09	Between-dyad
SAT and	.80†*	.59							
CR	.78*	.63	.49†*	.28†*	.23	2.62*	.31	.10	Non-dyad
CR + IC	.79*	.61	.54†*	.23*	.33†	3.74*	.34†	.08	Between-dyad
HB and	.78*	.63							
CR	.78*	.63	.53†*	.16*	.40†	4.45*	.32†	.06	Between-dyad
CR + IC	.79*	.61	.55†*	.21*	.37†	4.21*	.34†	.08	Between-dyad
PER and	.73	.68							
CR	.78*	.63	.44†*	.19*	.26†	2.88*	.25	.08	Between-dyad
CR + IC	.79*	.61	.46†*	.19*	.29†	3.18*	.26	.08	Between-dyad

The variables involving two terms (e.g., CH + PI) are linear composites developed using multivariate WABA.
[a] Analyses are based on $N = 436$ and $J = 218$. All relationships are based on manager–staff member matched reports.
[b] CH = charismatic leadership; CR = contingent reward leadership; PI = personal identification; VI = value internalization; IC = instrumental compliance; SAT = job satisfaction; HB = helping behavior; PER = performance.
[c] Significant *E*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*$p < .05$) values are indicated.
[d] Significant *R*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*$p < .05$) values are indicated.
[e] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) and Z-test (*$p < .05$) values are indicated for differences between- and within-dyad correlation.
[f] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) of between- and within-dyad component differences are indicated.

leadership-outcome relationships. To complement the non-mediating distant leadership model, a cascading model of charismatic and contingent reward leadership also was proposed and tested. Finally, interaction effects of distant and close leadership on distant follower's outcomes were tested as an alternative to the cascading leadership model.

Results support most of our hypotheses and the theoretical rationale of this study. However, further elaborated discussion is necessary to address several unexpected, yet important findings which may be Korean culture-specific or generalizable to the individualistic societies of the West. Many studies examining transformational-charismatic and transactional-contingent reward paradigms have been conducted in Western societies, especially in the U.S., yet the universality of the models has been assumed (Bass, 1997) even without sufficient empirical evidence in Eastern cultures. Few studies examining the leadership approach have been conducted in Korea (e.g., Shin & Zhou, 2003; Shin & Zhou, 2007) or with Asian-American residents in the U.S. (e.g., Jung & Avolio, 1999). Thus, it was necessary to test the U.S.-developed models in an Asian context, especially given the pressures of globalization and westernization of management practices in Korea (Bae & Lawler, 2000; Rowley & Bae, 2003).

First, as hypothesized, personal identification and value internalization with the leader fully mediated the relationships between close charismatic leadership and follower outcomes. However, the mediating role of instrumental compliance was not fully demonstrated through single and multiple ratings. It is possible that instrumental compliance might not be developed sufficiently by followers in Korea where employees at the same hierarchical levels and with identical organizational tenures are often given the same amount of monetary rewards, regardless of their individual performance. This possibility seems even more likely considering that only followers, who had been involved in leader–follower relationships for more than 3 months to allow sufficient acquaintanceship, were included in the current study.

Another plausible explanation for this result is related to a cultural orientation, power distance. Power distance refers to the extent to which a society and individuals accept inequality in power distribution among members of that society (Hofstede, 1980;

Table 8
Multivariate WABA results for manager-staff member close leadership: group level of analysis. [a]

Variables and relationships [b]	Etas [c]		Correlations [d]		Differences [e]		Components [f]		Inference
	Between	Within	Between	Within	*A*	*Z*	Between	Within	
Charismatic									
SPIMS and	.73*	.69							
MCHS	.72*	.69	.63†*	.45†*	.22	1.82*	.33	.21	Non-group
SSATM and	.83†*	.56							
MCHS	.72*	.69	.30†*	−.01	.30†	2.09*	.18	.00	Non-group
MCHS + SPIMS	.74*	.67	.29†*	.13	.16	1.15	.18	.05	Non-group
SHBM and	.72*	.69							
MCHS	.72*	.69	.36†*	.06	.31†	2.24*	.19	.03	Non-group
MCHS + SPIMS	.74*	.68	.47†*	.17	.32†	2.34*	.25	.08	Non-group
SPERM and	.82†*	.57							
MCHS	.72*	.69	.34†*	.06	.29†	2.05*	.20	.02	Non-group
MCHS + SPIMS	.74	.67	.40†*	.09	.32†	2.28*	.24	.03	Non-group
SVIMS and	.70	.72							
MCHS	.72*	.69	.67†*	.47†*	.25	2.11*	.34	.23	Non-group
SSATM and	.83†*	.56							
MCHS + SVIMS	.72*	.69	.32†*	.11	.21	1.46	.19	.04	Non-group
SHBM and	.72*	.69							
MCHS + SVIMS	.71*	.70	.41†*	.20	.22	1.61	.21	.09	Non-group
SPERM and	.82†**	.57							
MCHS + SVIMS	.73*	.68	.37†*	.11	.26†	1.86*	.22	.04	Non-group
Contingent reward									
SICMS and	.63	.78							
MCRS	.70	.71	.44†*	.35†*	.10	.77	.20	.19	Non-group
SSATM and	.83†*	.56							
MCRS	.70	.71	.25*	.05	.21	1.48	.15	.02	Non-group
MCRS + SICMS	.66	.75	.29†*	.18	.11	.76	.16	.08	Non-group
SHBM and	.72*	.69							
MCRS	.70	.71	.50†*	.08	.45†	3.27*	.25	.04	Non-group
MCRS + SICMS	.70	.71	.50†*	.08	.44†	3.21*	.25	.04	Non-group
SPERM and	.82†*	.57							
MCRS	.70	.71	.39†*	.05	.35†	2.48*	.22	.02	Non-group
MCRS + SICMS	.70	.71	.39†*	.05	.35†	2.46*	.22	.02	Non-group

The variables involving two terms (e.g., MCHS + SPIMS) are linear composites developed using multivariate WABA.
[a] Analyses are based on $N = 218$ and $J = 77$. All relationships are based on cross-ratings (manager and staff member).
[b] MCHS, MCRS = manager's charismatic and contingent reward leadership rated by staff member; SPIMS, SVIMS, SICMS = staff member's personal identification, value internalization, and instrumental compliance with manager rated by staff member; SSATM, SHBM, SPERM = staff member's job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance rated by manager.
[c] Significant *E*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*$p < .05$) values are indicated.
[d] Significant *R*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*$p < .05$) values are indicated.
[e] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) and *Z*-test (*$p < .05$) values are indicated for differences between- and within-group correlation.
[f] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) of between- and within-group component differences are indicated.

Triandis, 1994). From this definition, people in a cultural domain characterized by high power distance are likely to accept power and status differences among people. Korean followers in this study might not have strong instrumental compliance with their contingent reward leaders; rather they might normatively comply with the leadership. Related to the cultural issue, social desirability bias might operate especially when instrumental compliance was reported from self-ratings, in that the Korean culture is oriented from a deep root of Confucianism which values saving one's face and socially accepted norms and behavior.

There was another interesting finding regarding close contingent reward leadership. Staff members' instrumental compliance with their managers fully mediated the relationship between managers' contingent reward leadership and their job satisfaction. Kovach (1995) found that individuals' need structures differ across organizational levels: lower non-supervisory employees emphasize "good wage and job security" first, whereas middle and higher level employees prioritize "interesting work and full appreciation of work done." This study implies that contingent reward leadership effectively dealing with extrinsic rewards and thereby lower-order needs would be more appropriate at lower levels of management, as our findings demonstrated. This result appears more generalizable in Western cultures, in that instrumental compliance still operates as a mediator even in a high power distance society.

4.2. Levels of analysis issues

The second purpose of this study was to examine various levels-of-analysis effects between close and distant leadership. The dynamics in the substantive relationships among variables for close and distant leadership were rigorously tested at individual, dyad, group, and collective levels of analysis using single- and multi-source data via Multivariate WABA. Various multiple-level effects were found, differing by leader–follower distance and for different variables involved in the leadership process.

Regarding close charismatic leadership, between-dyads and within-group effects were found for the relationships between leadership and follower outcomes. Specifically, the relationships between the department head's charismatic leadership and managers' job satisfaction and helping behavior held only at the between-dyads level of analysis and were not replicated at the group level of analysis. In contrast, the relationship of the department head's charismatic leadership with managers' performance was found at both between-dyads level of analysis and within-groups level of analysis. For example, while the relationships of charismatic leadership with job satisfaction and helping behavior were solely based on one-to-one leader–follower relationships independent of group membership, the one-to-one dyadic relationship of charismatic leadership with performance developed into charismatic dyadic relationships within the groups. This finding suggests that managers' job satisfaction and helping behavior depend on only the department head's charismatic leadership, but their performance co-varies with the department head's charismatic leadership and other group members as well.

This is an important finding for at least three reasons. First, dyadic view of leadership, which is more conceivable in individualistic societies (Yammarino & Jung, 1998), also was found in a collectivistic society, Korea. This indicates that dyadic leadership approach, such as individualized leadership (Dansereau et al., 1995), may be generalized to Eastern cultures as well. Second, a continuing criticism of the dyadic leadership approach is the issue of how differentiated dyadic relationships affect overall performance by the leader's work unit (Schriesheim, Castro, & Cogliser, 1999; Yukl, 2001). However, the current finding implies that the dyadic relationship under charismatic leaders emphasizing collective orientation can develop into a group-level phenomenon over time where the unit members are motivated to collaborate and produce higher overall performance within the work units. Third, building on this finding, we may be able to reconcile or integrate the individualized leadership approach based on a dyadic view of leadership (Dansereau et al., 1995) with charismatic leadership theories valuing a collective orientation (Shamir et al, 1993). Therefore, leading a team as a whole and establishing personal relationships by focusing on individual differences within the team at the same time appear a critical essence of transformational-charismatic leadership within the team context. In fact, Kark and Shamir (2002) proposed dual effects of transformational leadership not only utilizing idealized influence and inspirational motivation for collective purpose but also demonstrating intellectual stimulation and individually considerate behaviors for individual team members.

Contrary to the findings in close charismatic leadership at upper levels of management between department heads and managers, staff members' performance at lower levels of management neither co-varied with manager's charismatic leadership at the dyad level of analysis nor with other staff members' performance and manger's charismatic leadership at the group level of analysis. The relationship between manager's charismatic leadership and staff members' performance was solely based on individual differences (To conserve space, these tabular results are not presented here but are available upon request from the first author.). It seems possible that since staff members might be naïve entry-level employees with short tenure in organizations and their work, they could not form established relationships with their leader and coworkers and thus their performance did not co-vary with leadership and other staff members' performance.

The close leader–follower context is conducive for a contingent reward leader to identify each immediate follower's unique needs and provide each follower with extrinsic rewards correspondent to his/her needs, contingent on each follower's performance. The leader controls rewards to a specific follower, whereas the follower also controls his/her performance to the focal leader. The two parties may form a unique independent dyadic relationship by exerting mutual control (Yammarino et al., 1998). This theoretical proposition was supported in the relationships between contingent reward leadership and helping behavior and performance at both upper and lower levels.

For the distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership approach, we expected that distant leadership would be an attributional phenomenon where peripheral/heuristic information processing may be a primary route for distant followers to evaluate leadership. A limited number of leader-related peripheral cues are passed and shared among the distant followers through social information processing in follower–follower relationships. Thus, we hypothesized that the attributional phenomenon in distant situations would be a department-level property. Contrary to this expectation, the results for the department level of analysis indicated that the leadership phenomena involving all variables of interest were based on individual differences.

What might explain these unexpected results? When followers work closely together, they are more likely to engage in social information processing (Meindl, 1990; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Frequent interaction appears a prerequisite for the social influence and the contagion process by which certain collective-level properties may be created. Unlike managers, entry-level staff members might not have enough opportunities to interact with other members outside their work units but within their department. Hence, the social information processing might mainly operate only inside their units within the department. In fact, the within-eta correlations for contingent reward leadership and three bases of commitment assessed by staff members were significantly greater in a practical sense than the between-eta correlations for the variables. Thus, it seems necessary to speculate why the within-department level views of contingent reward leadership and corresponding attitudes did not co-vary with staff members' outcomes, yielding these individual-level effects. Recall that the staff members' attitudes toward the department head were weak and the relationships between distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership and staff members' outcomes were weaker than those in close leadership situations. These results imply that follower outcomes might not co-vary with the department-level leadership perceptions and attitudes.

4.3. Implications for practice

The theoretical model and empirical findings of the current study provide several practical implications. It is critical to recognize the importance of building positive leader images in upper echelons. Because the information processing of distant

organizational members is based on a peripheral route, and hence followers' attitudes toward the distant leader may be temporary and susceptible to change, distant followers are likely to be vulnerable to symbolic impression management (Gardner & Avolio, 1998; Sosik, Avolio, & Jung, 2002). Salancik and Meindl (1984) also demonstrated how CEO's symbolic actions as a part of impression management can have a positive impact on organizational performance. Through pep talks, campaign-like political speeches, sagas, storytelling, and symbolic slogans, distant charismatic leaders can provide an ideological vision and value that can serve as a shared organizational value and develop inter-group cohesion manifested as group-wide and organization-wide phenomena (Waldman & Yammarino, 1999). This represents the role of a charismatic leader in upper echelons not only as the definer of organizational culture (Schein, 1990) but also as the communicator of the shared values for followers at a distance in organizations. Social identification as a basis of organizational commitment is the influence process that distant charismatic leaders need to arouse by engaging in various forms of symbolic actions toward distant followers who tend to be receptive to those behaviors.

Additionally, our study suggests the important role of intermediate leaders as "linking pins" (Likert, 1961), who can demonstrate similar leadership behaviors which distant leaders also display. Another essence of leadership for distant leaders to keep in mind is to understand the influence processes of cascading leadership and develop close followers' full potential to serve as their surrogates (Waldman & Yammarino, 1999). Close followers' attitudes toward their immediate leaders tend to be persistent over time and resistant to counterargument. Developing close followers who are dependable and loyal is an area a leader at upper echelons has to focus on to indirectly lead from a distance. Two areas a distant charismatic leader needs to manage simultaneously are personalized relationships with intermediate leaders, who are also immediate followers, based on their personal identification and value internalization, and socialized relationships with distant followers building on their social identification.

4.4. Limitations and future research paths

Several limitations of this study provide suggestions for future research. First, as several results may be attributable to culture-specific characteristics, those findings can be an inherent limitation as well as a unique contribution. Generalizability of the empirical evidence from the current study's Korean sample should be validated across various work-settings in different national cultures. For example, perceived social distance may be higher in a high-power distance society, and thus the hypothesized relationship could be better evidenced, given the hierarchical rank-based partition of close and distant situations in our study. However, it is unlikely to expect frequent interaction in the distant relationship between department heads and staff members, as demonstrated in our study, even in low-power distance societies. Nonetheless, systematic comparison in a cross-cultural study including multiple cultures with common research questions is warranted. The effectiveness of charismatic and contingent reward leadership may vary depending on the cultural orientation of leader and followers (Jung & Avolio, 1999). Conceptualization and empirical testing for multiple levels of analysis also may be different from culture to culture (Yammarino & Jung, 1998).

Second, subjective measures using paper-and-pencil instruments may raise concerns for whether the obtained findings may be methodological artifacts. Although such possibilities cannot be ruled out fully, they can be minimized. In this study, we followed the principle that leadership is assessed by followers and followers' outcomes are measured by corresponding leaders. However, followers' bases of commitment, as mediators, were measured by self-report, and thus the obtained results of relationships between leadership and bases of commitment may be subject to common-source bias. It was necessary to measure the bases of commitment through self-report because self-evaluation regarding those attitudes were the focus of theoretical interest. When the theoretical constructs deal with self-evaluation (i.e., evaluation of personal identification with leader), self-report measures are useful and essential (Howard, 1994; Maurer & Tarulli, 1994). Furthermore, the focal issue in the mediating relationships is the linkage between bases of commitment rated by followers and outcomes rated by leaders, *not* the relations between leadership rated by followers and bases of commitment rated by follower.

Empirically, the results of CFAs confirmed a five-factor model of the independent and mediating variables (charisma, contingent reward, personal identification, value internalization, and instrumental compliance), both of which were rated by followers (RMSEA = .05, TLI = .95, CFI = .96). Moreover, this five-factor model was superior to two-factor model where charisma, personal identification, and value internalization represent a factor and the other factor includes contingent reward and instrumental compliance (RMSEA = .10, TLI = .82, CFI = .84; $\Delta\ \chi^2\ (df) = 731.4\ (9)$, $p < .01$). Finally, the relationships observed in the current study were generally consistent with previous research and theories. Although a serious common-method variance problem, due to paper-and-pencil subjective measures, appears unlikely, the necessity of using different methods and measures for further study is apparent.

Third, three hierarchical levels were involved in testing the hypotheses of interest, where staff member's outcomes might be influenced by the manager's close leadership as well as the leadership of a department head. Due to the matched-report procedure for multiple levels of analysis across three hierarchical levels of management, an unequal number of individual-level raw scores for each level of management occurred. To fully incorporate the control issue into hypothesis testing, the raw scores had to be transformed, but these transformations make multiple levels of analysis issues not testable. Nonetheless, the lack of controlling potential exogenous effects is an inherent limitation of this study and future research involving multiple hierarchical levels should address this issue.

Fourth, leadership processes develop over time, and as such this notion suggests another implication for multiple levels of analysis (Dansereau, Yammarino, & Kohles, 1999). For example, individual-level phenomenon can become dyadic agreements, and between-dyads effects may become within-group level effects over time. A cross-sectional study like the current research cannot capture those longitudinal transformations in levels of analysis effects.

Finally, to obtain matched-reports from a leader and immediate followers and to simultaneously ensure anonymity, the department heads and managers in the present study were asked to randomly select three followers for participation. Although they were instructed to randomly select their followers, department heads and managers may have selected only their better performers who might share many personal characteristics with the leaders, resulting in potential artifacts for the findings regarding cascading leadership and levels of analysis. The empirical evidence in our study nevertheless showed many individual-difference effects across dyad and group-level analyses from single- and multiple-source ratings, implying that these potential artifacts might not be an issue. Nonetheless, future research adopting the matched-report procedure should consider this issue and potentially address it by including all followers of a leader (not just a subset of followers). Regardless of these limitations, we hope that this study and its results demonstrate the value of considering multiple levels of management and multiple levels of analysis simultaneously in leadership theory and research in organizations.

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