Transformational Leadership, Subordinate Experience, and Subordinate Organizational Commitment: Different Leadership Strokes for Different Folks

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Abstract

We developed a nonlinear model of transformational leadership on organizational commitment and tested it in two field studies. Study 1, which consisted of 207 CEO direct reports, revealed that lower experienced executives expressed more organizational commitment when their CEOs exhibited high levels of leadership while more experienced executives appeared most committed at moderate levels. In Study 2, using a broader sample of 178 leader–subordinate dyads, we replicated the findings from Study 1 but further found evidence that role clarity fully mediated transformational leadership effects on organizational commitment. A supplemental analysis revealed that while elaboration of task relevant information was not a mediator for commitment, it was for supervisor-rated employee performance. Our findings highlight the need to consider the different leadership demands of employees and the varying ways in which subordinates respond to transformational leadership.

Keywords: transformational leadership, work experience, organizational commitment, nonlinear models.

Transformasyonel Liderlik, Çalışanların Tecrübesi ve Çalışanların Örgütsel Bağlılığı: Farklı Çalışanlar İçin Farklı Liderlik Beklentileri

Özet

Örgütsel bağlılık üzerinde transformasyonel liderliğin etkisi ile ilgili olarak doğrusal olmayan bir transformasyonel liderlik modeli geliştirdik ve bunu iki alan araştırması ile test ettik. 207 CEO'nun doğrudan raporlarından oluşan birinci çalışma; daha az tecrübeli yöneticilerin, CEO'ları liderlik yeteneklerini daha yüksek düzeyde sergilediklerinde, daha fazla örgütsel bağlılık hissettiklerini diğer taraftan daha tecrübeli yöneticilerin ise, CEO'ları liderlik yeteneklerini ılımlı seviyelerde sergilediklerinde, en yüksek düzeyde örgütsel bağlılık gösterdiklerini ortaya koymuştur. 178 lider-çalışan eşleşmesini kapsayan daha geniş bir örneklemden oluşan ikinci çalışmada, birinci çalışmadan elde ettiğimiz bulguları çoğalttık fakat ilave olarak rol belirginliğinin transformasyonel liderliğin örgütsel bağlılık üzerindeki etkisine tam manasıyla aracılık (mediator) ettiğini gösteren kanıtlar bulduk. Yapılan ilave analiz, görevle ilgili bilgi detayının bağlılık için bir aracı olmadığını ancak yönetici tarafından değerlendirilen çalışan performansı için bir aracı olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Bulgularımız çalışanların farklı liderlik taleplerinin olabileceğinin ve onların transformasyonel liderliğe farklı tepkiler verebileceklerinin düşünülmesi gerektiğini vurgulamaktadır.

Anahtar kelimeler: transformasyonel liderlik, iş tecrübesi, örgütsel bağlılık, doğrusal olmayan modeler.

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Do transformational leaders -- those who possess the leadership attributes of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation (Bass and Avolio, 1990) -- influence their less experienced followers' commitment the same way they influence their more experienced followers? Previous literature assumes that transformational leadership appears personally advantageous to all those exposed (Rubin, Munz, and Boomer, 2005; Lo et al., 2010). However, we emphasize that leadership effectiveness depends on the contextual situation (Osborn and Marion, 2009; Thompson and Vecchio, 2009; Fu, et al., 2010). We employ social exchange theory logic to explain how employee development level (i.e., work experience) partly determines the intensity in which transformational leadership will impact organizational commitment.

We conducted two field studies with the aim of extending leadership research in several ways. First, we use social exchange theory as a theoretical foundation to test whether follower work experience moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. We argue that leadership needs vary across subordinate levels of work experience and that incompatible leadership impedes the quality of the social exchange relationship between the subordinate and the organization. In concordance with previous research that offers some insight into potential nonlinear relationships between leadership type and performance depending on the situation (Fiedler, 1964; Schriesheim, Tepper, and Tetrault, 1994), we empirically investigate the more complex nonlinear relationships that might exist between leadership styles and follower outcomes. Thus, by considering both the situational context in which transformational leadership takes place and the potential nonlinear effects of leadership on commitment, we contribute to current leadership theory.

Second, in our Study 1, we add to the CEO leadership style literature by testing our nonlinear assertions with a sample of 207 top executives from the Istanbul Chamber of Industry 500 Companies. We believe it is a timely endeavor to explore what CEO behaviors influence top executives' organizational commitment particularly in a non-Western context in which we know little about.

Third, in Study 2, we test the generalizability of our Study 1 findings by employing a broad U.S. sample of 178 employees (and their supervising leader). More importantly, distinct from Study 1, we test whether or not both role clarity and elaboration of task-related information in the dyad act as the theorized mediating mechanisms between transformational leadership and organizational commitment relationship.

Theory and Hypotheses

Since Burns' (1978) seminal work introducing the concept of transformational leadership, research on transformational leadership has become one of the primary leadership theories in organizational sciences (Judge and Bono, 2000; Bass and Riggio, 2006). According to Burns (1978: 4), "a transforming leader looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower." Transformational leadership has been defined as a set of behaviors that motivate followers to achieve performance beyond expectations by changing followers' attitudes, beliefs, and values as opposed to simply gaining compliance (Bass, 1985; Yukl, 1999). Transformational leaders produce a strategic vision, communicate that vision and develop commitment towards that vision (Avolio, 1999; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000). Transformational leaders stimulate followers to achieve extraordinary results by providing both meaning and understanding. They align the goals of individual followers with the larger organization (Bass and Riggio, 2006) and provide the followers with support and coaching.

According to Bass (1985) there are four key components of transformational leadership (charisma, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation). *Charisma* is essential to the transformational leadership process and is considered a core component of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; Yukl, 1989). It involves gaining trust, respect, and confidence of others by focusing on difficult issues, showing conviction, emphasizing the importance of purpose, commitment, values, and representing the ethical consequences of decisions. *Inspirational motivation* is related to leader behaviors that motivate and inspire followers by adding meaning to their work, energizing others, and increasing their optimism and enthusiasm for the tasks ahead. *Individual consideration* involves showing concern for each subordinate as an individual and supporting the individual needs of followers (Bass and Avolio, 1993, 1994; Bass, 1995; Kark and Shamir, 2002; Avolio, et al., 2004). *Intellectual stimulation* describes transformational leaders' creative thinking style which stimulates follower creativity by questioning assumptions and challenging the status quo. Transformational leaders encourage the creation of new ideas from their subordinates (Bass and Avolio, 1994; Dionne, et al., 2003).

According to Yukl (2006), results for the four component behaviors of transformational leadership have been inconsistent from study to study. All of the components are so highly inter-correlated that is not possible to clearly determine their separate effects, even when factor analyses support the distinctiveness of transformational behaviors (Fu et al., 2010). Consequently, many studies on transformational leadership have used only a composite score rather than the four individual component behaviors (Yukl, 2006).

Transformational Leadership and Organizational Commitment

Social exchange theory has been widely applied to explain why individuals maintain relationships with their leaders and organizations, and is based on the norm of reciprocity (Lambert, 2000; Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). Supervising leaders represent important agents in facilitating the exchange relationship between the employee and the organization (Wong et al., 2003; Coyle-Shapiro and Shore, 2007) and subordinates interpret the treatment and benefits acquired from their leader as representative of the organization (Loi, Mao, and Ngo, 2009). Research reveals that high levels of supervisor support lead to favorable subordinate attitudes toward the supervisor and the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Subordinates reciprocate by developing an emotional attachment to their organization (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Settoon, Bennett, and Liden, 1996). Because transformational leaders encourage followers to become more intrinsically motivated to contribute to the organizational goals (Bass, 1985), transformational leadership, in particular, relates to a subordinate's organizational commitment. Within a transformational leadership framework, the ability of leaders to properly implement transformational processes, such as intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, charisma, and inspirational motivation, has been found to impact organizational commitment (Dubinsky, Yammarino, Jolson, and Spangler, 1995). Commitment to the organization is related to very important work-related factors: employee turnover, absenteeism, and performance (Mowday, Steers, and Porter, 1979; Walton, 1985; Romzek, 1990; Ward and Davis, 1995). In fact, within the social exchange theory framework, commitment is often utilized as the key attitudinal variable (Van Dyne and Ang, 1998; Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002).

In sum, leadership is a critical individual and organizational factor that is considered a key determinant of organizational commitment (Mowday, Porter, and Steers, 1982). According to social exchange theory, organizational commitment serves as the link pin of the social exchange relationship between the subordinates and their leader (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

Extensive research is now available suggesting that transformational leadership is positively associated with organizational commitment in a variety of organizational settings and cultures (see Givens' [2008] review), but we ask if transformational leadership is really the preferred type of leadership for all employees. We consider how work experience might interact with transformational behaviors to impact commitment to the organization.

The Contingent Role of Subordinate Work Experience

Work experience represents a key conduit of adult learning and a critical driver of employee development (Davies and Easterby-Smith, 1984; Brutus et al., 2000). The content of work experience can be captured by assessing the types of experiences individuals have acquired in their jobs (Quinones, Ford, and Teachout, 1995). With work experience, one learns how to resolve difficult problems because of associated learning and overall increasing competency levels (Hunter and Thatcher, 2007; Giri and Santra, 2010). With industry experience, particularly critical at the executive level, comes the knowledge and ability to understand environmental patterns and to establish formalization and order (Bantel, 1993; Gunz and Jalland, 1996). For example, top executives with more rather than less industry experience possess knowledge of how the industry and the broader environment operate (Eisenhardt and Schoonhoven, 1990; Hambrick, Geletkanycz, and Fredrickson, 1993; Boeker, 1997; Geletkanycz and Black, 2001). No matter how broadly defined or industry-specific the work experience is, less experienced employees are less capable of directing their limited resources toward work demands and responsibilities while more experienced employees have accumulated the needed skills to perform at higher levels (Hunter and Thatcher, 2007). We believe the intensity of transformational leadership sought will vary according to the developmental needs of the specific follower. In fact, recent scholars emphasize that leadership does not take place in a vacuum but within the situational context (Marion and Uhl-Bien, 2001; Porter and McLaughlin, 2006; Osborn and Marion, 2009; Fu et al., 2010). Based on the norm of reciprocity within social exchange theory, we predict that transformational leadership in combination with subordinate work experience level influence organizational commitment.

We forecast that subordinates with less experience can benefit greatly from leaders who are transformational. Less experienced subordinates are more concerned about relations with their immediate supervisor (Brimeyer, Perrucci, and Wadsworth, 2010). Such subordinates need the teaching, coaching, sense of optimism, collective sense of mission, and individualized consideration from their immediate supervisor (Thompson and Vecchio, 2009). According to leadership research, an inexperienced subordinate may perform at as high a level (Hersey, Blanchard, and Hambleton, 1988) as an experienced subordinate if closely supervised and directed by the leader. For example, charismatic leaders' behavior such as emphasizing task purpose and organizational values is critical for less experienced subordinates. Leaders can offer, through transformational leadership, mechanisms to reduce the uncertainty and ambiguity (Harris and Kacmar, 2006) associated with a lack of experience. Thus, the norm or reciprocity associated with social exchange theory will be met for less experienced subordinates when they receive higher levels of transformational leadership from their supervisor.

Hypothesis 1 (H1): For less experienced subordinates, transformational leadership has a positive linear relationship to subordinate organizational commitment.

In contrast, subordinates with more experience will respond more positively when their leader provides them with more autonomy (Thompson and Vecchio, 2009). In fact, work experience has been found to be associated with core self-evaluation, a personality attribute related to greater

confidence in ability and the need for autonomy (Judge et al., 2003; Şimşek, Heavey, and Veiga, 2010). More experienced subordinates are less concerned about relations with their leader in terms of needing teaching and hands-on coaching and development (Brimeyer et al., 2010). Too much guidance should appear unnecessary for employees with considerable work experience (Wofford and Liska, 1993; Podsakoff et al., 1995; Evans, 1996; Schriesheim and Neider, 1996). Therefore, we predict that experienced subordinates require only moderate levels of transformational leadership because they have high levels of competence obtained through their work experience and only need intermediate levels of support and guidance from their leader. For example, a more experienced subordinate might not react favorably to higher levels of intellectual stimulation from their boss. Specifically, intellectual stimulation involves re-examining critical assumptions and constantly suggesting new ways of how to complete assignments. We surmise that while moderate levels of intellectual stimulation might appear favorable, too much results in an unfavorable effect as a negative strain on the social exchange relationship. Subordinates who have developed specific know-how in completing their work effectively and efficiently are not receptive to external forces such as a boss re-examining critical assumptions about their work tasks. Furthermore, as another example, we argue that higher levels of teaching, coaching, and assistance with development of strengths which are associated with the individualized consideration dimension of transformational leadership would not be perceived favorably by more experienced subordinates. Simply put, more experienced subordinates would be considered self-reliant achievers and need less leadership direction (de Vries, Roe, and Taillieu, 1998; Blanchard, 2007). Given the need for autonomy from experienced subordinates, supervisor attempts to extol intense transformational leadership will likely interfere with their desire for latitude in fulfilling their job assignments. In fact, we argue that more experienced subordinates neither seek a great deal of elaboration of task-related information from their leader given their development level nor do they need a "how to" guide on performing their job roles. Therefore, more experienced subordinates ultimately prefer intermediate levels of transformational leadership.

In summary, we predict that transformational leadership increases commitment for subordinates with high to moderate levels of experience. We predict that beyond moderate levels of transformational leadership a superior's involvement detracts from the level of autonomy desired by mature subordinates and results in less commitment.

Hypothesis 2 (H2): For more experienced subordinates, transformational leadership has a nonlinear relationship to subordinate organizational commitment. Specifically, more experienced subordinates will experience the highest levels of commitment when their leader provides moderate levels of transformational leadership rather than low or high levels.

Study 1 Method

Sample

Although CEOs serve a unique organizational role requiring them to effectively communicate a vision, establish collective goals, and manage their top direct reports (Resick et al., 2009), we know little about how executive experience influences the individual leadership needs of top executives. The sample used in Study 1 consists of the CEO direct reports of 120 randomly chosen firms that are listed in the Istanbul Chamber of Industry 500 Companies. The original questionnaire was in English and was translated from English into Turkish by a bilingual speaker. The Turkish questionnaire was then given to another bilingual speaker to back-translate into English. In cases where the back-translation was not equivalent to the original version, the

process of translation was repeated (Brislin, 1980). To develop our survey, we asked a panel of three management scholars and three CEOs to review our survey and provide feedback. Based on their feedback, we modified the questionnaire, and then pre-tested it on 50 participants in an executive MBA class, which confirmed the reliability of our measures. In each firm, the CEO served as the contact for this research. We first sent the questionnaires to the CEO of each company with a cover letter (seeking their cooperation and explaining the purpose of the study), and a self-addressed stamped envelope for survey return. We asked CEOs of each firm to distribute the questionnaires along with the self-addressed envelope to each of their direct reports (top five); therefore, a total of 600 questionnaires were mailed to CEOs of these 120 firms. To ensure privacy and confidentiality of responses, all responses were returned directly from the direct reports without CEO involvement.

Based on a two-wave mailing process, we received 228 questionnaires. Eighteen of them were excluded because they were incomplete. It is quite possible that we received anywhere from zero to five responses for any given Istanbul Chamber of Industry 500 company which means a nested research strategy (i.e., two or more direct reports responded to same CEO) would be most appropriate. However, to maintain the maximum amount of confidentiality we assured the CEO direct reports we would not track their responses back to their specific companies. Graen and Cashman (1975) documented the point that every supervising CEO–direct report relationship involves a different social exchange relationship. Therefore, our design treats each leader–subordinate response as one unique case (Napier and Ferris, 1993). All in all, the sample of this study consists of 207 unique CEO-direct report responses, representing a 35% response rate. We believe, because of our sampling procedure, that we obtained a response rate of 35% which is well above the 12% rate typical for mailed surveys to top executives (e.g., Hambrick et al., 1993). From the available sample of 207 top-level CEO direct reports, 72% of respondents were male and 28% were female. Approximately 31% of the sample reported that their age was 29–39 years, while the second largest group, 22%, reported being 51–61 years of age.

Independent Variables

Transformational leadership. Transformational leadership was measured by using the Turkish translation of the "Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire-Form 5X" (MLQ-Form 5X Short; Bass and Avolio, 1995, 1997, 2000). We used 20 items taken from it to measure transformational leadership, including idealized influence (i.e., charisma), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Bass and Avolio, 1997, 2000). However, because we did not have any a priori expectation that individual components of transformational leadership would differentially affect levels of commitment and that the four single components of transformational leadership usually show high intercorrelations (Bass and Avolio, 2000; Yukl, 2006; Fu et al., 2010), we combined these scales into one higher-order factor measuring transformational leadership (see Walumbwa, et al., 2004; Hambley, Kline, and O'Neill, 2005). This combination is consistent with recent empirical (Jung and Sosik, 2002; Bono and Judge, 2003; Kark, Shamir, and Chen, 2003) and theoretical (Avolio, Bass, and Jung, 1999; Bass, 1999) developments in transformational leadership. A five-point Likert scale (ranging from "not at all" to "frequently, if not always") was used. The MLQ has been used in hundreds of studies around the globe (Bass and Avolio, 2000). Scale coefficient alpha was .96.

Executive work experience. Executive experience represents our moderator variable. We asked "how many years have you worked in this sector?" Executive industry experience was

categorized into the following stages: "less than one year," "one to two years," "over two to four years," "over four to ten years," and "more than ten years."

Control Variables

In all our analyses, we included several demographic variables such as executive age, gender, and education which are potential predictors of organizational commitment (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Ang, Dyne, and Begley, 2003). Executive age was continuous while gender was a dichotomous variable (0 = male, 1 = female). Education was categorical (0 = Bachelor's; 1 = Master's; 2 = Doctorate). Finally, we controlled for executive's position tenure as CEO using the following categories: "less than one year," "one to two years," "over two to four years," "over four to ten years," and "more than ten years."

Dependent Measure

Organizational commitment. Organizational commitment was based on the established affective commitment scale (Allen and Meyer, 1990, 1993). Participants responded to all items on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree"). For the 6-item measure of affective commitment, two items (with corrected-item total correlation < .40) were excluded from the analysis. The following four items were included: "I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization," "I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization (reversed coded)," "I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization (reverse coded)," and "This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me." Scale coefficient alpha for the 4-item affective commitment measure was .93.

Study 1 Results

Construct Validation

We first examined a dimensional level confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) including all the latent variables in the study (e.g., transformational leadership, organizational commitment). We used multiple indicators to represent the latent variable transformational leadership by averaging items for each of the four subscales (charisma, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation). We compared the proposed two-factor measurement model with an alternative one-factor model. The two-factor model consisted of transformational leadership and organizational commitment. The one-factor model was composed of all transformational leadership and organizational commitment items. Absolute fit indices for the proposed two-factor model ranged from adequate to excellent: $\chi2 = 54.163$, $p < .001$, goodness of fit index (GFI) = .95, comparative fit index (CFI) = .98, incremental fit index (IFI) = .98, and root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .07. Against this model, we tested an alternative one-factor model with all transformational leadership and organizational commitment items ($\chi2 = 557.570$, $p < .001$, GFI = .78, CFI = .92, IFI= .92, RMSEA = .08). The results indicate that the two-factor model fit our data best. The difference in chi-square between the two- and one-factor model is 503.407, which is distributed as chi-square with (237-26 = 211) degrees of freedom. The fact that this value is statistically significant further suggests that the two-factor model is significantly better than the one-factor model. Thus, our results provide empirical evidence of the distinctiveness of transformational leadership and organizational commitment.

Table 1 provides the means, standard deviations, and correlations for the study variables. Regression results for the test of hypotheses are presented in Table 2.

Hypothesis Testing

Because of the categorical nature of our moderator, work experience, we tested our hypotheses using the subgroup analysis approach with hierarchical multiple regression. We divided the dataset into CEO direct reports with more experience (> 10 years) and less experience (<= 10 years) to derive two subgroups. We then regressed organizational commitment to our control variables (see Step 1 in Tables 2). In our next step we entered transformational leadership to determine the incremental variance attributable to that variable (see Step 2 in Tables 2). We then entered the transformational leadership squared to investigate the nonlinear main effect (see Step 3 in Tables 2). Support for our hypotheses would require statistically significant increases in variance explained (ΔR^2) in step 2 for linear predictions and step 3 for nonlinear predictions.

Hypotheses 1 and 2 were assessed in Model 2 and 6 respectively (Table 2). As Table 2 demonstrates, the relationship between CEO transformational leadership and direct report organizational commitment varies according to the direct report's experience. The relationship between CEO leadership and organizational commitment is positive and linear for CEO direct reports (Model 2 in less experienced subgroup) with less experience supporting our prediction (β = .75, p < .001). Also, Model 6 for the more experienced subgroup offers support for a nonlinear effect of transformational leadership on commitment (β = −1.47, p < .05). Therefore, H1 and H2 are supported.

Limitations

There are several limitations in the present study that may also serve as future research extensions. First, we used individual followers' assessments of their CEO's transformational leadership. Even though studies recommend our approach and suggest that collecting descriptions of leader behavior from the same leaders are suspect (Hershey, 1985; Thompson and Vecchio, 2009), we do suggest future studies see whether or not there is some level of convergence between the CEO's perception of transformational leadership provided to a particular executive and that executive's viewpoint. Although a CEO's leadership style can be generically applied to all his or her executives (Ling et al., 2008), we recommend that future research not sway from also studying CEO leadership at the individual level of analysis. However, it would be interesting to use a multi-level approach to capture CEO transformational leadership as an aggregated top executive measure influencing both executive behavior and firm performance. Unfortunately, we were unable to investigate transformational leadership in aggregate among executives because, for the sake of remaining as anonymous as possible, we did not keep track of company information. Although our approach resulted in a higher than normal response rate (35%) than previous research, future research should attempt to see whether CEO leadership in the aggregate explains additional variance in dyad level leadership. Although a fruitful area of inquiry, we highlight that it is also quite possible that a given CEO behaves as a chameleon, adjusting his or her leadership style to each particular follower, so we should not assume that CEOs use a one-size-fits-all approach to leadership (Papworth, Milne, and Boak, 2009).

Also, although we focus specifically on the executive's development level, there might be other executive characteristics that moderate the transformational leadership to commitment relationship. For example, one might expect an executive with high self-esteem to prefer only moderate levels of transformational leadership regardless of their development level. Also, an

expatriate executive from a culture that is high in power distance might react more favorably to a host country CEO who is high in a particular leadership style (Kirkman, Lowe, and Gibson, 2006; Jung, Yammarino, and Lee, 2009; Kirkman, Chen, Farh, Chen, and Lowe, 2009) where moderate levels might be detrimental to executive outcomes. Related to this point, we suggest that future studies compare the relationships we proposed here in different cultural settings to explore the potential variation in how executives respond within and between different countries.

Finally, it would be ideal to collect data directly from the CEOs, such as their personality and values, to see how those might interact with their leadership style to impact executive behavior (Colbert et al., 2008). However, such investigation should not be limited to transformational leadership but also include transactional leadership. In fact, future research could benefit from testing our framework with other leadership types such as transactional leadership. Could it be that transactional leadership is more effective than transformational leadership for experienced executives? Is there a positive linear or nonlinear relationship between transactional leadership and organizational commitment? Such areas of inquiry await study.

Study 2: Background and Additional Hypotheses Development
Several limitations emerged from Study 1 which served as the impetus for our Study 2 research design. First, in Study 1, we could not be assured that more than one executive did not share the same CEO which prevents us for accounting for potential within-firm leadership effects. Therefore, we avoided a nested sampling issue in Study 2 by limiting our sample to one leader per follower. Second, we were confined by our work experience measure which was not measured as a continuous variable. Thus, we replicated our nonlinear relationship on commitment from Study 1 using a continuous measure of work experience. Third, in Study 1, we did not account for potential mediation that might more convincingly link transformational leadership effects to organizational commitment. In other words, Study 2 was tactically designed to capture the mediating mechanisms (i.e., role clarity, elaboration of task-related information in the supervising leader–subordinated dyad) that explained our findings in Study 1. Fourth, our sample in Study 1 consisted of only executives who were considered by their CEO to be in his or her top five direct reports which limited the ability to generalize beyond the upper echelons. We sought to replicate and extend our findings from the Turkish executive sample in a U.S. sample thus providing not only broader generalization ability but also a cross-cultural comparison. Whether or not leadership theories are culture-specific is an ongoing debate and our study offers additional insight on the East versus West dialogue. Study 2 was designed to address all the above limitations. The following section offers hypotheses regarding the mediating mechanisms that may account for previous organizational commitment findings in Study 1.

Role Clarity as a Mediating Process
Role clarity refers to having sufficient information about the expectations and behaviors associated with one's work role (Kahn et al., 1964; Spreitzer, Kizilos, and Nason, 1997). A review of role theory indicates that lack of role clarity (i.e., role ambiguity) is a direct function of the discrepancy between the information available to the person and that which is needed to adequately perform the role (Kahn et al., 1964). Ambiguous situations with unclear role expectations may make it difficult for individuals to assess where to direct their efforts, resulting in confusion and dissatisfaction (Miller and Jablin, 1991). This sense of confusion may be attributed to poor organizational coordination and lack of coherent purpose for jobs. According to role theory, ambiguity should increase the probability that a person will be dissatisfied with his or her role, will experience both psychological and physical stress, will seek other opportunities for

improving clarity and satisfaction, and will generally show a lack of job interest (Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman, 1970; House, 1972). A lack of role clarity is likely to make employees believe they are helpless and thus reduce the impact they have in their work area (Spreitzer et al., 1997). In contrast, employees who clearly understand their organizational roles have been found to experience less anxiety and higher levels of commitment (Allen et al., 2001). However, previous research has not adequately attempted to account for the behaviors that occur at intermediate levels of role clarity.

We predict that moderate levels of role clarity appear suitable for more experienced subordinates but create an unfavorable sense of role ambiguity for less experienced subordinates. Although employees who perceive role clarity in their jobs generally are more likely to feel attached to the organization, identify with the organization, and accept organizational goals, and thus will have more commitment to their organizations (Zaccaro and Dobbins, 1989; Johnston, et al., 1990), we propose that the need for role clarity varies across employee work experience. Specifically, we argue that lower levels of role clarity violate the social exchange relationship for subordinates with less work experience who need well-defined goals. More experienced subordinates have the competence levels at which they can consider moderate levels of role clarity to be ideal. In a nutshell, moderate levels of transformational leadership result in the intermediate levels of role clarity suitable for more experienced subordinates, thus predicting the highest level of commitment. In contrast, high levels of leadership relate to greater levels of role clarity for less experienced executives which ultimately lead to the highest commitment. Therefore, we predict that role clarity represents an integral mediating mechanism explaining our connection from a transformational leadership to commitment across subordinate work experience.

The mediating effect of role clarity has indeed been documented in the literature. For example, Chen and Bliese (2002) tested the influence of group-level average leadership style on individuals' self efficacy, as mediated by individuals' role clarity. They found support for role clarity as fully mediating the cross-level influence of higher-level average leadership style on individuals' self-efficacy. In addition, Whitaker et al.'s (2007) results indicated that role clarity mediates the relationship between feedback-seeking behaviors and job performance. Also, Bauer et al.'s (2007) results revealed that role clarity mediates the relationship between newcomer information seeking and organizational socialization tactics and socialization outcomes, including newcomer performance, work attitudes, and turnover. Similarly, Hall's (2008) results indicated that role clarity fully mediates the relation between comprehensive performance measurement systems and managerial performance. Thus, the literature indicates that role clarity is an important variable to be considered when examining organizational commitment, leadership, job interest, and other similar variables.

Hypothesis 3 (H3): Subordinate work experience moderates the nonlinear relationship between transformational leadership and subordinate role clarity. Specifically, intermediate levels (rather than low or high) of transformational leadership will result in the greatest level of subordinate role clarity for more experienced subordinates while high levels (rather than low or intermediate) of transformational leadership will result in the highest level of role clarity for less experienced subordinates.

Hypothesis 4 (H4): Role clarity mediates the nonlinear relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment through the effect of work experience. In other words, the impact of transformational leadership on organizational commitment by work experience reduces significance when accounting for the direct influence of role clarity.

Elaboration of Task-Related Information as a Mediating Process

We also believe elaboration of task-related information in the leader–subordinate dyad represents another key intervening process. The process of knowledge exchange, consideration, and integration of ideas refers to elaboration of task-related information (van Knippenberg, De Dreu, and Homan, 2004). This process is even more critical for subordinates who cannot excel unless they obtain needed information from those in leadership positions to accomplish their task. Previous research shows that those with unique knowledge and information do neither automatically share this information with those who can benefit from it nor do they even provide thorough elaboration on information provided by others (Stasser and Titus, 1985; Brodbeck, et al., 2007). Therefore, one cannot assume that those in leadership positions share needed information with their subordinates. Also, it is presumptuous to believe that the elaboration of process needs is the same across subordinate work experience.

While high levels of transformational leadership foster knowledge sharing and elaboration of tasks-related information among members (Kearny and Gebert, 2009), we argue that lower and even moderate levels violate the social exchange relationship particularly for subordinates with less work experience. Subordinates with less work experience need their leaders to fully engage them with an inspirational vision and offer them opportunities to elaborate on task-related issues. Less experienced subordinates can also benefit from having a transformational leader who can help absorb uncertainty from organizational and external demands by providing needed elaborative task-related processes (Bass and Riggio, 2006; van Ginkel and van Knippenberg, 2008; Kearny and Gebert, 2009). For less experienced subordinates, high quality social exchange relations require the leader to inform the subordinate about the different issues involved and carefully discuss possibilities. Only high levels of elaboration are acceptable in meeting the demands of less experienced subordinates.

In stark contrast, we predict a moderate level of elaboration appears preferable to more experienced executives. Because more experienced executives seek autonomy, high levels of transformational leadership might be considered as micromanagement given their skill level and qualifications. Thus, while some elaboration of task-related information may be suitable for more experienced subordinates, too much of it will appear undesirable resulting in a nonlinear relationship between transformational leadership and elaboration of task-related information.

Furthermore, we predict that this form of elaboration of task-related information acts as a mediator. Past research has documented the potential mediating role of the elaboration of task-related information construct (van Knippenberg et al., 2004; van Ginkel and van Knippenberg, 2008). For example, van Ginkel and van Knippenberg (2008) found that group information elaboration mediated the relationship between shared task representations and group decision-making performance. More recently, Kearney and Gebert (2009) found that transformational leadership relates to elaboration of task-related information. Given that leadership relates to the elaboration process, and that the elaboration process has been considered a key intervening process related to decision-making performance (van Knippenberg and Schippers, 2007; Kearney, Gebert, and Voelpel, 2009), we propose that elaboration of task-relevant information mediates between transformational leadership and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 5 (H5): Subordinate work experience moderates the nonlinear relationship between transformational leadership and elaboration of task-related information in the leader-subordinate dyad. Specifically, intermediate levels (rather than low or high) of transformational leadership will result in the most elaboration of task relevant information for more experienced

subordinates while high levels (rather than low or intermediate) of transformational leadership will result in the most elaboration of task relevant information for less experienced subordinates.

Hypothesis 6 (H6): *Elaboration of task-related information in the leader–subordinate dyad mediates the nonlinear transformational leadership by work experience effect on organizational commitment. In other words, the impact of the nonlinear transformational leadership by work experience on organizational commitment reduces the significance when accounting for the direct influence of elaboration of task-related information in the dyad.*

Study 2 Methods

Sample

We collected data from currently employed business students at a U.S. university, 90% of whom were graduate students, and their direct supervisors (i.e., leader) at work (Milliken, 1990; Croson and Donhue, 2006; Bello et al., 2009). More than one data source (data were collected from both the employee and their direct supervisors) was used to increase external validity of the current study (Rosenthal and Rosnow, 2008) and to minimizing common method variance concerns. By asking supervising leaders to evaluate the elaboration of task-relevant information process, the single observer bias was minimized.

Surveys from the supervising leader were collected a month after employee surveys were collected. Participation was voluntary and anonymous and participants were asked to check on a signing sheet to receive bonus credits. Each responding supervising leader provided no more than one survey for the current study, an important facet of our research design. The leader survey was sealed and signed over the seal by the supervising leader and either mailed, emailed, or faxed back to the researcher. To increase response rate, an online survey was designed and provided for employees whose supervising leaders were in a different location and for whom it was not feasible to fill out the hard copy. Supervising leader contact information was requested voluntarily in the survey to allow random checks for true submissions which increase the authenticity of the data collected. Students were awarded extra credits for both the employee and supervising leader surveys.

Each survey included a cover page explaining the purpose and procedures of the study and a questionnaire containing instructions, construct items, and scales. The employee survey included organizational commitment, role clarity, elaboration of task-related information, transformational leadership, power distance, task interdependence, employee work experience, individual-level demographic variables, and tenure with the direct supervising leader. Collected one month later than that for the employee, the supervising leader survey included elaboration of task-related information and employee performance.[1] The employee survey and supervising leader survey were later matched using an identification code generated by the student participant to ensure confidentiality (Tepper and Taylor, 2003).

A total of 178 pairs of matched employee and supervisor surveys were collected, yielding a response rate of 26.1%. The final sample included employees from a broad cross-section of jobs, including manufacturer (17.9%), wholesaler (3.4%), retailer (7.9%), service (42.7%), healthcare (6.7%), government and education (12.9%), and other (8.4%). Of the respondents 61.8% were male and the average age was 26 years (range 18 to 59 years).

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[1] In our supplemental analysis, we tested the relationships between transformational leadership, mediators' role clarity and elaboration of task-related information, subordinate work experience, and performance to provide additional information on the importance of our focus on commitment.

Independent Variables

Transformational leadership. Transformational leadership was measured by using the "Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire-Form 5X," the same as was used in Study 1 (MLQ-Form 5X Short; Bass and Avolio, 2000). Scale coefficient alpha was .96.

Employee work experience.[2] To be able to explain more variance, we measured employee work experience by the actual number years of an employee's total work experience (Quinones et al., 1995; Tesluk and Jacobs, 1998). We used the actual number of years an employee has worked to capture a more broad-based work experience assessment.

Role clarity. Role clarity was measured on a 5-point Likert scale adapted from Dallner et al. (2000). A sample item is "Clear goals and objectives have been defined for my job." Scale coefficient alpha was .89.

Elaboration of task-related information. Elaboration of task-related information was measured on a 5-point Likert scale adapted from Kearney, Gebert, and Voelpel (2009). A sample item is "My supervisor (subordinate) and I complement each other by openly sharing our knowledge." We collected it from the supervising leader. Scale coefficient alpha for the supervisor rated measure was .84.

Control Variables

In our analyses for Study 2, we included demographic variables such as employee age, gender, and education which are potential predictors of organizational commitment as we included in Study 1 (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Ang et al., 2003). Age was measured as a categorical variable (1 = 18 to 24; 2 = 25 to 29; 3 = 30 to 34; 4 = 35 to 39; 5 = 40 to 44; 6 = 45 to 49; 7 = 50 to 54; 8 = 55 to 59). Gender was measured as a dichotomous variable (1 = male, 0 = female). Education was measured as a categorical variable (1 = high school; 2 = some college; 3 = Bachelor's; 4 = Master's; 5 = Doctorate). To account for employee tenure with their supervising leader, we controlled for employee's tenure with their current supervising leader— "How many years have you worked with your current direct supervisor?" It was measured continuously as the actual years with the supervisor. We also controlled for employee salary as higher pay relates to commitment (O'Reilly and Caldwell, 1980; Pfeffer and Langton, 1993).

In addition, to reflect findings in existing studies related to antecedents of organizational commitment, we controlled for task interdependence and power distance perceived by the employee (Pearce, 1993; Kirman and Shapiro, 2001). Task interdependence was adapted from Van der Vegt and Janssen (2003). It included five items using a 5-point Likert scale. Scale coefficient alpha was .70. Power distance was adapted from Dorfman and Howell (1988), which included six items on a 5-point Likert scale. Scale coefficient alpha was .71.

Dependent Variables

Organizational commitment. Organizational commitment scale was adapted from Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979). Participants responded to all items on a 5-point Likert scale (1= "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree"). Sample items are: "For me this is the best of all possible companies for which to work"; "I talk up this company to my friends as a great company

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[2] We also tested employee job experience (Tross and Maurer, 2000; Moscoso and Iglesias, 2009) in the models replacing employee total work experience. The results were similar.

to work for"; and "I feel very little loyalty to this company (reverse coded)." Scale coefficient alpha was .89.

Since, in both Mowday et al. (1979) and Allen and Meyer's (1990) OCQ conception an employee identifies with, is involved in, and enjoys membership in the organization, Mowday et al.'s (1979) commitment variable is highly similar to the Allen and Meyer's (1990) affective commitment variable (Culpepper, Gamble, and Blubaugh, 2004) we used in Study 1. Also, the OCQ commitment measure has been shown to be factor-analytically indistinguishable from the Allen and Meyer (1990) affective commitment scale items (Dunham, Grube, and Castaneda, 1994). The OCQ minus a few items that appear to assess turnover intentions (Becker & Wilson, 2000) primarily reflects what Meyer and Allen (1991) described as affective commitment (Shore, Barksdale, and Shore, 1995; Jex, 2002).

Study 2 Results

Construct Validation

Before testing our hypotheses, we conducted an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using principal axis factoring to examine whether our items loaded onto common latent factors. We included all items from our survey scales (transformational leadership, organizational commitment, role clarity, task interdependence, and power distance) into the analysis with varimax rotation. Five factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 emerged after excluding four items from commitment scale. Excluded items are: "I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this company"; "There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this company indefinitely"; "I could just as well be working for a different company as long as the type of work was similar"; and "It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this company." As expected, these items from the OCQ appear to assess turnover intentions (Becker and Wilson, 2000).

We then examined a dimensional level confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) by including items of the survey scales used in the EFA (organizational commitment, transformational leadership, role clarity, task interdependence, and power distance). As for the transformational leadership scale, we averaged items for its four subscales (charisma, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation) and included these scales in the CFA to increase the degree of freedom (Meade and Kroustalis, 2005). To assess model fit, we report goodness of fit index (GFI), comparative fit index (CFI), and root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA). Our five-factor CFA model yielded acceptable fit indices ($\chi 2 = 597$, $p < .001$, GFI = .82, CFI = .90, RMSEA = .06). Thus, our results provide empirical evidence of the distinctiveness of organizational commitment, transformational leadership, role clarity, task interdependence, and power distance.

Table 3 provides the means, standard deviations, and correlations for the study variables.

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Insert Table 3 about here

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Mediation Hypothesis Testing

In our Study 2 analysis, we tested whether role clarity and elaboration of task-related information in the dyad mediate the relationship between transformational leadership squared ×

work experience and organizational commitment, which would provide evidence that role clarity and elaboration of information are primary factors in explaining the work experience moderation of nonlinear transformational leadership effects on organizational commitment. We summarize the mediation results in Table 4. We tested H4 and H6 using the procedures recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986). In all regressions, we included controls. In our first regression, we used work experience × transformational leadership squared as the independent variable and organizational commitment as the dependent variable. As predicted, this relationship was significant ($\beta = -.02$, $p < .05$) supporting H1 and H2 and also replicating our Study 1 findings.

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Insert Table 4 about here

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In the second regression, we tested the relationship between work experience × transformational leadership squared and role clarity. This relationship was also significant ($\beta = -.031$, $p < .01$) which supports H3. We then tested the relationship between work experience × transformational leadership squared on elaboration of task-relevant information in the leader–subordinate dyad. This relationship was also significant ($\beta = -.020$, $p < .05$) and supports H5. In the final step, we included the work experience × transformational leadership squared term and both role clarity and elaboration of task-relevant information as independent variables and organizational commitment as the dependent variable. Supporting our mediation hypotheses, the impact of work experience × transformational leadership squared on commitment loses significance ($\beta = -.011$, $s.d. = .009$) when the direct influence of role clarity ($\beta = .17$, $p < .05$) and elaboration of task-relevant information in the dyad ($\beta = .096$, $s.d. = .075$) are included in the regression. However, these results provide support for H4 (role clarity) but not H6 (elaboration). It suggests that role clarity in the leader–subordinate dyad mediates the nonlinear relationship between transformational leadership and commitment when moderated by subordinate work experience. Figures 1 (role clarity) and 2 (commitment) show the pattern of the relationship for both below the mean (less than 7 years experience) and above the mean (greater than or equal to 7 years experience) subordinates.

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Insert Figure 1 and 2 about here

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To sum it up, we found support for H1, H2, H3, H4, and H5. We did not find supporting evidence for H6.

Post Hoc Supplemental Analysis

We did an additional test on the relationships among transformational leadership, role clarity, elaboration of task-related information, subordinate work experience, and supervisor-rated subordinate performance to further address the importance of considering the influence of transformational leadership on employee outcomes (van Knippenberg and Schippers, 2007). Collected from the supervisor one month later than subordinate reported data, subordinate performance was measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale adapted from Janssen and Van Yperen (2004). A sample item asks "Your overall appraisal of subordinate's quality of work?" Scale coefficient alpha was .82. We employed the same mediation test used above (Baron and Kenny, 1986). After accounting for controls, the interaction between transformational leadership squared and subordinate work experience was related to subordinate performance ($\beta = -.023$, $p < .01$), role clarity ($\beta = -.031$, $p < .01$), and elaboration of task-related information in the dyad ($\beta =$

−.022, $p < .05$). The final step revealed that the impact of work experience × transformational leadership squared on performance was reduced in level of significance ($\beta = -.015$, $p < .10$) when the direct influence of elaboration of task-relevant information in the dyad was included in the regression ($\beta = .222$, $p < .001$) while role clarity ($\beta = -.001$, $s.d. =.061$) was not a significant mediating factor. This suggests that elaboration of task-relevant information (but not role clarity) in the leader–subordinated dyad partially mediates the relationship between work experience × transformational leadership squared and supervisor-rated subordinate performance.

Discussion

With any specific social exchange relationship, high quality exchange occurs when the organization satisfies the employee needs and the employee in turn reciprocates as reflected in commitment and performance. We put forth transformational leadership as a critical resource for employees' demand for role clarity and a process that allows for elaboration of task-relevant issues. We find that employees with varying levels of work experience differ in the amount of transformational leadership needed which indeed has implications for the social exchange relationship. More experienced subordinates express the most commitment when their supervising leaders provide moderate levels of transformational leadership, in part because given their skill level/preference for autonomy they demand only intermediate levels of role clarity from their boss. However, while high levels of transformational leadership resulted in decreased commitment for more experienced subordinates, it has a different effect on less experienced subordinates. Specifically, given less experienced employees' job development level, it was essential for them to be led by supervisors with transformational attributes. We conclude that when a supervising leader provides moderate levels of transformational leadership, more experienced subordinates identify it as an extremely high-quality social exchange relationship while less experienced employees require high levels of transformational leadership to solidify a high-quality exchange relationship. Such dynamics ultimately result in the nonlinear pattern we proposed.

Limitations and Research Implications

Although Study 2 was designed to address some of the shortcomings in Study 1, there are several limitations that provide grounds for future research. First, the majority of our data was collected from the subordinate. While most of our data in both studies is from a single source and was collected at a single point in time, we did collect matching data from both the supervising leader and subordinate in Study 2, some of which was utilized to measure several key constructs (e.g., elaboration of task-relevant information, tenure in dyad) and collected at different points in time. Additionally, we made every attempt to minimize concerns of sampling bias and common method variance. As Podsakoff et al. (2003) recommended, in the questionnaire design, we separated survey questions used in the study from each other to minimize this problem. We also conducted a test for common variance bias and multicollinearity. As for future studies, we believe a longitudinal design would be an ideal way to test our theoretical framework so transformational leadership, mediating processes, and commitment can be examined as the subordinate matriculates through development stages.

Second, we used work experience to tap into the subordinate's development level. Future research could benefit from also considering established perceptual measures to gage experience such as work mastery (Jokisaari and Nurmi, 2009; Bradley, 2010).

Third, we focused exclusively on hierarchical relationships and the transformational leadership that emanates from them. Research shows that the social exchange relationship can be

reciprocated and subordinates can be satisfied in numerous ways outside traditional leadership resources including informal work relationships (Mehra, Kilduff, and Brass, 2001; Sparrowe and Liden, 2005). The network perspective might shed light on how informal relationships impact role clarity and information elaboration, and ultimately either bolster or diminish employee commitment (Brass, 1984; Burkhardt and Brass, 1990; Podolny and Baron, 1997). Similarly, integrating the impact of multiple mentors distinct from transformational leadership might be a fruitful direction for extending our model (Higgins and Kram, 2001; Seibert, Kramier, and Liden, 2001). Such investigation might provide a more complete picture of the various ways in which subordinates establish high quality social exchange relationships with their organizations.

Despite its limitations, these two field studies in combination provide converging evidence that transformational leadership has a differential impact on subordinates depending on their work experience. Perhaps the most noteworthy contribution of these field studies lies in the consistent nonlinear effects that emanate for more experienced subordinates in both a Turkish and a United States context.

We offer one final implication of our findings. Leadership theorists have suggested that the same benefits that transformational leadership affords at lower levels of the organization can be observed at the top levels. We observe similar findings for both low to middle level subordinates and the upper echelons in two field studies across two different national cultures, Turkey and the United States. In fact, some argue that leadership behavior has a greater impact in the upper echelons because top executives are involved in strategy formulation and their level of commitment should directly impact firm outcomes (Ling et al., 2008). While our supplemental findings in Study 2 shed some light on leadership behavior and its influence on employee performance, it would be interesting to explore more extensively the executive ranks. Even more, our findings reveal that leadership effects could at times emerge in a nonlinear fashion and that what might be effective for one follower might not work as effectively for other employees.

Closing Remarks

We suggest that companies be aware of the individual differences among employees who vary in leadership needs. As we found, a mismatch between follower needs and leadership behavior can dampen organizational commitment as a direct result of a dissatisfaction with the social exchange relationship. Leadership training might be useful in equipping supervisors with the leadership flexibility needed to effectively influence each of their subordinates based on their development needs. In fact, such training should be useful company-wide because our results show that what works at the executive ranks can also work for middle and lower level managers and their followers. In sum, our findings related to transformational leaders provide insight into additional challenges that have previously not been considered in leadership research and social exchange relationships. We find empirical support for the premise that leadership behavior should be specific to the subordinate thus supporting our premise: "Different Leadership Strokes for Different Folks."

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Table 1
Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations (Study 1)

		Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.	Executive Age	2.75	1.33	-					
2.	Executive Gender	1.28	.45	-.05	-				
3.	Executive Education	1.55	.56	-.07	.04	-			
4.	Transformational Leadership	3.33	1.08	-.20**	.04	.11	-		
5.	Executive Industry Experience	4.06	.91	.78**	-.07	-.20**	.27**	-	
6.	Organizational Commitment	3.29	1.22	-.03	.06	.02	.79**	-.13	-

[a]n=207. Every value above |.189| are significant at the 1% level. *. 0.05 level (2-tailed). **. 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 2
Results of Subgroup Analysis for Organizational Commitment (Study 1)

	Subgroup 1 (Work Experience < = 10 years)						Subgroup 2 (Work Experience > 10 years)					
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5		Model 6	
	Beta	Std. Error	Beta	Std. Error	Beta	Std. Error	Beta	Std. Error	Beta	Std. Error	Beta	Std. Error
Executive Age	-.104	(.118)	.108	(.081)	.108	(.083)	.525**	(.182)	.201*	(.089)	.323**	(.106)
Executive Gender	.076	(.240)	.045	(.161)	.046	(.168)	.291	(.291)	.174	(.139)	.264	(.143)
Executive Education	-.226	(.192)	-.194	(.128)	-.194	(.129)	.245	(.251)	-.098	(.121)	-.178	(.125)
Transformational Leadership			.88***	(.071)	.870	(.740)			.97***	(.061)	2.587**	(.792)
Transformational Leadership^2					.002	(.119)					-.264*	(.129)
R^2	.006		.651		.651		.024		.485		.521	
R^2 Change	.006		.644***		.000		.024		.461***		.036*	
Model F	.322		74***		62***		54***		47***		43***	

The unstandardized coefficients and standard error (in parenthesis) are reported.
† $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (2-tailed). N = 127 for subgroup 1. N = 80 for subgroup 2.

Table 3
Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations (Study 2)

		Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1.	Subordinate Age	2.17	1.45	-											
2.	Subordinate Gender	.62	.48	.18*	-										
3.	Subordinate Education	3.20	.71	.19**	.15*	-									
4.	Subordinate Tenure with Direct Supervisor	1.89	1.62	.34**	-.004	.05	-								
5.	Subordinate Salary	5830	9890	.25**	.012	.019	-.48	-							
6.	Task Interdependent	3.48	.69	-.11	-.07	.03	-.14	.013	-						
7.	Power Distance	2.25	.575	-.03	.12	.11	-.05	-.104	-.02	-					
8.	Transformational Leadership	3.67	.79	-.01	-.05	.17*	.09	.031	.27**	-.16*	-				
9.	Subordinate Work Experience	7.26	6.28	.82**	.07	.02	.33**	.341**	-.03	-.05	.001	-			
10.	Role Clarity	3.94	.82	-.04	-.11	.06	.02	.062	.03	-.17*	.52**	-.07	-		
11.	Elaboration of Task-Related Information	3.99	.66	.00	-.15*	-.03	.18	.05	.19*	-.08*	.25**	.26**	.06	-	
12.	Organizational Commitment	3.68	.75	-.03	.02	.07	.06	.178*	.22**	-.22**	.43**	-.02	.38**	.23**	-
13.	Employee Performance#	4.31	.57	-.02	-.08	.005	.17*	.020	.12	-.06	.21**	.001	.13	.35**	.19**

[a]n=178. *. 0.05 level (2-tailed). **. 0.01 level (2-tailed). #Employee Performance is used in supplemental analysis and was collected from supervisor one month later.

Table 4
Mediation Analyses (Study 2)

| | Commitment | | Role Clarity | | Elaboration | | Supplemental Performance Results | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | Commitment with Mediators | | Performance | | Performance with Mediators | |
	Beta	Std. Error	Beta	Std. Error	Beta	Std. Error	Beta	Std. Error	Beta	Std. Error	Beta	Std. Error
Subordinate Age	.014	(.071)	.086	(.075)	-.006	(.056)	.006	(.054)	.001	(.059)	.001	(.048)
Subordinate Gender	.132	(.114)	-.146	(.119)	-.149	(.101)	.209*	(.098)	-.045	(.095)	-.018	(.087)
Subordinate Education	.012	(.083)	.005	(.087)	-.037	(.073)	-.015	(.071)	.007	(.069)	.011	(.062)
Subordinate Tenure with Supervisor	.071†	(.039)	.025	(.041)	.095**	(.035)	.032	(.034)	.10**	(.033)	.064*	(.030)
Subordinate Salary	1.5E-5**	(.000)	6E-6	(.000)	3E-6	(.000)	1.2E-5*	(.000)	3E-6	(.000)	1.3E-6	(.000)
Task Interdependent	.168†	(.086)	-.106	(.090)	.15*	(.075)	.176	(.074)	.131†	(.072)	.082†	(.065)
Power Distance	-.207*	(.097)	-.112	(.102)	-.038	(.086)	-.073	(.084)	-.016	(.081)	-.009	(.073)
Transformational Leadership	-.163	(.419)	-.226	(.438)	-.580	(.364)	-.136	(.355)	-.457	(.349)	-.246	(.312)
Transformational Leadership^2	.085	(.065)	.119†	(.068)	.117*	(.056)	.067	(.055)	.075	(.054)	.039	(.048)
Subordinate Experience	-.213†	(.119)	-.370**	(.124)	-.200†	(.103)	-.122	(.103)	-.292**	(.099)	-.203*	(.091)
Transformational X Experience	.13†	(.069)	.212**	(.072)	.131*	(.060)	.072	(.060)	.163**	(.057)	.109*	(.053)
Transformational^2 X Experience	-.020*	(.010)	-.031**	(.011)	-.020*	(.009)	-.011	(.009)	-.023**	(.008)	-.015†	(.008)
Role Clarity							.177*	(.069)			-.001	(.061)
Elaboration of Task-Related Information							.096	(.075)			.222***	(.066)
R^2	.293		.354		.162		.349		.145		.185	
Model F	4.796 ***		6.335***		2.662**		6.243***		1.967*		2.637**	

The unstandardized coefficients and standard error are reported. † $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (2-tailed). N=178.

Figure 1
Interaction Effects of CEO Transformational Leadership and Executive Experience on Role Clarity
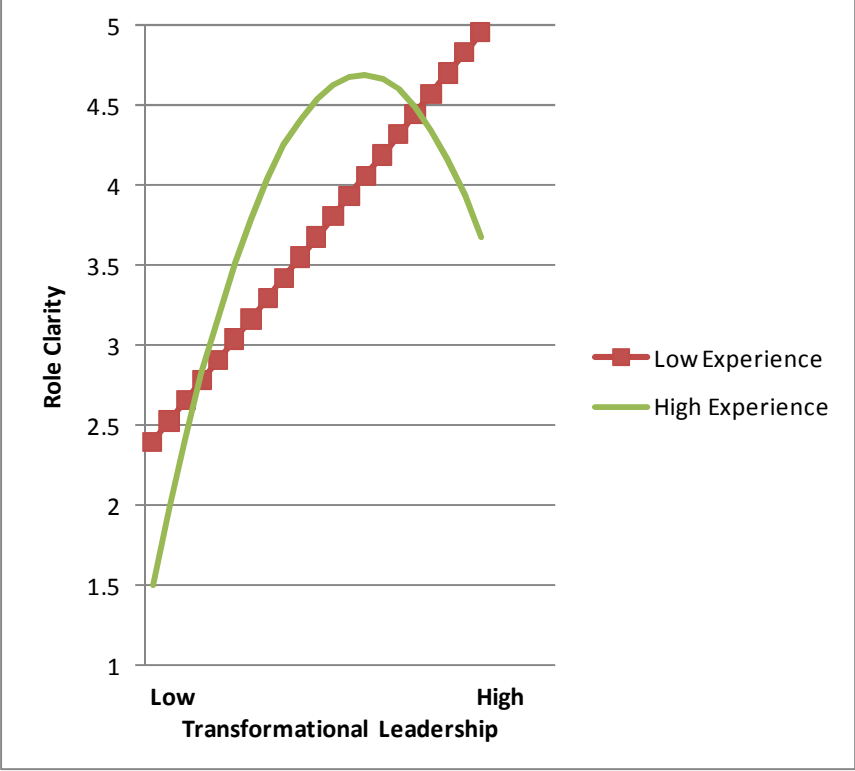
Figure 2
Interaction Effects of Supervisor Transformational Leadership and Subordinate Work Experience on Organizational Commitment