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TIINA M. HAUTALA

Personality and Transformational
Leadership

Perspectives of Subordinates and Leaders

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Reviewers

Professor Pauli Juuti
Lappeenranta University of Technology
Department of Business Administration
P.O. Box 20
FI-53851 Lappeenranta
Finland

Professor Hilmar Nordvik
Norwegian University of Science and Technology
Faculty of Social Science and Technology Management
Department of Psychology
N-7491 Trondheim
Norway

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ABSTRACT

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Personality and transformational leadership were studied with regard to subordinates' and leaders' opinions. The personality was studied with Myers–Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI). Transformational leadership was measured with a modified Finnish version of Kouzes and Posner's (1998) Leadership Practices Inventory. In order to widen and deepen the knowledge of this area, the study concentrated also on the impact of personality on subordinates' expectations of leaders and their experiences of development discussions.

The main question of this study was: Is there a connection between personality and transformational leadership? Five articles studied this question from different aspects. In the first article the subordinates' expectations of leaders were studied in order to have the background to the differences concerning transformational leadership. The next three articles concentrated on subordinates' and leaders' appraisals of leaders' transformational leadership behaviour. These appraisals were studied on different personality aspects and the impact of subordinates' personality on ratings was studied, as well. The fifth article deepens the knowledge of transformational leadership, concentrating on the concrete individual level of the leadership situation i.e. development discussions.

Overall, the results indicated that personality has influence on transformational leadership from the perspectives of subordinates and leaders. The subordinates' expectations of leaders by personality supported the MBTI–theory. In transformational leadership, the subordinates who were extraverted and/or feeling types tend to appraise their leaders more positively than their introverted and thinking counterparts. According to leaders themselves many significant differences occurred in their ratings. Extraverted, intuitive and perceiving types regarded themselves as more transformational than introverted, sensing and judging types. In case of the most common types of leaders (ESTJ, ISTJ, ENTJ, INTJ) ENTJ and ESTJ appraised themselves as more transformational than ISTJ and INTJ. In case of subordinates' ratings of their leaders, fewer significant results were found. The subordinates regarded sensing leaders as more transformational than intuitive leaders. With regard to development discussions some tendencies could be drawn from the results. These tendencies indicated that there are differences due to the personality on individual level also. From these results it could be seen that leaders themselves distinguish their transformational behaviour due to the personality more clearly than their subordinates.

Tiina M. Hautala, Department of Management, University of Vaasa, Wolffintie 34, FI–65200 Vaasa, Finland

Keywords: Transformational leadership, personality, MBTI, expectations of leaders, development discussions.

1 INTRODUCTION

Many people can easily recognize differences of the other people. Others' working ways can be totally different from one's own. Sometimes they are even annoying. Some subordinates can experience their leaders as very negative and others can experience the same leaders as the best they can ever imagine. Vice versa, the same thing is also true with leaders: some subordinates are regarded as better and some as worse. Some part of this mutual acceptance is due to the personality. Recognizing personality differences is much easier than understanding and accepting them. The focus of this study is to find out personality differences in the context of transformational leadership, in order to help understanding and accepting those differences and to enhance transformational leadership. Both subordinates' and leaders' personality aspects are taken into consideration.

Transformational leadership is one of the new areas of leadership theories. It has a firm position in leadership research due to its positive impact on various outcomes (e.g. Clover 1990; Deluga 1992; Masi & Cooke 2000; Medley & Larochelle 1995). It is suitable in the business life where competition demands ever-rising results and high commitment from their members. Good employees are crucial for the organization, and organization should offer more than only high salary or material rewards to get their commitment. The psychological rewards are even more crucial when the same kind of material rewards are easily offered by many companies. One reason for the good outcomes of transformational leadership is that it offers those psychological rewards in the manner of visioning, challenging, enabling, modeling, and rewarding.

According to Kouzes and Posner (1988), subordinates want leaders who are honest, competent, forward-looking and inspiring. These characteristics are well suited to the definitions of transformational leadership. However, individual differences should also be noted. As Ehrhart and Klein (2001) stated the charismatic leader who is "encouraging and energized" to one subordinate, for example, may be "arrogant and overbearing" to another. It should be noted that the transformational leaders have been found to be effective and motivating by their subordinates (e.g. Avolio & Howell 1992;

Hetland & Sandal 2003; Masi & Cooke 2000; Sparks & Schenk 2001) and thus there is something in transformational leaders that appeals to most of the subordinates. Therefore, transformational leaders can be better at recognizing human differences than other leaders. Indeed, it has been argued that a key component of transformational leadership is individually considerate behaviour (Avolio & Bass 1995). As Avolio & Bass (1995, p. 201) stated, "it would be difficult, if not impossible, to understand fully the transformation that takes place without understanding the role that individualized consideration plays in development at the individual, group and/or organizational level". To enhance leadership skills the differences between people should be considered more carefully.

Personality affects the leaders' preferred leadership tasks (Nordvik & Brovold 1998), leadership behaviour (e.g. Roush 1992; Roush & Atwater 1992) and occupational distribution (Järnlström 2002). Usually, personality has been studied by focusing on the personality of leaders, e.g. what is the personality of effective leaders, from leaders' own point of view or from subordinates' point of view (see e.g. review by Walck 1997). Recently, the focus only on the leaders' personalities has been widened further when concentration has been on subordinates' personality as well (see e.g. Allinson, Armstrong & Hayes 2001; Strauss, Barrick & Connerley 2001). Self-awareness in leadership is proven to be important (Hetland & Sandal 2003; Judge & Bono 2000; Roush 1992; Roush & Atwater 1992; Van Eron & Burke 1992), and both being transformational and having accurate self-perceptions can improve leader effectiveness (Roush & Atwater 1992). When considering personality and helping to enhance self-awareness, many possible instruments are available. These are for example the Five-Factor Model of personality (Big Five) and Cattell's Sixteen Personality Factors Questionnaire (PF16). In this study the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) is used, because it has been proven to be suitable in the study of organizations, leadership and management (see e.g. Berr, Church & Waclawski 2000; Bradley & Hebert 1997; Havaleschka 1999; Jessup 2002; Lindon 1995; McCarthy & Garavan 1999; Nordvik & Brovold 1998; Reynierse, Ackerman, Fink & Harker 2000), and because of its positive approach towards personality.

This study approaches the relationship between personality and transformational leadership firstly defining the questions, briefly introducing the theory and earlier studies in these areas and then presenting the research of the subject. The research concentrates on both leaders' and subordinates' personalities' impact on transformational leadership appraisals as well as personality's impact on subordinates' expectations of their leaders. The frame of this study is introduced in Figure 1.

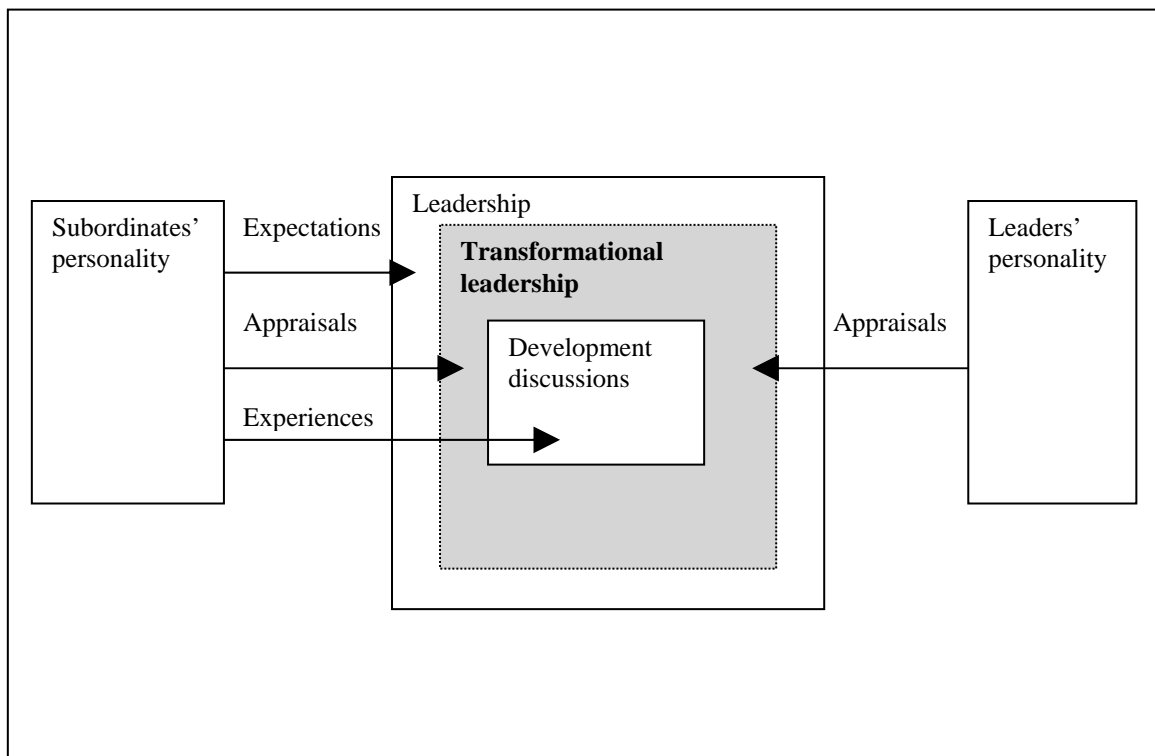


Figure 1. The frame of the study

1.1 Research question and objectives of the study

When concentrating mainly on transformational leadership, the main question of this study is:

- *Is there a connection between personality and transformational leadership?*

Secondary questions are:

- *Do the subordinates' personalities have an impact on their expectations regarding their leaders?*
- *Does the personality of subordinates impact on the ratings they give to their leaders of transformational leadership behaviour?*
- *Does the personality of leaders impact on their self-ratings of transformational leadership?*
- *Does the personality of leaders impact on received ratings from their subordinates of transformational leadership behaviour?*

The objective of this study is to answer those questions and suggest how the expectations of different personalities may explain the transformational leadership ratings. Additionally, one crucial objective is to find out how personality affects the experiences of development discussions. Further, the objective is to find new perspectives on these aspects and suggests development ideas on the basis of the results.

The five articles of this study focus on these questions related to the impact of personality on transformational leadership, from the subordinates' and leaders' points of view. The core of the study is transformational leadership, even if the study area goes behind this core in the first article when concentrating on the expectations of leaders of different personalities. The purpose is to see how "far" the personality influences and to offer a background from where to go forward. "Expectations of leaders" or the term "expectations" used in this study means the subordinates' wishes regarding their current leaders; how they would want their leaders to behave. The next three articles concentrate on the ratings of transformational leadership. The last article studies how the transformational leadership becomes concrete. The development discussions are one important leadership situation where the individual level interaction can be studied. It offers a different perspective from the other articles in this study when concentrating on individual level instead of organizational level. The focus of development discussions is in subordinate and his work, future and development possibilities (Allan 1990; Juuti 1998; Ukkonen 1989). In this study the development discussions can be described as:

Forehand planned discussion between leader and subordinate, having a certain goal and focusing on the work and development of subordinate.

1.2 Background theories of the study

In this Chapter, the leadership and personality theories are briefly described in order to recognize the context where the transformational leadership and Myers–Briggs personality theory belong. The subchapters describe the transformational leadership and Myers–Briggs theory more specifically concentrating on the earlier studies of them.

Leadership theories

The most used criteria of leadership have been defined by Stogdill (1974). According to him, leadership *firstly* dealt with the attributes of great leaders. These great leaders were those who possessed certain unique characteristics or traits making a distinction between leadership and non–leadership. This theory assumed that leaders were fundamentally different from followers. Hundreds of trait studies have been concluded since 1879. They concentrated on, for example, leaders' age, height, weight, appearance, intelligence, popularity, social skills and cooperation. The factors which were associated with leadership can be divided into general headings such as capacity, achievement, responsibility, participation and status. However, the trait approach acts accordingly as each trait acts as singly to determine leadership effects and, after these studies, the conclusion was that leaders were not fundamentally different from followers.

Secondly research concentrated on leaders behaviours, on what they do. These studies began to look at leaders in the context of organization. Leadership studies of the universities of Michigan and Ohio State took this approach. Both these studies identified two dimensions of leader behaviour. In the Ohio State leadership studies Hemphill with his associates listed 1800 leader behaviours in 1949. At the end, two

factors were formed: consideration and initiating structure. The consideration refers to how friendly and supportive a leader is toward subordinates. Initiating structure refers to how much a leader emphasizes meeting work goals and accomplishing the task. The University of Michigan studies focused on the impact on leaders' behaviours on the performance of small groups. Two types of leadership behaviours were termed as employee orientation and production orientation. The former is very similar to consideration and the latter to initiating structure when compared to the Ohio State studies. Even if the results of these studies were quite similar, there was difference in putting those qualities at the opposite ends of a single continuum (Michigan) or independent continuum (Ohio State) (Hugnes, Ginnett & Curphy 1996; Northouse 2001; Stogdill 1974).

Contingent theories (or situational leadership theories) represented the *third* approach to leadership. The contingency theory assumes that the effects of one variable on the leadership are contingent on other variables. One of the well-known, is Fiedler's contingency model from the year 1967, where the prediction is that task-oriented leaders are most effective when faced with highly unfavourable or highly favourable situations and relations-oriented leaders are at their best when situations are moderately favourable. Socio-independent leaders (midway between the task-oriented and relationship-oriented) are most effective in very favourable situations. Fiedler developed the Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) questionnaire in order to measure his theory. Also, House's path-goal theory, Reddin's 3-D theory and Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership theory are included in contingent theories. The path-goal theory assumes that effective leader help subordinates to achieve task goals and make their efforts satisfying and rewarding. For example, supportive leader increases the satisfaction of followers when the tasks are frustrating, stressful, or dissatisfying (Howell & Costley 2001; Northouse 2001). Reddin's 3-D theory consists of four basic styles of managerial behaviour, any one of which could be effective in certain situations and not in others (Reddin 1970).

According to Yukl (1994), transformational leadership, charismatic leadership, participative leadership, and leadership in a decision group do not fit in any of these

categories, whereas they cut across two or more approaches. The leadership research and theories depend heavily on the study of motivation and using motivational theories as support, e.g. transactional vs. transformational leadership theories have emerged. Transformational leadership is based on the process where the leader is aware of followers' needs and raises the level of motivation and moral of them as well as of him/herself. The transactional leadership process is more based on exchange: from work well done the follower will get some rewards. Transformational and charismatic leadership concepts are often mixed, due to the similar labels and in some parts meanings, as well. The distinction between these two are presented in Chapter 1.2.1. Participative leadership involves efforts by a manager to encourage and facilitate participation of followers in making decisions that would otherwise be made by the leader alone. Four main decision procedures can be found: 1) autocratic decision 2) consultation 3) joint decision 4) delegation. Leadership in decision-making groups emphasizes groups in decisions and problems, where the group gains more fruitful results compared to an individual. Leader behaviour in groups can be divided into task-oriented and relationship-oriented leadership. Among these new theories is also leader-member exchange (LMX), which was originally proposed by Graen and his colleagues. LMX concentrates on the interactions between leaders and followers and conceptualizes leadership as a process. The link between leader and follower can cause in-group or out-group relationships. (Northouse 2001; Yukl 1994).

In all these newer theories, the tendency is more towards subordinates, and towards more participative behaviour of leaders. The overlap of these theories can be seen in some parts. The strength of transformational leadership compared to others is wide research with positive results and strong theory.

Personality theories

“Personality can be defined as the distinctive and characteristic patterns of thought, emotion, and behaviour that define an individual’s personal style of interacting with the

physical and social environment” (Atkinson, Atkinson, Smith, Bem & Nolen–Hoeksama 1996: 421).

According to Atkinson et al. (1996), personality approaches can be divided into three approaches: psychoanalytic approach, behaviouristic approach and phenomenological approach. The first two approaches are based on the person’s motivational or reinforcement history when predicting behaviour. Some divide personality theories differently: e.g. Mischel (1986) adds the trait theory into this list, and Hjelle and Ziegler (1985) divide these theories more specifically into psychoanalytic, individual psychology theory of personality, psychosocial theory, need theory, behaviouristic–learning theory, social–learning theory, trait theory, cognitive theory, humanistic theory and phenomenological theory. In this Chapter the grouping of these theories are mainly based on Atkinson et al. (1996).

Freud was the creator of the psychoanalytic approach. The result of this approach was personality structure, which divided personality into the id, the ego and the superego. Freud gave importance to the unconscious in everyday life. Psychoanalyst Jung had humanistic views of motivation that distinguished him from Freud (Atkinson et al. 1996; McKenna 2000). Jung’s analytical psychology can be seen as a subgroup of psychodynamic approaches (Leahey 1987). Some describe the approach of Jung, as well as Fromm, Erikson and Adler, as a neo–Freudian psychoanalytic approach (e.g. Mischel 1986). Jung retained Freud’s unconscious processes, but claims a collective unconscious as an inherited foundation of personality (archetypes or primordial images) (Mischel 1986).

The behaviouristic approach emphasizes the importance of environmental, or situational determinants of behaviour; persons and situations influence each other reciprocally. The environment affects individuals and individuals affect environment. Behaviouristic theory emphasizes learning in this interaction process and each individual’s personal characteristics have effects on this process. An individual’s behaviour is not interpreted as signs of e.g. person’s motives and traits, but as generally trying to sample the relevant behaviour directly. Lately the social learning, or social cognitive approaches

are used as the definition of behaviouristic approach (Atkinson et al. 1996; Mischel 1986).

The phenomenological approach focuses on the individual's subjective experience. This means that the focus is on how the individual perceives and interprets events in the current environment. These approaches emphasize people's immediate experiences and their current relationship, perceptions, and encounters. Instead of label phenomenological theory, some use terms like construct, humanistic, cognitive or existential theories. The most central sub-approach is humanistic psychology, which is a commonly used term when describing the phenomenological or the humanistic approach itself (Atkinson et al. 1996; Mischel 1986).

Personality psychology describes the individual differences, and the trait approach is the most common approach to this. E.g. Atkinson et al. (1996) do not see the trait approach as the theory of personality but as a general orientation and set of methods for assessing stable characteristics of individuals. However, many others define it as one theory of personality (e.g. Hjern & Ziegler 1995; Mischel 1996). Trait theorists use trait to account for consistencies in a person's behaviour and to explain different ways of responding to the same stimulus. The trait approach has given rise to criticism because of its lack of dynamic when studying and describing personality (Atkinson et al. 1996; Mischel 1986).

The Myers theory is based on Jung's (1921/1990) work of psychological types and it is not based on traits, instead it is based on a dynamic theory of personality. Briggs and Myers further continued Jung's work when developing the personality types theory and adding a fourth dichotomy to Jung's three dichotomies. Also, they developed the measurement of the theory, which is called Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. The four-letter shortening "MBTI" is used to refer both to the Myers theory, and to the indicator.

From the postmodern standpoint, the social constructionism defines the social world, including human beings, as a product of a social process. This means that personality does not exist inside the person, but it rather exists between human beings. Thus the

personality exists in the relationship between people and the identities are constructed during the interactions. For example, a person can behave in a certain way with certain people, but this behaviour changes when this person meets some other people (e.g. Burr 1995; Harman 2003).

1.2.1 Transformational leadership

Burns' idea was based on the thought that transforming leadership raises both leaders' and followers' level of motivation and moral. Followers are elevated in motivation and moral, and become more active themselves. Originally Burns (1978) defined leadership as transformational and transactional when he approached these definitions in political settings. He examined political leaders, who had affect on the huge masses of people.

Transactional leaders pursue a cost–benefit, economic exchange to meet subordinates' current material and psychic needs in return for “contracted” services rendered by the subordinate. It focuses on the current need of the followers (Bass 1985). As stated by Bass (1985), the transformational leaders also recognize these existing needs in potential followers but go further by seeking to arouse and satisfy higher needs, to engage the full person of the follower. Transformational leader transfer followers above of followers' own self–interest for the good of the group, organization, or country. Increased awareness and the arousal of higher–level needs of Maslow's hierarchy can produce extraordinary effort (Bass 1985).

According to Burns (1978) and Bass (1985), the transformation can be achieved in any one of three interrelated ways: 1) By raising the level of consciousness about the importance and value of outcomes, and ways of reaching them. 2) By getting to transcend self–interest for the sake of the team, organization, or larger polity. 3) By altering the need level on Maslow's (or Alderfer's) hierarchy or expanding the portfolio on needs and wants (Bass 1985).

Originally, Bass and Burns differed in three ways in their definitions of transformational leadership. To these three interrelated ways Bass has added one to the Burns versions: expanding portfolio on needs and wants. Secondly, Burns did not regard negative transformation as transformational leadership (e.g. leaders like Hitler) whereas Bass firstly regarded the transformation as transformational whether it has good or bad impact on the people, organization or country. Later Bass has changed his mind, and called the negative transformation, e.g. deceptive and manipulative leaders, pseudo-transformational leaders (Bass & Steidlmeier 1999). According to Bass and Steidlmeier (1999), authentic transformational leaders may have to be manipulative at times for what they judge to be the common good, but manipulation is a frequent practice of pseudo-transformational leaders. A third difference is in the definitions of transactional leadership. Burns saw transactional leadership as opposite to transformational leadership, whereas according to Bass (1985) a leader uses both transformational and transactional leadership style, even if transactional and transformational dimensions are separate. This is supported by Waldman, Bass and Einstein (1987) when they demonstrated empirically, that although transactional leaders do not display transformational leadership behaviours, a substantial percentage of transformational leaders manifest both transformational and transactional leadership behaviours. In the multiple prediction of effectiveness, transformational leadership was expected and found to augment transactional leadership.

Transformational and charismatic leadership concepts are often mixed. This is partly due to Bass's (1985) early definitions where charisma is one of the components of transformational leadership. Lately Bass with Avolio defined the charismatic component of transformational leadership as idealized influence to better describe its' meaning and to clear up the confusion (see e.g. Bass 1999). Burns (1978) never associated the concepts of transformation and charisma, but some researchers use charismatic and transformational leadership as meaning the same (see e.g. Conger & Kanungo 1988). From the transformational leadership's point of view, the difference between these concepts is that a charismatic person who is a transformational leader can be distinguished from the charismatic person who is not. Additionally, transformational leaders' purpose is to raise the motivational level of followers, when charismatic

leaders' purpose is to tie followers' self-concepts to the goals and experiences associated with their missions (Bass 1985). From the charismatic leadership's point of view the difference between Bass's transformational leadership model and Conger/Kanungo's charismatic leadership model is that the latter stresses perceptions of the leaders' extraordinary qualities and Bass's model emphasizes leaders' ability to make task and mission outcomes highly appealing to followers; the goal can be as influential as the leader (Conger 1999).

Several researchers have studied and defined transformational leadership (Bass 1985; Bennis & Nanus 1985; Kouzes & Posner 1988; Tichy & Devanna 1990), and operationalized the concept (e.g. Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe 2001; Bass & Avolio 1990; Kouzes & Posner 1988; Roush 1992). Some of those do not distinct transformational and transactional leadership, they are only concentrated on effective leaders i.e transformational leaders (Bennis & Nanus 1985; Kouzes & Posner 1988; Tichy & Devanna 1990). Also, in this study the main focus is only on the transformational leadership.

The most frequent definitions of transformational leadership are: visioning (Bass 1985; Bennis & Nanus 1985; Kouzes & Posner 1988; Tichy & DeVanna 1986), enabling (Bennis & Nanus 1985; Kouzes & Posner 1988; Tichy & DeVanna 1986) and being an example and role model (Bass 1985; Kouzes & Posner 1988). Additionally, there are definitions of inspirational leader behaviour (Bass 1985), encouraging (Kouzes & Posner 1988) and individualized consideration (Bass 1985). Depending on the definitions, some of these can be included into these first three most frequent definitions, i.e. Bass's individualized consideration is quite much same as Kouzes and Posner's enabling behaviour. Visioning means communicating appealing vision, which gives the purpose to the organization's members to work. Being an example means that a leader's behaviour is consistent with values, which the leader communicates to others. Enabling or individual consideration is defined as providing support, encouragement and developmental experiences to followers. It focuses on the follower's needs for growth and participation in decisions affecting his work and career. The transformational leadership in this study is accordingly defined in the terms: Visioning,

Challenging, Enabling, Modeling and Rewarding, in purpose to raise the followers' and leaders' motivational level from individual level to the common goal.

Overall, the transformational leadership provides deeper aspects on leadership than previous theories, for example contingency (situational) theory. The situational leader acts according to the situation and maturity level of the subordinate, having short-run effect, whereas the transformational leader influences the subordinates' deeper needs and has long-run effects. Roughly comparing, the situational leadership theory is quite near to the transactional leadership model, where the rewards and punishments are the motivators for the right kind of behaviour. In situational leadership the leader's behaviour is the tool to reward or punish. Transformational leadership has deeper and wider impacts. Even if the transformational leader takes into account the situation and the maturity level of the subordinate, he or she sees the individual differences and potential of each subordinate, and using this information, the leader will motivate subordinates. As a result a more sustainable commitment and stronger effort have been gained. The potential to be abused has been mentioned as a limitation of transformational leadership (e.g. Northouse, 2000). That means that some leaders may try to lead their followers in ethically wrong direction. The past shows these examples: among the worst was Hitler. However, the informed knowledge to the subordinates of this kind of pseudo-transformational leaders may result in the avoidance and rejection of this kind of leaders. One point of what could merit more studying is the transformational leadership's relation to morality. The basic definitions of transformational leadership include the values and the raising of the level of morality:

“In the progression of both leaders and followers through stages of needs, values, and morality, leaders find a broadening and deepening base from which they can reach out to widening social collectivities to establish and embrace “higher” values and principles. This broader, more principled kind of leadership—the kind of leadership that tends to be visible, formal, and legitimate—is usually expressed at the higher stages of moral development.” (Burns 1978: 429)

More studies of morality and values would be needed to confirm this kind of definitions of transformational leaders in organizations today. The increased outcomes may be due to the raise of motivation not the more developed morality and values.

Research areas of transformational leadership

In this subchapter, the transformational leadership is divided into four research areas, which are: transformational leadership's impact on organizations, qualities of transformational leaders, transformational leaders' impact on followers and training for transformational leadership (see Table 1). Also, some of the possible measurements of transformational leadership are presented.

Many positive *impacts on organization* due to transformational leadership have been gained. Research has indicated that higher effectiveness and outcomes are due to transformational leadership (Avolio & Howell 1992; Arnold, Barling & Kelloway 2001; Bass, Jung, Avolio & Berson 2003; Hetland & Sandal 2003; Yammarino & Bass 1990; Wofford et al. 1998; Wofford, Whittington & Goodwin 2001). For example Wofford et al. (2001) found out that transformational leadership directly relates to effectiveness outcomes based on the followers' appraisals.

A few contradictory findings to these positive outcomes of transformational leadership are found as well, for example, Curphy's study (1992) in the United States Air Force Academy indicated that neither transformational nor transactional leadership was related to organizational turnover. Furthermore, Jung and Avolio (2000) found that transformational leadership has a positive effect on performance quality, while having a strong negative effect on quantity.

Transformational leaders tend to be more emotionally intelligent (e.g Barling, Slater & Kelloway 2000; Duckett & Macfarlane 2003; Mandell & Pherwani 2003; Palmer, Walls, Burgess & Stough 2000) and valuing more collective welfare than personal welfare (Krishnan 2001) when compared to the transactional or non-transformational

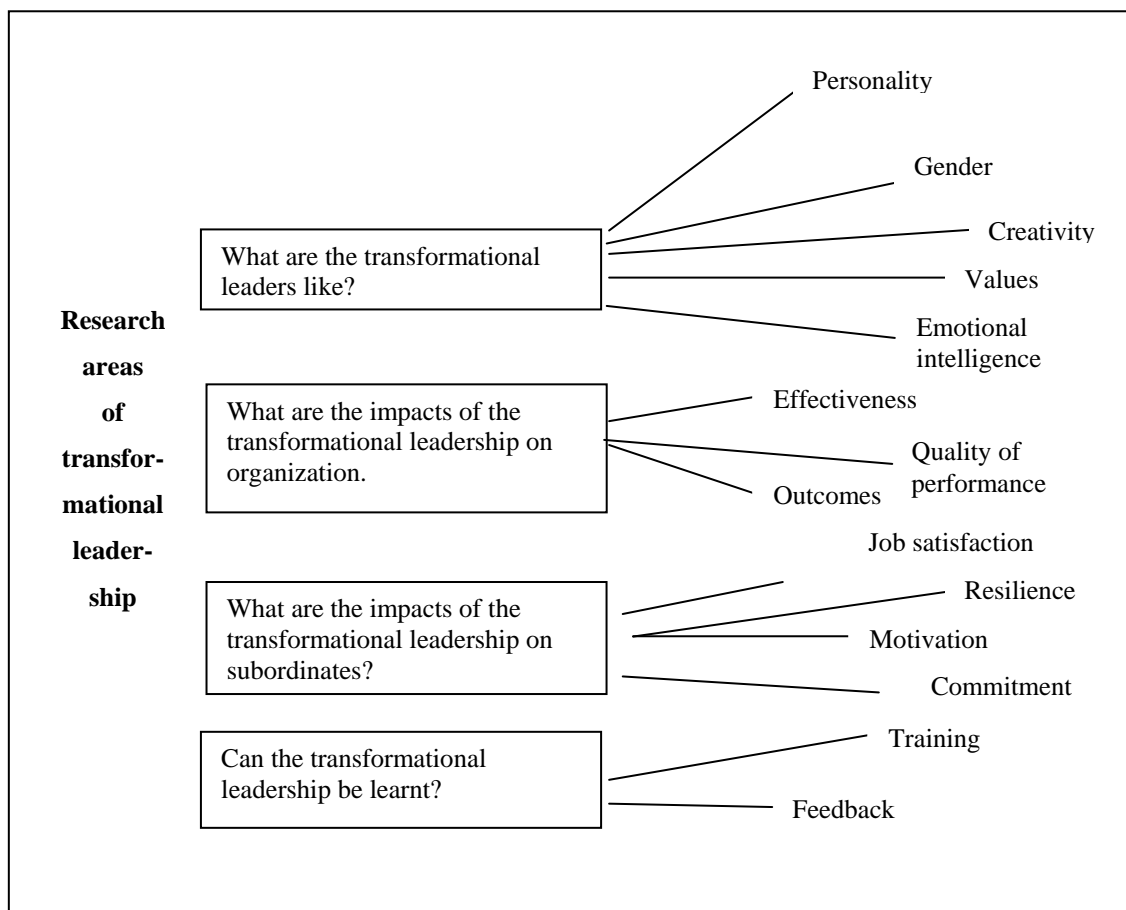
leaders. Top managers are more likely to rate themselves as more transformational than middle managers (Manning 2002). In case of gender, some studies find females more transformational than males (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe 2001; Burke & Collins 2001), and some studies do not find a difference (Mandell & Pherwarni 2003; Manning 2002; Van Engen, Van Der Leeden & Willemsen 2001). Transformational leaders have a tendency to use rational persuasion and inspirational appeals (Charbonneau 2004) and they have secure attachment style (Popper, Mayseless & Castelnovo 2000). They are more active as versatile learners (Brown & Posner 2001). Transformational leaders are perceived by their subordinates as more effective than other leaders (Tucker et al. 1992). It might be due from the results of these positive qualities that they receive better performance evaluations and are more likely to be recommended for early promotion than the less transformational leaders (Yammarino & Bass 1990). In ethical perspective the positive relationship between perceived integrity and the demonstration of transformational leadership behaviour was found. This integrity means commitment in action to a morally justifiable way (Parry & Proctor-Thomson 2002). Personality of transformational leaders is discussed at the Chapter 1.2.3.

The studies of *effects of transformational leadership on the subordinates* have shown their higher job satisfaction (Avolio & Howell 1992; Deluga 1995; Medley & Larochelle 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter 1995; Sparks & Schenk 2001; Tucker et al. 1992; Yammarino & Bass 1990), motivation (Hetland & Sandal 2003; Masi & Cooke 2000), extra effort (Tucker et al. 1992), trust (Arnold et al. 2001), unit cohesion (Sparks & Schenk 2001), higher purposes in their work (Sparks & Schenk 2001), resilience (Harland, Harrison, Jones & Reiter-Palmon, 2005) and commitment (Lowe & Barnes 2002) than transactional leadership or non-transformational leadership. For example, Masi and Cooke (2000) found positive relationship between individual motivation and company commander transformational leadership style and a negligible negative relationship between motivation and transactional leadership style. Further, in case of commitment, a positive but not significant relationship was found between individual recruiter's commitment to quality and company commander transformational leadership style and a significant negative relationship between

recruiter commitment and transactional leadership. Interesting is that having a transformational leader instead of a transactional leader, the participants are having a greater number of unique ideas and more creative ideas (Jung 2000–2001). Followers of transformational leaders view their work as more important and as more self-congruent compared to other leaders' followers (Bono & Judge 2003). Followers' upward influence strategy is friendliness or reasoning when the leader is transformational. This influence strategy was significantly negatively related to higher authority under transformational circumstances. Transformational leadership was significantly positively related to perceived value system congruence between leader and follower (Krishnan 2004). Also less positive results are found. Deluga's results (1995) were partially confusing, when results indicated that transactional leadership promotes more influencing activity between managers and employees than transformational leadership. However, transformational leadership was found to be more closely associated with leader effectiveness and employee satisfaction than transactional leadership.

The *effects of training* have been noted to be efficient (Kelloway, Barling & Helleur 2000; Sashkin, Rosenbach, Deal & Peterson 1992). For example, Kelloway et al. (2000) studied four groups of leaders: one control group (no training – no feedback), one group who received transformational leadership training, one group receiving feedback from their transformational behaviour and a fourth group receiving both training and feedback. They found out that leaders who participated in the training were rated by subordinates as displaying more transformational leadership than those who did not participate. Also feedback was effective when changing leadership behaviours. However, surprisingly, a combination of training and feedback did not enhance the transformational leadership higher than training or feedback alone.

Table 1. Four research areas of transformational leadership and the examples of what they include



Several instruments are developed to measure transformational leadership. These are e.g. the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, MLQ by Bass & Avolio (1990), the Leader Behaviour Questionnaire, LBQ by Sashkin, 1990 and Sashkin and Fulmer, 1985 (see e.g. Sashkin et al. 1992), the Leader Description Questionnaire, LDQ by Clover & Rosenbach, 1986 (see e.g. Sashkin et al. 1992), the Leadership Report, LR by Burke 1988 (see e.g. Sashkin & Burke 1990), the Leadership Feedback Questionnaire, LFQ by Roush (1992), the Transformational Leadership Questionnaire, TLQ–LGV (Local Government Version) by Alban–Metcalf and Alimo Metcalfe (2000), and the Leadership Practices Inventory, LPI by Kouzes & Posner (1988). Some of the instruments measure both transformational and transactional leadership (e.g. Bass & Avolio 1990) and some focus only on transformational leadership (e.g. Kouzes & Posner

1988). Furthermore, some researchers have made their own questionnaires based on the earlier theory and literature of transformational leadership (Carless, Wearing & Mann 2000; Kent, Crotts & Azziz 2001; Leithwood & Jantzi 1997; Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer 1996).

The measurements of transformational leadership have drawn criticism as well. For example, the factor structure of the MLQ has been studied by many and most of them indicate that it should be different than it is now (Bass 1999; Bycio, Hackett & Allen 1995; Den Hartog, Van Muijen & Koopman 1997; Hetland & Sandal 2003; Hinkin & Tracey 1999; Yammarino & Splangler 1998). Additionally, the discussion has been concentrated on a contingent reward dimension of the transactional leadership, because in many cases it seems to be loaded in the transformational leadership. That is why some measurements include it in transformational instead of transactional leadership (e.g. Wofford et al. 1998).

Carless (1998; 2001) has tested the criterion-related validity of the MLQ of Bass and Kouzes and Posner's LPI. She found that they both assess a single higher order construct of transformational leadership and that they do not measure distinct transformational leader behaviours. Furthermore, factors of transformational leadership tend to be highly correlated, and thus it should be thought of as the high-order construct formed of these sub-factors (Avolio & Bass 1995: 203). However, as Kelloway and Barling (2000) stated "Although several authors have identified difficulties in the measurement of transformational leadership, there has been substantial empirical support for the effects of transformational leadership on both productivity and morale-related outcomes".

1.2.2 Myers theory

"The Jung / Myers theory of psychological types is a way of describing and explaining certain consistent differences in the ways that normal people use their minds" (Quenk 1999). The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) is seen to differ from many other

personality instruments, because it is designed to implement a theory, which is based on classic Jungian theory. The theory postulates dichotomies; therefore some of the psychometric properties are unusual; it measures types rather than traits or continuous variables; and it is used to explain the behaviour of a wide range of individuals; not just professionals or managers (Myers et al., 1998).

Jung firstly found out attitude preferences – extraversion and introversion, but later he added mental dimensions: sensing–intuition and thinking–feeling to his category of psychological types. Myers and Briggs added later the attitude dimension: judging–perceiving (Jung 1921/1990; Myers & Myers 1990). The four dimensions of the MBTI display the direction of energy and attention (extraversion–introversion), the way of perception of information (sensing–intuition), decision–making (thinking–feeling) and lifestyle (judging–perceiving). These dimensions can also be called dichotomies, but mainly the first definition is used in this study.

A person uses one of the dimensions preferences better than others and from these better–used four preferences results a personality type; e.g. ISTP: introverted–sensing–thinking–perceiving. In this study the main focus is on preferences, even if one article concentrates on cognitive styles and another on personality types. Cognitive style is formed from mental dimensions of sensing–intuition and thinking–feeling (e.g. ST: sensing–thinking, NF: intuition–feeling). In this study, the word type refers to the whole type (e.g. ISTP) or types, which share the same preference (e.g. judging types).

The order of preferences gives the depth of the MBTI. The last dimension (judging–perceiving) indicates the preference which will be shown to others and which will be dominant with extraverts and auxiliary with introverts. Judging is related to the decision–making (thinking–feeling), and perceiving is related to perception of information (sensing–intuition) preferences. Dominant and auxiliary functions are best developed meaning that these preferences a person uses most easily (especially the dominant one). In contrast, an inferior function is used least well, and the person cannot use it properly. Inferior function is the preference pair of dominant function (Myers, McCaulley, Quenk & Hammer 1998).

Eight preferences and challenges that may arise:

The eight preferences (extraversion–introversion, sensing–intuition, thinking–feeling and judging–perceiving) are briefly presented here (see Table 2). Also the challenges may arise when different personalities interact. Different personality types do not necessarily understand or like other personality types' way of doing things or behaving. Different working and interaction styles give rise to problems easily. Counterparts of personality (extraversion vs. introversion, thinking vs. feeling etc.) can easily cause irritation to each other only due to unawareness of these differences. Atmosphere of the organization, as well as work satisfaction, are affected especially by leader–subordinate relationship, thus personality differences should be at least recognized.

Extraversion (E) – introversion (I). Extraverted people direct energy mainly toward the outer world of people and objects. They are energized by interaction and activity. At work, extraverted people try to reach understanding through interaction and discussion. They are willing to engage and involve others and are energetic and prone to take action. Extraverted types seek and give feedback. Introverted people direct energy mainly toward the inner world of experiences and ideas. They are energized by reflection and solitude. At work, introverted types experience people who "stop by" as interruptions and they prefer physical space, which allows for privacy and concentration. They seem less engaged, even when around others (Demarest 1997; Myers et al. 1998). Extraverted people can be seen easily as too overwhelming with their energy and enthusiasm. Too many extraverts in groups or teams can result in confusion because they interrupt each other to express their views (Bradley & Hebert 1997; Demarest 1997). On the contrary, introverted people may be seen as too quiet, stable, thoughtful, deep, and sometimes as disinterested, less active than others and not naturally sharing much information (Demarest 1997).

Sensing (S) – intuition (N). Sensing people focus mainly on what can be perceived by the five senses. They are by naturally interested in concrete and verifiable information about what is or what has been. Sensing people prefer to work at steady pace, and complete instructions indicating both the end result and the specifics about how to get there. They like to work with one thing at time. In teams, they tend to want clear

purposes and goals. Intuitive people focus mainly on perceiving patterns and interrelationships. They tend to be naturally interested in flashes of insight, abstractions, theory, and notions of what could be. Intuitive people prefer to work in bursts and wait for inspiration. They prefer general instructions and may work on several things at the same time. In groups and teams they want to have an engaging vision and mission (Demarest 1997; Myers et al. 1998). Sensing types may be experienced as too much down-to-earth, meticulous, reminding others of what is practical and realistic, and sometimes not giving much attention to the long-range view, paying too much attention to details and not wanting to try something new. Whereas intuitives may be experienced as too full of ideas, rising to a challenge, looking to the future, seeing connections among seemingly unrelated things, and sometimes as overlooking the facts and making proposals that seem impossible to carry out (Demarest 1997).

Thinking (T) – feeling (F). Thinking people tend to base their conclusions on logical analysis with a focus on objectivity and detachment. They prefer to focus on the work at hand, and do not spend much time on getting to know others and building relationships. They have interaction that is often brief and to the point. They are also often critical of ideas and proposals, and often make suggestions for "how to improve" things. Feeling people tend to base their conclusions on personal or social values with a focus on understanding and harmony. At work, they often want to spend time getting to know others. They have interactions that encompass both work and non-work matters. They are naturally appreciative of people's contributions (Demarest 1997; Myers et al. 1998). Thinking types may be experienced as independent thinkers, task-oriented, sceptical, analytical and sometimes as making suggestions for improvements that are experienced as criticism by others. On the contrary, others may see feeling types as too people-oriented, affirming, and sometimes as not making the "hard" decisions, giving too much attention to relationships, taking things personally when they were not intended to be and not being logical (Demarest 1997). According to Kroeger and Thuesen (1992) the difference between thinkers and feelers can cause major problems in organizations, because thinking types are mostly concerned with accomplishing the task, while feeling types are concerned with how well people work together.

Judging (J) – perceiving (P). Judging people prefer decisiveness and closure. They like to live in an orderly and structured fashion. As a working style, judging types tend to be methodical and systematic, and often develop routine approaches to work. They like to finish things, bring a structure to the work at hand and see the work and play as distinct aspects of life. Perceiving (P) people prefer flexibility and spontaneity. They like to live with options open as long as possible in an unstructured way. Perceiving people tend to be adaptable and often device flexible or innovative approaches to work. They like to start things, but motivation and interest may decline when it is time to finish. They see work and play as combined aspects of life, and want that work is both productive and enjoyable (Demarest 1997; Myers et al. 1998). Judging types may be experienced as dependable, deliberate, conclusive, focused, and sometimes as taking things too seriously, deciding too quickly, demanding, and being so focused on goals they have set that they miss out on other things. However, perceiving people may be experienced as too spontaneous, open to new experiences, fun loving, and sometimes as having difficulty deciding, tentative and less organized than others (Demarest 1997).

Overall, these personality differences can cause many misunderstandings, which further may cause considerable problems. However, each type has something positive to contribute, and a large degree of psychological homogeneity will cause problems as well (Bradley & Hebert 1997). According to Kroeger and Thuesen (1992) diversity of psychological types results in successful group performance. Furthermore, a group of different personality types may take longer to accomplish a task, but the end result will always be better than that of a homogeneous group.

Table 2. The four dichotomies of the MBTI (Myers et al. 1998: 6)

Extraversion–Introversion Dichotomy (Attitudes of orientations of energy)	
Extraversion (E) Directing energy mainly toward the outer world of people and objects	Introversion (I) Directing energy mainly toward the inner world of experiences and ideas
Sensing–Intuition Dichotomy (Functions or processes of perception)	
Sensing (S) Focusing mainly on what can be perceived by the five senses	Intuition (N) Focusing mainly on perceiving patterns and interrelationships
Thinking–Feeling Dichotomy (Functions or processes of judging)	
Thinking (T) Basing conclusions on logical analysis with a focus on objectivity and detachment	Feeling (F) Basing conclusions on personal or social values with a focus on understanding and harmony
Judging–Perceiving Dichotomy (Attitudes or orientations toward dealing with the outside world)	
Judging (J) Preferring the decisiveness and closure that result from dealing with the outer world using one of the Judging processes (Thinking or Feeling)	Perceiving (P) Preferring the flexibility and spontaneity that results from dealing with the outer world using one of the Perceiving processes (Sensing or Intuition)

Research areas of Myers–Briggs Type Indicator

The MBTI is one of the most widely used instruments in human resource development; approximately two million people fill out the MBTI annually (Quenk 1999; Van Velsor & Fleenor 1994). According to Walck (1992) there are two streams of research on the MBTI with the area of management. The first stream focuses on populations of managers and the second stream focuses on the identification of skills, capacities, and behaviours associated with management and leadership and tests predictions about how they relate to type. The first stream can be described as descriptive and the latter as predictive. The current study is predictive by its research stream, because it identifies

the transformational leadership behaviour of leaders and managers of different personalities.

The MBTI is often used in leadership development programmes and the research relating to organizational settings, e.g. managerial and leadership behaviours (Berr et al. 2000; Krumwiede, Sheu & Lavelle, 1998; Lindon 1995; McCarthy & Garavan 1999; Nordvik & Brovold 1998; Roush 1992; Roush & Atwater 1992; Routamaa & Ponto 1994; Sundström & Busby 1997; Van Eron & Burke 1992), managerial distribution (Osborn & Osborn 1990; Reynierse 1993), occupational expectations (Honkonen & Routamaa 1996; Järlestöm 2000), strategic decisions (Gallén 1997) organizational change (Jessup 2002; Routamaa & Honkonen 1996) and managerial career development (McCarthy & Caravan 1999). Also, it is a generally accepted tool for example in industry to analyze personality types (Krumwiede et al. 1998) and nowadays interest in organization culture and MBTI has raised interest as well (e.g. Stavrou, Kleanthous & Anastasiou 2005).

According McCrae and Costa (1989), the MBTI measures aspects of the five dimensions of the five-factor model of personality (FFM) except for neuroticism. Extraversion was naturally correlated with Extroversion, Intuition with Openness, Feeling with Agreeableness and Judging with Conscientiousness. Also Furnham (1996) found clear overlap between Big Five and MBTI. In case of Neuroticism mixed results appeared. Neuroticism was correlated with a variety of MBTI dimensions and somewhat inconsistently. Further, as Bayne (2005) states, Neuroticism is the missing characteristic in MBTI theory, or at least from the MBTI questionnaire, due to the more positive approach of MBTI. Bayne (2005) stresses how striking it is that such a strong relationship in general was found between MBTI and Big Five, even if these two questionnaires were developed in very different traditions.

Concerning critics, they are mainly focused with dichotomous scoring, forced-choice response format, and differential gender weighting (see e.g. Vacha-Haase & Thompson 2002). Some critics have concerned about easy manipulation of MBTI (Zemke 1992). Furnham (1990) has studied manipulation of personality instruments. He asked

respondents to complete four personality tests either honestly or in order to present themselves as ideal candidates for one of the three jobs. He found that the respondents were not only able to alter their test profiles, but were also able to produce different profiles in each of the fake-job conditions. Thus, it is very common that personality instruments can be manipulated. In case of manipulation of the MBTI-questionnaire, the meaning of MBTI is to support persons. There is no use for wrong results for the person him/herself. When knowing well the basic idea of the MBTI, it is fairly easy to fill out a certain type. When it is used in e.g. recruiting the respondent can practically fill out the questionnaire so that the “suitable” type will come out. That may be one reason why the MBTI is not recommended for recruiting, and the other one is that the idea behind it assumes that every type can work in every field regardless of suitability based on the personality type.

1.2.3 Earlier studies concerning transformational leadership and personality

In this Chapter the studies related to expectations to leaders/leadership and the relation of personality to transformational leadership are presented.

The transformational leaders have succeeded in getting the best out of most of the individuals they are leading. Thus they have more skills to get better outcomes with the same people than transactional leaders. Subordinates who evaluate leaders as transformational are highly committed (Humpreys, Weyant & Sprague 2003) and they have high growth need and high needs of autonomy (Wofford 2001). Also the subordinates of transformational leaders have higher frequency of information seeking (Madzar 2001).

Also subordinates' behaviour influences the leadership process. Madzar's (2001) study indicated that subordinates with lower Organization-Based Self-Esteem (OBSE) will take advantage of the developmental support they receive from a transformational leader, while subordinates with higher OBSE may be less influenced by the quality of their relationship with the leader and will not seek to take the same advantage. It should

be noted that this suggestion refers only to individuals with a very low level of OBSE and there were very few such individuals within this sample. However, the results of this study give support to the idea that the transformational leaders recognize individuals who need the support and are able to offer it to those people and additionally give freedom to others. Ehrhart and Klein's (2001) study concentrated on the point of what kinds of followers are most likely to form charismatic relationships with their leaders. Their results indicated that approximately 50% of the respondents selected the relationship-oriented leader as the leader for whom they would most like to work. Secondly, about 30% chose the charismatic leader, and 20% chose the task-oriented leader. The followers who had strong worker participation values were most likely to be drawn to charismatic leaders. Furthermore, the individuals low in security value were also drawn to those leaders. Followers who valued the extrinsic rewards of work were drawn to relationship-oriented leaders. Finally, the individuals with the strong security values were particularly attracted to task-oriented leaders.

Only few studies have concentrated on the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and subordinates' expectations of leadership (what kind of leadership they would like to have). In regarding this view only one study could be found and it was made with a sample of students of counseling psychology, clinical psychology and counselor education (Swanson & O'Saben 1993). In this study the focus was MBTI's relation to trainees' expectations of their supervisors. According to the results, benign support (=supervision that provided tangible intervention in crises and excluded personal issues) was wanted by sensing types, behavioural monitoring (=direct supervision in sessions) by extraverted and intuitive trainees, respectful confrontation (=gentle confrontation) by introverted and intuitive types and finally, reciprocal confrontation (=supervisors who are willing to struggle and argue with the trainee, as well as confrontation directed at more personal aspects of the trainee's behaviour) by thinking and perceiving trainees.

For example, Tsuzuki and Tamao (1998) have indicated that, depending on the supervisory behaviour followers' personality type affects the satisfaction of the work. According to them a high-structure leadership style is likely to enhance satisfaction at work for judging subordinates, but to diminish satisfaction at work for perceiving

subordinates. Authors argue that judging managers need to learn how to provide a comfortable work environment that enables their perceiving subordinates to enjoy and express their natural strengths, i.e., flexibility and creativeness. Judging managers must guard against their natural inclination to come to a quick conclusion, and develop good communication with their perceiving subordinates.

As a conclusion of these results it can be noted that there are differences among subordinates' expectations of what would be the best suitable leadership style to them. The subordinates' personality seems to influence both the expectations of leadership and the whole leadership process. It may be that transactional leadership can be even more suitable than transformational leadership to some subordinates. Thus, Bass' argument that transformational leaders are good at using transactional leadership also, may be the reason for transformational leaders' success.

Characteristics and personality of transformational leaders

In general, transformational leaders rate themselves high on purpose-in-life, personal efficacy, interpersonal control, and social self-confidence, while subordinates rate transformational leaders as high on interpersonal control (Sosik & Megerian 1999). Bass and Yammarino (1989) found that leaders who were rated by followers as more transformational had perceptions of themselves that were closer to the perceptions their followers had of them. Those who were less transformational had greater differences between self- and follower ratings.

With regard to transformational leadership behaviour and personality, this area has come to attention again since the 90's. In addition to MBTI, for example 16PF (Cattell, 16 personality factors) and FFM (five-factor model of personality) have been used to measure this area. Concerning the five-factor model (FFM) of personality, results have indicated that extroversion (Bono & Judge 2004; Judge & Bono 2000; Ployhart et al. 2001), agreeableness (Judge & Bono 2000) and openness (Ployhart, Lima & Chan 2001) were correlated with transformational leadership. In these studies the raters were

subordinates (Judge & Bono 2000) and trained assessors (Ployhart et al. 2001). In the case of 16PF, the conformity was predictive of transformational behaviour when superiors rated participants. However, in the case of subordinates, intelligence was connected with transformational leadership (Atwater & Yammarino 1993). Hetland and Sandal (2003) studied four scales of 16PF (warmth, reasoning, openness to change and tension) finding warmth as the strongest personality correlate. A significant negative relationship occurred between tension and transformational leadership. Also, all those four scales explained significantly but modestly the variance of transformational leadership, according to subordinates. Further, according to superiors, the openness to change was predictive when they were rating participants.

According to Walck's (1997) review, intuitive and perceiving preferences appear to be positively associated with creativity, managing change, and transformational leadership. However, as can be seen in Table 3, the results of MBTI's relation to transformational leadership are mixed. The same situation is true concerning subordinates' ratings. Most of the studies regard extraverted, intuitive and perceiving preferences as transformational (Church & Waclawski 1998; Roush 1992), but Roush and Atwater's study (1992) indicates sensing and feeling types as transformational leaders. Leaders' own ratings support intuitives and perceiving types as transformational leaders (Church & Waclawski 1998; Van Eron & Burke 1992).

Self-ratings have been found to be significantly higher than those of direct reports and peers. An overrating tendency was under-correlated by all but one personality preference; the exception was that extraverted managers on average were more likely to rate their own behaviours higher than introverted managers. Self- and supervisor ratings did not significantly differ from each other, nor did those of direct reports and peers. Interestingly, however, supervisor ratings were found to be significantly higher than those of peers and direct reports. Berr et al. (2000) suggest that the presence of such a pattern implies a potentially highly political process among the present sample of senior managers with respect to supervisor relationships.

Only one study has found out the effects of the subordinates' personality on their ratings to transformational leaders. With the exception of sensing types and intuitives, extraverts, feelers, and perceivers gave more positive ratings than did introverts, thinkers and judges (Roush 1992). According to Roush's (1992) conclusion, however, the MBTI type of leader seemed to be a more dominant factor in leadership assessment by subordinates than is the MBTI type of the subordinate.

Table 3. Earlier studies of transformational leadership and MBTI

	Ratings of	
	<u>leaders themselves</u>	<u>subordinates</u>
Transformational Leadership (Total)		
Church & Waclawski	ENP	ENP
Roush		ENFP
Van Eron & Burke	NP	
Being Inspirational		
Church & Waclawski	N	
Roush & Atwater		SF
Van Eron & Burke	NP	
Focusing on the mission / determining direction		
Church & Waclawski	ENP	NP
Van Eron & Burke	ENP	
Influencing followers / charisma		
Church & Waclawski	ENP	EN
Roush & Atwater		SF
Involves being a teacher / individual consideration		
Roush & Atwater		F
Van Eron & Burke	N	
Requesting more of followers		
Van Eron & Burke	ENP	
Establishing purpose		
Church & Waclawski	ENT	
Contingent promises		
Roush & Atwater		F

1.3 Research methodology

In this Chapter, the research strategy of this study is presented as well as data gathering, samples, instruments, procedure, and reliability and validity. More specifically the development of the Finnish modified version of Leadership Practices Inventory is introduced.

1.3.1 Research Strategy

The ontological assumption of this study is *realism* and, by epistemology, this study has the approach of *positivism*. As the methodological base a *nomothetic* approach is used.

Ontology refers to the subject of existence. Realism and nominalism are assumptions of ontology. In this study realism is the assumption. Realism means that the objectivistic reality exists. People use words to express the reality. The assumption of nominalism refers to the conceptual picture of reality. According to nominalism the social phenomena are created and modified by words. (Burrell & Morgan 1979; Raunio 1999).

Epistemology in Greek etiology can be divided into episteme and logos. Episteme means knowledge or science, logos means knowledge, information, theory or account. "Epistemology is the study of the criteria by which we can know what does, and does not, constitute warranted, or scientific, knowledge" (Johnson & Cassell 2001). Approaches of epistemology are positivism and anti-positivism based on a researcher's relation to what should be researched. Burrell and Morgan (1979) describe positivism as explaining and predicting happenings in the social world. In positivism regularities and causal relationships are searched for. "In the positivism the researcher is a neutral collector of data who can objectively access the facts of an a priori reality" (Johnson & Cassell 2001). In positivism, the relationship between researcher and the focus of study can be described as "subject and object". The purpose is to keep these two things apart from each other (Raunio 1999). The positivism procedures are like inferential statistics,

hypothesis testing, mathematical analysis, and experimental and quasi-experimental design. The management and organizational studies are usually characterized by careful sampling, precise measurement, and sophisticated design and analysis in the test of hypotheses derived from tentative general laws, and thus positivism is the approach of this study as well (Behling 1980). Anti-positivism approach sees the world as relativistic. From this point, the social world can only be understood from the point of view of individuals who are directly involved in the activities which are to be studied (Burrell & Morgan 1979). In anti-positivism, according to Raunio (1999), the relationship between researcher and the focus of research can be described as "subject and subject", when the way to obtain scientific knowledge is concentrated on interaction and dialogue between these two.

As a methodological base either a nomothetic or an idiographic approach is used. A nomothetic approach is followed here because the purpose is to look at general tendencies emphasizing quantitative analysis. A nomothetic approach is based on mathematical and statistical calculations. When studying personality, it is assumed that the relationship between personality and behaviour is generalizable and repeatable (McKenna 2000). Idiographic research strategy stresses the individuality and it is mainly used in qualitative research, where the researcher is included in the research context influencing the results (Burrell & Morgan 1979).

1.3.2 Procedure and statistical analyses

Questionnaires were used instead of case study or interviews. Most of the research in this area has been made using questionnaires (Church & Waclawski 1998; Roush 1992; Roush & Atwater 1992; Van Eron & Burke 1992). This indicates that this kind of research method has been noticed useful in this kind of studies. However, the main reason for using the questionnaires was the purpose to find an overall view within the personality's relation to transformational leadership.

The questionnaires of the Finnish version of Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) and the Myers–Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) were filled in by the leaders during the training sessions, if it was possible. The leaders gave the LPI questionnaires to their subordinates. Leaders were ordered to give the questionnaires to their four or five subordinates in alphabetical order. This was done in order to prevent leaders from choosing those subordinates they wanted to be as respondents. In the case of the “expectations of leaders” –questionnaire almost all subordinates of each leader filled in the questionnaire. Concerning the questionnaire of development discussions, subordinates who had participated in those, filled questionnaire in.

The analysis of variance (Anova) or *t*–test was used in most cases. The dependent variable was the transformational leadership and its subparts or development discussions. The independent variable was personality (=MBTI–types/cognitive styles/preferences). In case of multivariate analyses of variance, the Tukey’s test was used as a post–hoc test in analyzing more specifically the statistical significances, when they were founded (Norusis 1994). In one article, the Selection Ratio Type Table (SRTT) analysis was used. The SRTT was developed specially for research of MBTI using Chi–square analysis or Fisher’s test (McCaulley 1985).

1.3.3 Instruments and their reliability and validity

The main criteria for testing the goodness of measures are validity and reliability (Sekaran 1992). In this Chapter, firstly the terms reliability and validity are defined. Secondly, the used instruments are introduced, as well as their reliability and validity. Used questionnaires were: The Finnish version of Leadership Practices Inventory, Myers–Briggs Type Indicator, expectations of leaders–questionnaire and development discussions questionnaire. The main emphasis is introducing the first two questionnaires, which are in the main role of this study.

Reliability and validity

Reliability. To ensure that measures are free from error and yield consistent results the quantitative research methods use reliability analyses. Reliability refers to likelihood to how consistently an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure. In other words it refers to the repeatability of the numerical assignment, which is made to a set of observations. (Bryman 1992; Sekaran 1992). Reliability includes two elements: external and internal reliability. According to Sekaran (1992), reliability is divided according to stability of measures (external reliability) and internal consistency of measures (internal reliability). External reliability means the degree to which a measure is consistent over time. The clearest way to measure external reliability is to measure on two different occasions and to examine the degree to which respondents' scores are consistent between the two time periods. An approach used for this is test–retest reliability or parallel–form reliability (Bryman 1992; Sekaran 1992). In the more used test–retest reliability is measured with repetition of an identical measure on a second occasion (Sekaran 1992).

Internal reliability means the degree of internal consistency of a measure: it is indicative of the homogeneity of the items in the measure that tap the construct. The methods used in this sense are interitem consistency reliability and split–half. The former one means a test of the consistency of respondents' responses to all the items in a measure. Usually Cronbach's alpha is used for measuring interitem consistency reliability. In split–half the items are divided into two equivalent halves and a score is then obtained for each half of the scale and the two half scores are correlated with each other. External and internal reliability may not be consistent. Usually the multiple–indicator measures exhibit greater internal than external reliability (Bryman 1992; Sekaran 1992).

Validity measures if the test measures what it is intended to measure (Bryman 1992). Usually in the literature, the example of validity is the measurement of intelligence; how can it be known that the test of intelligence really measures intelligence? (Bryman 1992). The validity can be divided into three subgroups: content validity, criterion–related validity and construct validity. Content validity (or logical validity) ensures that

the measure includes an adequate and representative set of items that would tap the concept. The basic way of establishing content validity is to measure face validity; this means, is there a correspondence between the measure and the concept in question? Face validity indicates that the items are supposed to measure a concept and look as if they are measuring the concepts. This approach is highly judgemental and easily prone to error (Bryman 1992; Sekaran 1992).

Criterion-related validity means that the researcher aims to connect the measure with a relevant criterion. The predictive validity and concurrent validity are forms of criterion validity. Predictive validity is the ability to differentiate among individuals as to a future criterion. Concurrent validity is used when the scale discriminates individuals who are known to be different (Bryman 1992; Sekaran 1992).

Construct validity measures the likely connection between the concept of interest and another concept. In other words, it testifies to how well the results obtained from the use of the measure fits the theories around which the test is designed (Bryman 1992; Sekaran 1992). This construct validity is used especially in personality research and it refers to the way that a measure relates to other variables (Myers et al. 1998). Convergent and discriminant validity are subclasses of construct validity. Convergent validity is established when the scores obtained by two different instruments measuring the same concept are highly correlated. Discriminant validity is established when, based on the theory, two variables are predicted to be uncorrelated, and the scores obtained by measuring them are empirically found to be so. If there is a close correspondence between the measures of two different concepts, it is not possible to distinguish them (Bryman 1992; Sekaran 1992). Correlation analysis and factor analysis can be used to infer the convergent and discriminant validity.

Instruments and their reliability and validity

The development of the Finnish version of the transformational leadership measurement

The original version of LPI was developed by Kouzes and Posner (1988). Kouzes and Posner started with a survey of 38 open-ended questions, which were collected from 850 leaders. The idea was to find out the personal best of leaders; i.e. when they got something extraordinary accomplished in an organization. A short form of the survey was also developed and this was completed by 450 leaders. Additionally, they had 38 in-depth interviews with managers in middle- to senior-level organizational positions in a wide variety of public and private sector companies. These case studies were content analyzed and then validated by two separate outside raters. From these studies is derived the fundamental pattern of leadership behaviour, which emerges when people are accomplishing extraordinary things in organizations. The LPI was first completed by 120 MBA-students. An item-by-item discussion was conducted after the subjects completed the instrument. Difficult, ambiguous, or inconsistent items were either replaced or revised. Feedback discussions with nine professionals in psychology, organizational behaviour, and human resource management – familiar with psychometric issues, the conceptual framework, and management development – further refined the inventory. The outcome of the procedures is the instruments including 30 statements – six statements measuring each of the practices. The data included firstly 708 managers, whose background represents a full array of functional fields from both public and private sector organization. 21% of the respondents were female. The managerial effectiveness was studied with LPI. The LPI explained 55% of the variance around subordinates' assessments of their leaders' effectiveness. Another method for examining the validity of the LPI is to determine how well LPI scores can differentiate between high- and low-performing managers. These scores were related to managerial effectiveness (Kouzes & Posner 1988; Posner & Kouzes 1990). Dimensions found by Posner and Kouzes (1990):

- 1) Challenging the Process
 - a) Search for opportunities
 - b) Experiment and take risks
- 2) Inspiring a Shared Vision
 - a) Envision the future
 - b) Enlist the support of others
- 3) Enabling Others to Act
 - a) Foster collaboration
 - b) Strengthen others
- 4) Modeling the Way
 - a) Set the example
 - b) Plan small wins
- 5) Encouraging the Heart
 - a) Recognize contributions
 - b) Celebrate accomplishments

Factor analyses of the Finnish version of LPI. An adopted modified Finnish version of LPI was made to ensure its appropriateness to Finnish culture, even if the LPI data has been collected also from Australia, England, Germany and Holland (Kouzes and Posner 1988). This was done, because some studies have argued that LPI is mostly embedded in US culture. Altogether 900 leaders and subordinates were included in the data from which the factors were obtained. Indeed, factors did load somehow differently in this Finnish sample compared with Kouzes and Posner's (1988) sample. Factor analysis (Varimax) was made of totally 30 questions. Items were reduced to 25 questions, because of the low loadings of the items, because these loadings divided into the several factors or because of high loadings into two or three factors. The removed items were:

- I make sure that the projects I am leading are split into manageable parts (in Modeling the Way).
- I give a clearly positive and wishful picture of the future of our organization (in Inspired a Shared Vision).

- I ask “what can we learn about this”, when the things do not go as expected (in Challenging the Process).
- I look forward and foresee what kind the future will be (in Inspired a Shared Vision)
- I will get others interested and being enthusiastic about future possibilities (in Inspired a Shared Vision).

When the five factors were ready, they were multiplied and divided so that they could be standardized to be comparable. The factors were named differently, due to their different items, and to clearly separate this Finnish version from the original one. In these study these factors are called as LPI–dimensions, to separate them from dimensions of MBTI. Additionally, shorter names are easier to use. The names of the Finnish dimensions are: Visioning, Challenging, Enabling, Modeling and Rewarding.

The order of Finnish LPI factors was: 1) Enabling 2) Visioning 3) Challenging 4) Modeling 5) Rewarding. In the U.S. sample, the order of factors was: 1) Enabling Others to Act 2) Encouraging the Heart 3) Inspiring a Shared Vision 4) Challenging the Process 5) Modeling the Way. The orders of factors were quite the similar in both countries, implying that the transformational leadership is experienced in quite the same way in both countries. In this Finnish version, the Enabling behaviour is seen to include items from Encouraging the Heart and thus the Rewarding behaviour is experienced differently than in the U.S. The study of Posner and Kouzes (1990) indicated that Encouraging the Heart has two sub–dimensions: a) recognize contributions b) celebrate accomplishments. In Finland the recognize contributions loaded in Enabling and celebrate accomplishments form a different factor which is named in the Finnish version Rewarding. Differences were found more inside the dimensions than in the factor order overall.

Definitions of LPI–dimensions. In this Finnish version, *Visioning* consists in describing the ideal future to others, making sure that people hold common values, and communicate the views of which is the best way to lead the organization. *Challenging* includes risk taking, making innovations to improve organization, and looking for challenging tasks. *Enabling* means respecting others, giving them freedom to make

their own decisions, creating a trusting atmosphere, and making others feel the projects as their own. *Modeling* includes consistency of organizational values and confidence in the philosophy of how to lead, and confirmation of planning and goal setting. *Rewarding* means celebrating, one-way or another, when the goals are met.

Comparison of means, reliability and validity. In this study, the commonly used measure of reliability, Cronbach's coefficient alpha, was used. Reliabilities of the factors varied from .59 in Modeling to .87 in Enabling (see Table 6). They can be regarded as adequate, because for example reliabilities of .50 and .60 are noted as sufficient (Nunnally 1967: 226). For example, in Brown and Posner's (2001) study alphas ranked from .66 to .84. Content (logical) validity as face validity can be regarded as good, when the questions were suitable commonly accepted definitions of transformational leadership. This means, for example, that statement: "leader gives visions", suits well when describing Visioning- leaders.

In Tables 4 and 5 the means, standard deviations and internal reliability of the original and the Finnish version are presented. In the original LPI version, Enabling Others to Act had the highest mean, and Inspiring a Shared Vision the lowest. In the Finnish sample, the Modeling was used as the best and Rewarding as the weakest. When comparing the internal reliability, it can be noticed that Encouraging the Heart had the highest alpha in the original version in every sample. In the Finnish sample Enabling (formed mostly from Enabling Others to Act and Encouraging the Heart) had the highest alpha in the case of LPI and LPI-other. In the case of LPI-self the highest alpha had Rewarding. In this Finnish sample the Modeling had the lowest alpha in every sample.

Table 4. Means, standard deviations (Std) and reliability indices for the Leadership Practices Inventory (Posner & Kouzes 1990: 209)

	Mean	Std	Internal reliability		
			LPI	LPI-self	LPI-other
			N= 2876	N=708	N=2168
Challenging the Process	22.53	3.95	.77	.73	.79
Inspiring a Shared Vision	20.01	5.04	.88	.83	.89
Enabling Others to Act	23.68	4.23	.84	.70	.86
Modeling the Way	22.30	4.10	.80	.72	.81
Encouraging the Heart	22.31	4.92	.90	.84	.91

Table 5. Means, standard deviations (Std) and reliability indices for the Finnish modified version of Leadership Practices Inventory

	Mean	Std	Internal reliability		
			LPI	LPI-self	LPI-other
			N= 900	N=514	N=386
Challenging	34.22	6.79	.64	.60	.64
Visioning	29.89	7.08	.69	.62	.75
Enabling	37.65	6.28	.87	.77	.90
Modeling	38.53	5.86	.59	.55	.63
Rewarding	25.10	10.70	.83	.79	.87

In Tables 6 and 7 the means of different samples are presented, in order to compare these two samples. Even if there were differences in the Finnish and U.S factors, some comparison of means can be made. In both samples the leaders' own ratings were higher than subordinates'. Enabling Others to Act was the transformational leadership practice which was most used according to self and others in the U.S sample. The Challenging the Process was secondly most used. In this Finnish sample, Enabling was the most used according to the leaders themselves, and according to subordinates the leaders used mostly Modeling behaviour. Secondly, according to leaders, they used Modeling, and according to subordinates, Enabling. Inspiring a Shared Vision was least

used in the U.S sample, according to both parties, whereas all Finnish respondents rated Rewarding as least used. According to means, the tendencies of Finnish and U.S samples were similar, but it can be seen that Finnish leaders emphasize Enabling and Modeling, whereas the U.S leaders emphasize Enabling and Challenging behaviour. These differences may be due to the different cultures. The USA is high in individualism and masculinity when compared to the world average. Finland is also a more individual country than average (even if clearly lower than U.S), but the masculinity is clearly under the world average (Hofstede 1967–2003). It may be that these differences in individualism and masculinity–dimensions are the reason why the U.S leaders use Challenging more than Finnish. Maybe Finnish people, as not so independent and masculine, do not have courage to take risks or do things differently than people in high individualism and masculinity countries. Thus it can be concluded that the transformational leadership in Finland is regarded as emphasizing different LPI–dimensions than in the U.S.

Table 6. Differences between scores on the LPI–self and LPI–other (Posner & Kouzes 1990: 210)

	LPI–self N =708		>	LPI–other N= 2168	
	Mean	Std		Mean	Std
Challenging the Process	23.44	3.11	>	22.23	4.14
Inspiring a Shared Vision	21.02	4.17	>	19.69	5.25
Enabling Others to Act	25.09	2.63	>	23.22	4.54
Modeling the Way	23.04	3.16	>	22.05	4.34
Encouraging the Heart	23.30	3.87	>	21.99	5.18

Table 7. Differences between scores on the Finnish version of LPI–self and LPI–other

	LPI–self N= 514		>	LPI–other N=386	
	Mean	Std		Mean	Std
Challenging	35.56	6.13	>	32.42	7.20
Visioning	30.73	6.38	>	28.78	7.80
Enabling	39.40	4.44	>	35.30	7.49
Modeling	39.03	5.32	>	37.86	6.46
Rewarding	26.42	10.35	>	23.31	10.99

Myers–Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)

MBTI is a self–assessment instrument, where the respondent selects one of two options for every item. The MBTI includes four bipolar dimensions: extraversion–introversion (E/I), sensing–intuition (S/N), thinking–feeling (T/F), and judging–perceiving (J/P). In the MBTI–Manual the wide preview of the reliability and validity of it is presented (Myers et al. 1998). In Finland, the past 14 years have been focused to gain the data to test the validation and reliability of the instrument. In the case of reliability, Järnlström (2000) reported an internal consistency (Pearson's correlation coefficients) of .65 to .76 and (Cronbach's coefficient alpha) of .79 to .86 of the Finnish F–version. The sensing/intuition dimension had the lowest values of consistency and the judging/perceiving the highest (see Table 8).

According to Myers and McCaulley (1998), the MBTI was designed to implement Jung's theory of psychological types, and thus its validity is determined by its ability to demonstrate relationships and outcomes predicted by theory. The validity of the MBTI has been studied with behavioural, self–assessment, and occupational data, and by correlating MBTI scores with other personality inventories. From the MBTI the factorial validity, scale intercorrelations, criterion–related validity and structural

properties have been studied (see e.g. review Gardner & Martinko 1996). Criterion-related validity can be evidenced for example for occupation distributions, which correlate with the MBTI scales. This is based on the assumption that personality is a determinant of vocational choice and career development (Holland 1985). The Finnish research F-version's criterion-related validity has been proved by studies which support MBTI-theory and, which have gained similar results as research made abroad (see e.g. Järnlström 2002). The factorial validity of the Finnish F-version is shown in Appendix II (Järnlström 2000).

Table 8. Internal consistency of MBTI's (Form F) split-half continuous scores, n=533 (Järnlström 2000)

<i>Analysis used</i>	<i>E/I</i>	<i>S/N</i>	<i>T/F</i>	<i>J/P</i>
Pearson's correlation coefficient	0.73	0.65	0.71	0.76
Cronbach's coefficient alpha	0.84	0.79	0.83	0.86

In the USA, the construct validity has been studied mainly with other personality and interest instruments. Significant correlations have been found with most of them. For example, Thorne and Gough (1991) provide evidence of construct validity of sensing-intuition, thinking-feeling scales, when studying the Adjective Check List (ACL) and MBTI. Furthermore, scale correlation of judging-perceiving with ACL Order/Change scale support the MBTI's construct validity. These hence provided evidence of construct validity. In this Finnish MBTI-questionnaire the construct validity has not been studied with other personality tests. However, the results concerning leadership styles and MBTI support the studies, which are made of similar subjects in the USA. Thus, the construct validity can be regarded as fairly good. Overall, the validity has been shown especially in the case of preferences but in the case of whole types more validity researchers are needed.

Expectations of leaders' and development discussions questionnaires

Expectations of leaders-questionnaire contains five sets of arguments or statements, which the respondents appraised in forced-ranking format. The forced-ranking format was used because all the statements were positive and thus difficult to appraise for example with a Likert-scale. The statements concerned the behaviour that the subordinate would like to have from his/her (current) leader.

The reliability of the questionnaire could not be analyzed, due to its exceptional form. However, the questionnaire was based on the Myers theory and earlier research. The content validity (face validity) can be evaluated either by the researcher by careful definition of the topic, the scales to be used and the items to be scaled (Emory 1995: 95). Also other persons may appraise how well the questionnaire meets the standards (Emory 1995: 95). The questionnaire was first filled by the several people who work in the Department of Management at the University of Vaasa. At the same time they also appraised the questionnaire. The results gained from the test-group supported the earlier study (Hautala 2000) and researcher's expectations, thus the questionnaire can be regarded as having good face validity.

The development discussions questionnaire consists of several questions (41 items) concerning the experiences of development discussions. Even, the sample size was quite small (n=91), the reliability of this questionnaire seem to be adequate (Cronbach's alpha was .63).

1.4 Main results, contribution and concluding remarks of the study

In this Chapter, the main results are presented. Focus is on statistically significant different results. The development ideas of the study, as well as limitations and ideas of further studies are discussed also.

The main focus of the study was on the transformational leadership and the personality. Additionally, the study concentrated on wider and deeper aspects, when studying the expectations of leaders and the development discussions. The articles are briefly presented in Table 9.

Table 9. Focus of the articles

	MAIN FOCUS ON:		
	Transformational-level	MBTI-level	Subordinates /leaders
Article 1	Individual consideration of transformational leadership	Preference level	Subordinates' personality
Article 2	Transformational leadership	Preference level	Subordinates' personality
Article 3	Transformational leadership	Preference level	Leaders' personality
Article 4	Transformational leadership	Type level	Leaders' personality
Article 5	Development discussions	Cognitive styles	Subordinates' personality

Articles

1) Impact of followers' type on their expectations of leaders: An individual consideration in transformational leadership

This article tried to find out if there are differences due to the personality concerning expectations of leadership. The purpose was to give some kind of background to the study, with regard personality differences and leadership. Additionally, when looking

all these articles, the purpose of this one, was to find if personalities differ in the manner, which they may also impact on ratings of transformational leadership. The unusual form of questionnaire can be regarded as both the strength and the limitation of this article. The questionnaire was developed by the researcher basing it on the earlier study. The forced ranking format is not very commonly used, and the five forced dimensions can be experienced as somehow restricted. However, regardless the limitations of the questionnaire, it seemed to work quite well, because the results were mainly supporting the theory. The strength of the questionnaire was the quite unusual and new perspective in an area, which has not got much attention, yet.

2–4) The relationship between personality and transformational leadership

The second article, concentrated on subordinates' personality and their ratings of transformational leadership. The purpose was to find out if there are differences concerning how different personalities rate their leaders. In the third article, the order was to understand the impact of leaders' personality to ratings on transformational leadership from both subordinates' and leaders' points of view. These two studies were concentrated on the preference level of the MBTI. The purpose was to find the impact of leaders' personality on the leaders' and subordinates' opinion of leaders' transformational leadership behaviour. The fourth article concentrated on the most common leaders (ESTJ, ISTJ, ENTJ; INTJ) by personality type level of MBTI, in order to have more specific information of personality differences in transformational leadership.

5) The development discussions — the personality of subordinates in relation to the experiences of the discussions

The focus of this article was the development discussions. These discussions were selected as representing a leadership situation where transformational leadership is seen in practice. In this individual level situation the transformational leadership becomes concrete. The most common cognitive style, ST, was selected to represent leaders.

Main results

Based on these findings, it can be seen that personality affects on leadership expectations, transformational leadership, and also development discussions (see Table 10). Additionally, this study suggests that in the measures of transformational leadership, the culture may have an impact on its focus. In the basis of these results, Finnish people emphasize Enabling and Modeling, whereas U.S people emphasize Enabling (=Enabling others to act) and Challenging (=Challenging the process) dimensions of the transformational leadership. Further, comparative studies of this area would clear up the focus of the transformational leadership in Finland.

When looking at Table 10, the significant results occurred with regard to subordinates' and leaders' personality in different aspects of the study. Due to the subordinates' personality, they have different expectations concerning their leaders and they rate their leaders differently concerning transformational leadership and development discussions. Concerning leaders' personality, they rate themselves differently in transformational leadership with regard preferences and types. Interesting is for example findings concerning feeling types, since they would want support, directing, empathy and humanity from their leaders, and regarded themselves as Enabling leaders in LPI-dimensions. Moreover, they rate their leaders' more positively than thinking types. Their empathy based expectations and appraisals are consistent in each aspect of this study. In development discussions, the feeling types (SF, NF) should take more initiative, due to their more negative experiences than thinking types (ST, NT) in the item: "some matters have not been discussed, though I would like this".

Subordinates' and leaders' significant results differed from each other concerning LPI-dimensions of transformational leadership. Subordinates regarded sensing leaders more transformational than intuitives, whereas extraverted, intuitive and perceiving leaders rated themselves more transformational than introverted, sensing and judging leaders. Subordinates with extraverted and/or feeling preferences appraised their leaders more transformational. With regard impact of leaders' and subordinates' personality the findings supported MBTI-theory and earlier studies. In the case of subordinates' ratings

with regard leaders' personality, the findings were surprising. It would have been thought that sensing leaders would not have been appraised as transformational than intuitives, who tend to be visionary, and prefer big pictures and broad lines. Sensing people need for clearly defined work areas and instructions suit well the earlier studies and theory of MBTI, when sensing types prefer doing their work as step-by-step and prefer following the orders. These finding may be partially due to the subordinates' type distribution and the level of working of both parties. If the subordinates are mainly sensing types, it may be that sensing leaders' concrete visions are regarded better than intuitives'. In the middle and low level, the subordinates may need more concrete advises from leaders than in higher level.

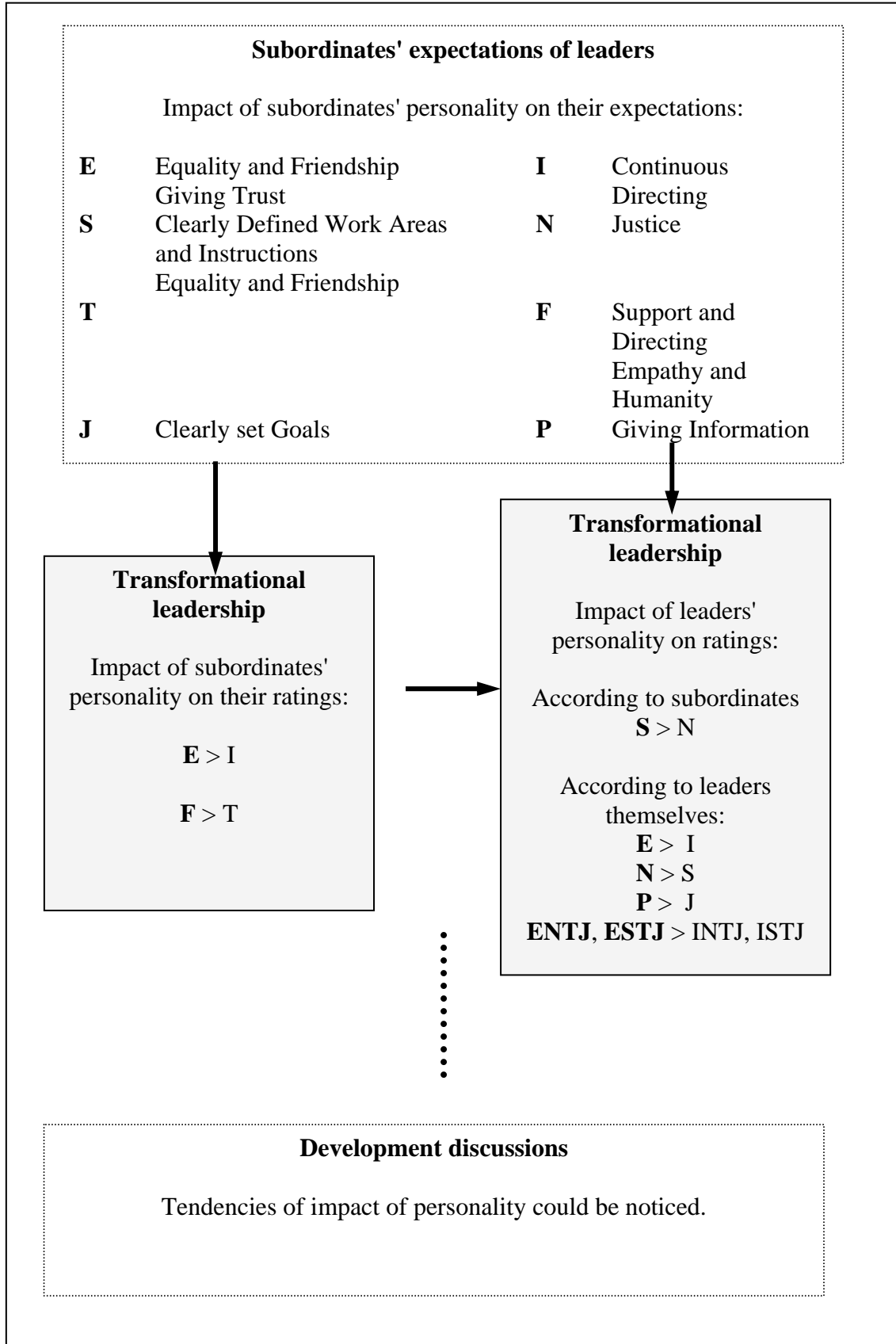
Extraverted leaders appraised themselves as more transformational than introverted and extraverted followers did appraise their leaders more transformational than introverted. This more positive and non-critical appraising seems to be tendency of extraverted people. Extraverts see themselves and others more positively than other types. Vice versa, especially introverted people are critical of themselves and others. In case of feeling subordinates, they appraised their leaders as clearly more transformational than thinking ones. Feeling people have the same kind of tendency as extraverted people, but feeling people focus more on positive sides of others than themselves. On the contrary, thinking types were more critical when rating their leaders, but in the case of self-ratings this tendency does not show so clearly.

In brief, if a person has preferences **E, N, (F), P**, he is most probably seeing himself as more transformational than **I, S (T), J**. Subordinates see as most transformational a person with preferences as **(E), S, (F), (P)**, and if the subordinates are mainly **E-** and **F-** types they are regarding their leaders more transformational than **I-** and **T-** types. Thus, could it be assumed that having sensing leaders with extraverted and feeling subordinates would result transformational leadership culture, when asking from subordinates? Further, if the focus is self-appraisals, would the extraverted-perceiving leaders result most transformational answers?

When focusing on the most common leaders (ESTJ, ISTJ, ENTJ; INTJ) by personality type level of MBTI, ENTJ and ESTJ leaders appraised themselves as more transformational than their introverted counterparts. The other articles of this study, as well as previous studies support these differences between extraverted and introverted leaders. Further, ISTJ leaders regarded themselves as lower in transformational leadership behaviour more often than INTJ leaders. In case of subordinates' ratings the significant differences occurred in two cases. Subordinates regarded ESTJs as more Visioning than ENTJs. Furthermore, ESTJs were regarded as more Rewarding than INTJs. In this case also, surprising was subordinates' results with regard ESTJs clearly more Visioning than ENTJs.

With regard the cognitive styles and experiences of development discussions, the most common cognitive style as a leader, ST, was selected to represent leaders. Even if the sample size was quite small and results were presented at the significance level of 0.1, some tendencies could be seen. When discussing with ST-leader, NTs experienced the discussions as best and NFs as lowest. It could be suggested that subordinates' activity impacts on the satisfaction of the discussions. The more active they experienced themselves, the more satisfied they were with discussions. Also, when subordinates were having a totally different cognitive style (NF) from their leaders, the experiences of the discussions were not so positive as other cognitive styles. However, the same cognitive style did not bring the most positive experiences.

Table 10. Main results of the study



In the Table 11 more specific findings concerning transformational dimensions are presented. Surprisingly, the number of significant results is the same when subordinates' personality affects ratings and when subordinates are rating their leaders' behaviour, according to leaders' personality. Thus it may be that subordinates' personality impacts more on the ratings than has been expected, and previous studies indicated (Roush 1992). In leaders' self-ratings more significant differences were found than subordinates' appraisals to them. Due to the personality it seems that leaders' own personality is determinant mostly in Challenging, Enabling and Rewarding. In the case of subordinates' ratings, the leaders' personality is determinant mostly in Rewarding. When looking at the subordinates' personality, it seems to be determinant in case of Challenging and Rewarding when they are appraising their leaders.

Overall, the leaders' personality has a similar tendency with subordinates' ratings concerning extraverted leaders in Rewarding and perceiving leaders in Challenging. In other LPI-dimensions this congruence did not exist.

Table 11. The positive relationship between the LPI-dimensions and MBTI-preferences

	Impact of subordinates' personality on ratings	Leaders' self-ratings	Subordinates' ratings
Visioning	–	E	S
Challenging	E, F	E, N, P	P
Enabling	F	E, F	–
Modeling	–	E	S
Rewarding	E, F	E, P	E, S, F
Overall Transformational Profile	E, F	E, N, P	S

Conclusions

These findings indicate that personality has an important role in leader–subordinate relationships when considering it from different perspectives. Impact of personality should be noted when receiving or filling in questionnaires, to have a more objective picture of one’s leadership skills. Partially, the results were surprising, especially in the case of the sensing–intuition dimension, where sensing leaders were rated as more transformational than intuitives. These findings stress the importance of the role of subordinates. The "amount" of leaders' transformational behaviour may be due to the observer's personality, and thus the leaders should modify their behaviour accordingly – using individual consideration/enabling. The same message will gain more fruitful acceptance and understanding when using the language, which is near to the respondents' own. Of course, only the recognizing of these differences may help mutual understanding.

Also other areas than personality affect the transformational leadership process. These areas may include age, gender, work age, field of working, etc. However, in this study the focus was not in these areas, because the purpose was to concentrate properly and deeply in the one area. These other areas of personality could be studied in the future as well. The studies with different methods would be fruitful also. For example, the qualitative studies using interviews, would give some more information of the role of personality in transformational leadership. When looking the samples of these studies, it should be noted that the samples were in some parts overlapping. However, due to the quite substantial overall data, the results should not be confounded.

One situation where the mutual understanding could be enhanced would be development discussions. Subordinates’ expectations of leader could be talked about, as well as impact of personality on differences in these development discussions. Of particular importance is the activity of subordinates in this situation. Additionally, this individual level leadership situation would merit more research. The studies of this area could highlight some important results, which could be useful also on the other leadership situations. Considering leadership ratings by subordinates, sometimes those

can be quite critical. The ratings can be more easily accepted when the personalities of both leaders and subordinates are taken into consideration. These leadership ratings can enhance self-knowledge and development as a leader (and as a subordinate), when considered in a constructive way.

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Impact of followers' type on their expectations of leaders: An individual consideration in transformational leadership

Tiina Hautala

Abstract

This study focuses on the individual consideration dimension of transformational leadership and presents different expectations about leaders' behaviour from the perspective of the followers' types. Data were collected from 288 subordinates. The results agree with MBTI theory and earlier studies. The following results appeared at the type level: Giving Trust was important to ESTJs, Support and Empathy to ISFJs, Equitableness to ISTJs, and Vocational Skills to ISTPs.

Introduction

As Avolio and Bass (1995) stated, it is through individualized consideration that a transformation is first noticed in the leader's behaviour and its impact on others. By inspiring, sharing visions, enabling, and considering followers individually, the transformational leader motivates followers to do more than expected (Bass, 1985). In other words, a leader's behaviour depends on recognizing individual differences in needs, elevating them, and developing potential to achieve increasingly higher levels of performance (Avolio & Bass).

Initially, Burns (1978) defined the concepts of transformational and transactional leadership. According to Bass (1985), transformational leadership consists of ideal influence, inspiration, individual consideration, and intellectual stimulation, whereas transactional leadership includes contingent reward, management-by-exception, negative feedback, and contingent aversive reinforcement. Several other researchers have studied and defined transformational leadership as well (Bennis & Nanus, 1985;

Kouzes & Posner, 1988; Tichy & Devanna, 1990). Sometimes the transformational and charismatic leadership concepts are mixed, and a clear distinction between them is not made. However, according to Bass, transformational leaders are charismatic, but charismatic leaders are not necessarily transformational. Charismatic leaders are individuals with high self-esteem, skill to articulate, high energy and determination, and desire for change and risk taking (see Javidan & Waldman, 2003, for more definitions).

There are studies in the literature about a leader's effect on subordinates' behaviour (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996), on motivation and stress (e.g., Elangovan & Xie, 1999), and personality and its effects on work situations (e.g., Gardner & Martinko, 1990; Short & Grasha, 1995; Tsuzuki & Tamao, 1998; Wofford, Whittington, & Goodwin 2001). Also, the leader-follower relation has been studied by many (e.g., Avolio & Howell, 1992; Phillips & Bedeian, 1994). However, there are only a few studies of subordinates' expectations about leaders' behaviour (Bass & Avolio, 1989; Kouzes & Posner, 1988) and even fewer studies of what kind of leadership behaviour different personality types would like to have (Ehrhart & Klein, 2001).

When leaders know the different expectations of different personality types, they have a higher probability of considering each person individually and adjusting their behaviour according to the person involved. It is important to know the followers' points of view of how they should be led. Knowing the different expectations as a basis for individual consideration, transformational leadership can be used more efficiently, and individual consideration can be used properly.

Looking at followers' needs in their entirety, the majority of followers want leaders who are honest, competent, forward-looking, and inspiring. In short, followers want leaders who are credible and who have a clear sense of direction (Kouzes & Posner, 1988). When comparing the ideal image and the reality of leadership, Bass and Avolio (1989) found that participants saw transformational leaders, particularly charismatics, as being closer to their image of the "ideal" leader than the transactional leaders. Participants considered their ideal leader to be charismatic, as well as individually considerate and intellectually stimulating – three constructs, if combined, that represent transformational

leadership. By contrast, Ehrhart and Klein (2001) found that if the participants could choose from among the three different kinds of leader (i.e., charismatic, relationship-oriented, or task-oriented), half of the respondents would choose a relationship-oriented leader, 30% a charismatic leader, and 20% a task-oriented leader.

When studying the personality of both leader and follower, Avolio and Howell (1992) noted that the personality of both leader and follower, as well as the level of congruence between a leader's and a follower's personality, may moderate the satisfaction of the follower with the leader, as well as the performance of the leader's work unit. Swanson and O'Saben (1993) studied differences in supervisory needs and expectations by examining trainee experience, cognitive style, and programme membership. The participants were students in three programmes: counseling psychology, clinical psychology, and counselor education. Trainees' cognitive style had effects as follows: Trainees with thinking (T) and perceiving (P) preferences expressed a greater need for supervisors who were willing to struggle and argue with them, as well as being willing to confront them concerning more personal aspects of the trainee's behaviour. Trainees preferring the intuitive (N) preference expressed a greater need for gentle confrontation and direct supervision of therapy sessions, and a lesser need for supervision that provided tangible intervention in crises and excluded personal issues. Introverted (I) trainees expressed a greater need for gentle confrontation and a lesser need for direct supervision of sessions.

This study further concentrated on followers' expectations of their leaders by studying the expectations of different personality types. The purpose of this study was to find out what different personality types want from their leaders. The main question was: Do different personality types prefer different leadership characteristics?

Method

Participants

The data were obtained from 288 followers in a Finnish diesel-engine manufacturing company during the years 2000-2001. The subordinates' mean age was 39. Almost all of them were male (99%). Vocational school was the educational level of most of them (76%) and most were either fitters (41%) or machinists (23%).

Questionnaires

Participants filled out a questionnaire on expectations that contained five sets of expectations. Each group of expectations had four different positive characteristics that were selected based on earlier research on cognitive styles (Hautala, 2000) and the theory of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (Myers, McCaulley, Quenk, & Hammer, 1998). Each person rated the characteristics in each group from the most wanted behaviour (1) to the least wanted behaviour (4). For example, in Group 1, the characteristic "Clearly Set Goals" was the most wanted behaviour from the leader, with "Visions" the next most wanted, etc. (see Table 1). All the characteristics of the questionnaire are seen in Table 2.

Table 1. Example of Rating Group 1 Characteristics

Clearly Set Goals	1
Freedom	3
Visions	2
Continuous Directing	4

The characteristics were not defined to respondents, so they were selecting the order only on the basis of the impression of the given word or sentence.

The Finnish research version Form F of the MBTI was administrated. The construct validity and reliability of this form have been shown during a several year validation process (see Järnlström, 2000).

Procedure

The forced ranking format was used because all characteristics were positive. The answers were recoded in SPSS so that the most valued numbers, 1 and 2, were recoded as number 1 and the least valued numbers, 3 and 4, were recoded as 0. In other words, respondents chose two characteristics they would like to have from leaders out of four possibilities. The data were then analyzed with the SRTT.

Table 2. Characteristics of the Questionnaire.

<p>Group 1 Clearly Set Goals Freedom and Independence Visions Continuous Directing</p>	<p>Group 4 Giving Trust Support and Directing Consistency Responsibility</p>
<p>Group 2 Clearly Defined Work Areas and Instructions Positive and Negative Feedback Encouraging Justice</p>	<p>Group 5 Empathy, Humanity Vocational Skills Resoluteness Giving Information</p>
<p>Group 3 Honesty Equitableness Listening and Conversations Equality, Friendship</p>	

Results

The participants are seen in Table 3. They were mainly ESTJs (24%) and ISTJs (19%). According to cognitive styles, they were mainly STs (60%) and SFs (27%) and least frequently NTs (7%) and NFs (5%). Sensing types clearly outnumbered intuitive types. However, this is similar to the general occupational distribution when compared to steelworkers and nonspecialized and factory workers at the operative level (Macdaid, McCaulley, & Kainz, 1986). Table 4 shows the results of an SRTT analysis with significant differences.

In Group 1, Js, EJs, SJs and FJs prefer Clearly Set Goals, whereas Ps and TPs were underrepresented in this category. Dominant sensing types favoured Freedom and Independence, whereas those characteristics were least wanted by EJs and ESFJs. Visions were least appreciated by FJs, especially by ISFJs. Continuous Directing was least wanted by Es and most wanted by Is and ISs.

In Group 2, Ss would like to have Clearly Defined Work Areas and Instructions, whereas those characteristics were least wanted by Ns and EPs. Encouraging behaviour was most preferred by ESs and least preferred by ISs. Justice was most important to Ns and least important to Ss and SJs.

In Group 3, Equitableness was most wanted by dominant sensing types and ISTJs and least wanted by EJs, FJs, and ESTJs. Listening and Conversations was least important to EPs and, at type level, to ESFPs. Equality and Friendship with the leader was most desirable to Es, Ss and ESs, and least desirable to Is.

In Group 4, Giving Trust was most important to Es, ESs, and ESTJs and least important to Is and ISs. Support and Directing from the leader was most desirable to Fs, FJs, and ISFJs. By contrast, Ts did not find it so important.

In Group 5, Empathy and Humanity were most wanted by Fs, SFs, FJs, and ISFJs and least wanted by Ts and STs. Leaders' Vocational Skills were most wanted by ISTPs.

Resoluteness from their leaders was least wanted by IPs. Giving Information was most wanted by Ps, IPs, NPs, FPs and least wanted by Js, IJs, SJs, FJs, dominant sensing types, and ISFJs.

Table 3. Type distribution for the total sample

Table 3. Type Distribution for the Total Sample						
N=288 +/-1% of N						
The Sixteen Complete Types				Dichotomous Preferences		
ISTJ n= 54 (18.8%) +++++	ISFJ n= 25 (8.7%) +++++	INFJ n= 0 (0.0%) +++++	INTJ n= 3 (1.0%) +	E n= 153 (53.1%)	I n= 135 (46.9%)	S n= 253 (87.9%)
				N n= 35 (12.2%)	T n= 194 (67.4%)	F n= 97 (32.6%)
				J n= 185 (64.2%)	P n= 103 (35.8%)	
				Pairs and Temperaments		
ISTP n= 26 (9.0%) +++++	ISFP n= 18 (6.3%) +++++	INFP n= 6 (2.1%) ++	INTP n= 3 (1.0%) +	IJ n= 82 (28.5%)	IP n= 53 (18.4%)	EP n= 50 (17.4%)
				EJ n= 103 (35.8%)	ST n= 174 (60.4%)	SF n= 79 (27.4%)
				NF n= 15 (5.2%)	NT n= 20 (6.9%)	SJ n= 170 (59.0%)
				SP n= 83 (28.8%)	NP n= 20 (6.9%)	NJ n= 15 (5.2%)
				TJ n= 135 (46.9%)	TP n= 59 (20.5%)	FP n= 44 (15.3%)
				FJ n= 50 (17.4%)	IN n= 12 (4.2%)	EN n= 23 (8.0%)
				IS n= 123 (42.3%)	ES n= 130 (45.1%)	ET n= 108 (37.5%)
				EF n= 45 (15.6%)	IF n= 49 (17.0%)	IT n= 86 (29.9%)
ESTP n= 25 (8.7%) +++++	ESFP n= 14 (4.9%) +++++	ENFP n= 6 (2.1%) ++	ENTP n= 5 (1.7%) ++			
ESTJ n= 69 (24.0%) +++++	ESFJ n= 22 (7.7%) +++++	ENFJ n= 3 (1.0%) +	ENTJ n= 9 (3.1%) +++			
Jungian Types (E) n %	Jungian Types (I) n %	Dominant Types n %				
E-TJ 78 27.0%	I-TP 29 10.1%	Dt.T 107 37.2%				
E-FJ 25 .7%	I-FP 24 8.3%	Dt.F 49 17.0%				
ES-P 39 13.5%	IS-J 79 27.4%	Dt.S 118 41.0%				
EN-P 11 3.8%	IN-J 3 1.0%	Dt.N 14 4.9%				

*Tiina Hautala,
Impact of followers'
type on their expectations
of leaders.*

Altogether, the following types showed significant differences: ESFJ was underrepresented in the desire for Freedom; ISFJ was underrepresented in the desire for Vision and Information and overrepresented in wanting Support and Empathy. In equitableness, ISTJ was overrepresented. ESTJ was underrepresented in Equitableness and overrepresented in Trust. Listening and Conversations were not as important to ESFPs as to other types. A leader's Vocational Skills were especially important to ISTPs.

Discussion

The present study focused on followers' expectations, by type, regarding their leaders. The results supported MBTI theory.

Clearly Set Goals were especially important to judging types (J, EJ, SJ, and FJ) and least important to perceiving types (P and TP). Judging types like a planned life, and they decide in advance what they intend to accomplish (Myers & Myers, 1990). Clearly Defined Areas and Instructions were important to S types. Sensing types rely on explicitly stated matters, and they may be annoyed if things are left to their imaginations (Myers & Myers).

Introverted types (I and IS) would like to have Continuous Directing, whereas extraverted types were significantly underrepresented in the desire for this kind of behaviour. When introverted types like to work alone and are not necessarily actively seeking a leader's attention, it may be difficult for a leader to notice the introverts' need for direction. The results contrast with Swanson and O'Saben's (1993) study, in which the introverted participants expressed less need for direct supervision. These contradictory results may be due to the very different work fields and different type distributions of the samples.

Encouraging was favoured by ESs and least desired by ISs. Introverted types do not seem to need as much feedback and support as extraverted types. If introverts believe

in what they are doing, they can work happily for a long time without reassurance (Myers & Myers, 1990).

Differences between ISs and ESs, and between ISTJs and ESTJs can be seen in Encouraging (high ES; low IS), Equitableness (dominant sensing types, ISTJ; low EJ, FJ, ESTJ), and Giving Trust (high E, ES, ESTJ; low I, IS). The E-I dimension seems to have a strong impact on sensing preference.

Feeling types favour Support and Directing (F, FJ, ISFJ) and Empathy and Humanity (F, SF, FJ, ISFJ). Feeling types are more tender-hearted, more tactful, and more social than thinking types (Myers & Myers, 1990), so it is quite natural for them to prefer their leaders to treat them in a similar way.

The most significant differences were in the Giving Information characteristic. As Myers and Myers (1990) stated, perceiving types like to keep their options open as long as possible, because they want to know all about the thing that is to be decided. This tendency was supported by this study, as perceiving types (P, IP, NP, and FP) were overrepresented in wanting information from their leaders.

No significant differences were found in the characteristics of Positive and Negative Feedback, Honesty, Consistency, and Responsibility.

Practical Applications

This information is helpful to leaders who would like to develop themselves further as leaders. Individual consideration can be used more properly when leaders have some idea of the different needs of different types, which can vary widely from the leaders' own tendencies. As Bass (1990) stated, the individually considerate transformational leader should have a sense of followers' developmental needs and also, a leader should know how the followers' current wishes differ from each other. When a leader understands something about different expectations of different types, it probably has a

strong positive impact on superior-subordinate relationships, which further impact positively on followers' commitment to an organization.

Table 4. Statistically significant results

Characteristics	HIGH	LOW
Group 1		
Clearly Set Goals	J**, EJ*, SJ*, FJ*	P*, TP*
Freedom and Independence	Sdom*	EJ*, ESFJ*
Visions	--	FJ*, ISFJ*
Continuous Directing	I*, IS*	E*
Group 2		
Clearly Defined Work Areas and Instructions	S*	N*, EP**
Positive and Negative Feedback	--	--
Encouraging	ES*	IS*
Justice	N*	S*, SJ*
Group 3		
Honesty	--	--
Equitableness	Sdom*, ISTJ**	EJ**, FJ*, ESTJ*
Listening and Conversations	--	EP*, ESFP*
Equality, Friendship	E*, S*, ES**	I*
Group 4		
Giving Trust	E*, ES**, ESTJ*	I*, IS*
Support and Directing	F*, FJ*, ISFJ**	T*
Consistency	--	--
Responsibility	--	--
Group 5		
Empathy, Humanity	F*, SF*, FJ***, ISFJ**	T*, ST*
Vocational Skills	ISTP*	--
Resoluteness	--	IP*
Giving Information	P**, IP*, NP**, FP**	J**, IJ**, SJ**, FJ*, Sdom*, ISFJ*
*p < .05 **p < .01 ***p < .001		

In discussions (e.g., developmental discussions) where there are only two persons, leader and follower, these results can be used when trying to understand each other better. For example, when a leader discusses with feeling types, personal issues and support are of importance. Further, more specifically, when the follower prefers FJ, clear goals should be stressed, and when the follower prefers FP, the amount of information should be emphasized. If the leader knew these kinds of differences, he or she could take into account the interests of each of the followers, and the annual discussion would be more fruitful.

Also, in a manufacturing organization, for example, when giving duties to followers, the leader could give more freedom to some (dominant sensing types) and more directions to others (I, IS) to gain the same goal. In schools and education, these results can be used in the same way; when giving homework, some types need more specific instructions (S). When giving reasons for the decisions, it is especially important to intuitives that they are fair.

Usually, leaders are TJs, and according to the results of this paper, earlier studies (e.g., Routamaa, Honkonen, Asikainen, & Pollari, 1997), and type theory, these thinking types naturally focus more on tasks than on people (Myers & Myers, 1990). In particular, TJ leaders may need to show more consideration for feeling types, who prefer support and empathy. TJ types often make decisions quickly based on a smaller amount of information than perceiving types. It would be important to TJ leaders to give enough (more than they would naturally think) information to perceiving types, and so fulfill the Ps need for gathering information.

Conclusions and Implications for Further Research

In summary, the results of this study indicated that the expectations regarding leaders differ according to type. Such results can be helpful in a leader-follower relationship, especially in annual review and developmental discussions. Additionally, from the

followers' point of view, when they are aware of their own tendencies relative to the leader, understanding their own behaviour is easier.

The sample of this study was male-dominated, and the manufacturing organization can be regarded as a masculine organization. The results well supported MBTI theory, and it can be assumed that the results would be similar even if the study were done with a sample of females and in a feminine organization (e.g., hospital). However, the small number of intuitive types could affect these results. If there had been more intuitives, other characteristics of the questionnaire (e.g. Visions) might have had more significant results as well.

Several limitations should be mentioned to help future research in this area. The questionnaire used had a forced ranking format, which creates some limitations. The reliability cannot be tested, and the selected categories are not necessarily the best possible. Despite the limitations, the results supported the MBTI theory, and further studies of this kind can be considered. The leaders' point of view would be interesting to know. Do they try to give the same kind of leadership that the subordinates want? For example, does the SJ leader give clearly set goals, when SJ subordinates would want such goals.

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The Effects of Subordinates' Personality on Appraisals of Transformational Leadership

Tiina Hautala

Abstract

To enhance leaders' development, a great variety of appraisal systems have been applied, becoming popular measure tools for leader performance. In these measurements, the research is usually focused on personality of leaders. It is argued here, that subordinates' personalities have also impact on ratings they give of their leaders' transformational behaviour. Those ratings are examined in this study. The study sample consisted of 167 subordinates' ratings of their leaders. The results indicated that extraverted and feeling subordinates give clearly higher ratings than their introverted and thinking counterparts.

As Avolio and Howell (1992) argued both leaders' and subordinates' personalities are important in prediction of satisfaction and performance. Many others have also stressed the importance of subordinates in the process of leadership and point out that most theories are too concentrated on leaders (Klein & House, 1995; Meindl, 1995). So, it is essential to understand both leaders' and subordinates' personalities to enhance leadership skills, mutual understanding and communication.

In order to improve leadership skills, feedback from subordinates and others is among the most commonly used tools (Atwater, Waldman, Atwater & Cartier, 2000; Ostroff, Atwater & Feinberg, 2004; Roush, 1992). Moreover, it has been shown that leaders are willing to modify their behaviour according to this feedback (Atwater, Roush & Fischtal, 1995; Johnson & Ferstl, 1999). In terms of managerial performance, several multi-source feedback studies related to personality have been made (e.g. Brutus & Fleenor, 1999; Fletcher & Baldry, 2000). However, these disparate studies have usually been concerned with the personality of the target (manager), and the impact of raters have not been considered. Several studies proved to be concentrated on transformational

leaders' personality (e.g. Hetland & S&al, 2003; Judge & Bono, 2000; Ployhart, Lim & Chan, 2001), but only one study did focus transformational leadership and the influence of subordinates personality on their feedback (Roush, 1992). Indeed, this area suggests further research in order to provide some more information about this important relationship.

The present study investigates subordinates' personality and its effect on the ratings they give concerning their leaders' transformational behaviour. Accordingly, the key research question is: Does the personality of subordinates' have an impact on the ratings which they give concerning their leaders' transformational behaviour? In addition, this study investigates if some personalities show a tendency to rate their leaders as more transformational than others do. Finally, the objective is to suggest some insights into mutual relationships between leaders and subordinates via transformational leadership appraisals; moreover, understanding personality differences would make the feedback processes less demanding to both parties.

Transformational leadership behaviour has been studied widely in the last twenty years and the positive outcomes of it cannot be denied (e.g. Clover, 1990; Marshall, Rosenbach, Deal, & Peterson, 1992; Sparks & Schenk, 2001). Most common definitions of transformational leadership include (according to Bass, 1985; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Kouzes & Posner, 1988; Tichy & DeVanna, 1986) visioning, enabling, being an example, and challenging. Additionally, there are associated definitions of inspirational leader behaviour (Bass, 1985), encouraging (Kouzes and Posner, 1988), and individualized consideration (Bass, 1985).

Transformational Leadership

According to Burns (1978), transformational and transactional leadership are distinct from each other, whereas Bass (1985) states that a leader can be both transactional and transformational. The difference between transformational and transactional leadership is in the way of motivating others. The first one raises subordinates' motivation and gets

them to do more than it is expected. A transformational leader helps people to see deeper purposes behind their work, thus making them achieve high levels of motivation. The act or behaviour which is desired by transactional leaders, on the other hand, is usually rewarded in a very concrete way. This leader motivates subordinates through tangible rewards and not by means of communication on deeper aspects as a transformational leader does (Bass, 1985). In summary, transactional leadership is quite effective for short term goals and with certain subordinates, but in a long-term perspective transformational leadership is more efficient.

Since Bass, several other scholars have focused on transformational leadership. The most common facet of transformational leadership among different definitions is that of vision. For example, a long-term motivation can be achieved by offering appealing visions to the subordinates (Bass, 1985; Kouzes & Posner, 1988). Therefore, a common purpose of transformational leadership is to motivate subordinates so they become independent and develop an entrepreneurial attitude to their work (Bass, 1985; Kouzes & Posner, 1988; Tichy & Devanna, 1990). The individual consideration (enabling) remains the essential ingredient when attempting to transform every subordinate.

In this study, a modified Finnish version of Kouzes and Posner's (1988) Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) is used. The original LPI consists of five dimensions: 1) challenging the process 2) inspiring a shared vision 3) enabling others to act 4) modelling the way, and 5) encouraging the heart. This inventory is well suited to the appraisal of leadership behaviour by both leaders and subordinates (see e.g. Herold & Fields, 2004). Kouzes and Posner's (1988) theory behind the questionnaire also appears to correspond well with Finnish culture, not to mention its capacity to adequately represent the main ideas behind transformational leadership.

Myers-Briggs Theory

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) is a commonly used tool in research on organizations and leadership (see e.g. Berr, Church & Waclawski, 2000; Jessup, 2002; Krumwiede, Sheu & Lavelle, 1998; Lindon 1995; McCarthy & Garavan, 1999; Nordvik & Brovold, 1998; Routamaa & Ponto, 1994; Sundström & Busby, 1997; Van Eron & Burke, 1992), and it is used in this study as well.

Jung's (1921) work on psychological types was a base on which the Myers-Briggs theory was built. It includes eight different preferences, which describe a person's orientation of energy (extraversion, E, introversion, I), the way of gathering information (sensing, S, intuition, N), the way of making decisions (thinking, T, feeling, F) and the lifestyle (judging, J, perceiving, P). In every dimension a person has one preference stronger than another and from these stronger preferences emerges a person's personality type. Altogether there are sixteen possible personality types (e.g. ISTP, ESTJ, ENFP). The personality types are more than simply just the combination of preferences, even if the research concentrates mostly on these preferences. The dominance order of personality types further deepens the meaning of the type theory, and this explains the wide possibilities of MBTI in the research and use of consultation as well (Myers & Myers, 1990; Myers, McCaulley, Quenk & Hammer, 1998).

In this study, the focus is on the eight preferences (see Table 1) and their relation to the appraisals of transformational behaviour. Extraverted (E) people derive energy from the world around them, and they feel a loss of energy (depression, anxiety) when it is necessary to be alone for a long period of time. Introverted (I) persons lose energy when they spend long periods of time with other people, whereas they get new energy when they are able to be alone enough (Myers & Myers, 1990; Myers et al., 1998).

Sensing (S) types live in the here and now and they gather information via their five senses. That is why they are good at remembering and recognizing different tastes, outlooks and sounds. They approach work step-by-step and focus on the small things more than intuitive people. Intuitive people (N) are good at using their imagination, and they are more able to see the big picture. Their approach to work thus takes account of

the whole picture at the expense of smaller details (Myers & Myers, 1990; Myers et al., 1998).

Thinking (T) people are logical and direct. They make decisions using impersonal points of logic. Feeling (F) persons use logically their personal values when deciding. They are usually better at taking other persons' feelings into account as thinking types and that is why they are not so direct in their communication than thinking types (Myers & Myers, 1990; Myers et al., 1998).

Judging (J) types like order and closure. Their life style is decisive and they have tendency to control their own life and schedule upcoming events. Perceiving (P) types are flexible and their life style reflects a tendency to go with the flow. They are not very decisive which explains their flexibility (Myers & Myers, 1990; Myers et al., 1998).

Table 1. Eight preferences

Orientation of energy	
Extraverted (E) Out	Introverted (I) In
Way of gathering information	
Sensing (S) With five senses	Intuition (N) With hunches
Way of making decisions	
Thinking (T) With logical analysis	Feeling (F) With personal values
Lifestyle	
Judging (J) Decisive	Perceiving (P) Flexible

Earlier Studies

The relationship between subordinates and transformational leaders has been studied by e.g. Dvir and Shamir (2003), Humpreys, Weyant and Sprague (2003) and Wofford, Whittington and Goodwin (2001). Indeed, as Wofford et al. (2001) found out, individual motive patterns do serve as situational moderators for the effectiveness of transformational leadership. These studies have shown, for example, that highly committed subordinates rate their leaders as more transformational than less committed subordinates (Humpreys et al., 2003). Moreover, subordinates with a higher growth need strength, and higher autonomy needs rate transformational leaders as more effective than other subordinates (Wofford et al., 2001). More recently, Howell and Shamir (2005) have disclosed the role of subordinates in the charismatic leadership process and theoretically discussed the relation of followers' self-concept and identity with the charismatic leaders. They argued that followers with low self-concept clarity and relational identity are more prone to the "blind faith and unquestioning obedience" to the leader than followers with high self-concept clarity and collective identity. Some studies have also focused on the connection between transformational leadership and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (Roush, 1992; Roush & Atwater, 1992; Van Eron & Burke, 1992). However, very few of them have focused on the personality of subordinates (Roush, 1992) and thus more studies of this field are needed. In terms of the MBTI-studies, Roush's study (1992) indicated that sociable extraverts, tender-hearted feeling types, and adaptive perceiving subordinates gave more positive ratings of their leaders than did internal introverts, logical thinkers and orderly judgers.

Methodology

Sample

Data were collected from 38 leaders and their 167 subordinates during 1999-2002. The collection was conducted during training and developing sessions. The leaders comprised mainly middle-level leaders predominantly from within a manufacturing

organization. The amount of subordinates who gave appraisals varied from 1 to 27 per leader giving a mean number of subordinates' appraisals per leader of 4,4.

Instruments

A modified Finnish version of the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) (Posner & Kouzes, 1990) was used. The items of the questionnaire were rated on a Likert- scale ranging from not at all if not very rarely (1) to frequently if not constantly (5). Factor analyses (Varimax) were performed to ensure the correctness of the questionnaire's dimensions. Factor analyses were performed altogether on the sample of 900 leaders and subordinates. As a result, five questions were removed because either factor loadings were slight and divided into several factors equally, or two factors had almost equal and high (>0.4) loadings. Due to the somewhat different classification of dimensions, the titles of dimensions are distinct from the original LPI. However, reliabilities were adequate, since Cronbach's alphas range from .59 in Modeling to .87 in Enabling. In Posner and Kouzes' study the alphas reported were at least .70. In Brown and Posner's (2001) study alphas ranged from .66 to .84.

Factors loaded partly differently compared to Posner and Kouzes' original model. This is most probably due to the cultural differences In Mexico the LPI was different compared with the USA (Slater, Boone, Price, Martinez, Alvarez, Topete & Olea, 2002). Researchers thus proposed that the LPI is embedded in US culture. In Hong Kong, the questionnaire seemed to work best with three factors (Lam, 1998). Thus, the cultural differences can be one reason for somewhat different factors, even if theory and concept are the same. The titles of the dimensions are different here, due to the somehow different factors used, than in Posner and Kouzes' original model. Therefore, the five factors in this Finnish version characterise transformational leadership as Visioning, Challenging, Enabling, Modeling, and Rewarding. The mean score of all these five factors together is then regarded as the Overall Transformational Profile.

In this Finnish version of the inventory, Visioning consists of describing the ideal future to others, making sure that people hold onto common values, and communicating the philosophies of which is the best way to lead the organization. Challenging includes risk taking, undertaking innovations to improve the organization, and looking for challenging tasks. Enabling means respecting others, giving freedom to make independent decisions, creating a trusting atmosphere, and making others feel a sense of ownership in their projects. Modeling includes consistency of organizational values, and confidence in the philosophy of how to lead, and confirmation of planning and goal setting. Rewarding refers to celebrating, one way or another, when goals are met.

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator is a self-assessment instrument, where the respondent selects one of mostly two options for every item. The MBTI includes scores on four bipolar dimensions: extraversion-introversion (E/I), sensing-intuition (S/N), thinking-feeling (T/F), and judging-perceiving (J/P). Every item has two alternatives for the respondents to choose between. An individual is assigned a "type" classification based on one of sixteen possible categories. Internal consistency and construct validity have been proved by many researchers (see e.g. Gardner & Martinko, 1996; Myers et al., 1998). In this study, the Finnish research F-version is used. The construct validity and reliability of this form has been proved during a validation process of several years (see e.g. Järnlström, 2000). Järnlström (2000) reported internal consistency of .65 to .76 (Pearson's correlation coefficients) and of .79 to .86 (Cronbach's coefficient alpha).

Results

Most of the subordinates were extraverted (59%), sensing (84%), thinking (59%) and judging types (62%). The extraverted (75%), sensing (61%), thinking (83%) and judging (83%) types were also the most prevalent among the leaders. The t-test was used in the comparison of preference pairs (E/I, S/N, T/F, J/P) since the distribution was normal (Norusis, 1994, pp.17). The results are presented in Table 2. The statistically significant differences occurred in the preference pairs of extraversion/introversion and thinking/feeling.

In Challenging extraverted and feeling subordinates appraised leaders as more transformational than introverted and thinking subordinates. Feeling subordinates appraised their leaders as more Enabling. In Rewarding, as well as Overall Transformational Profile, extraverted and feeling subordinates rated their leaders higher than introverted and thinking subordinates.

Discussion

This study indicates that the appraisals of subordinates' with regard to their leaders' transformational behaviour depend also on the subordinates' personality. However, these results do not exclude the fact that the leader's personality probably affects the subordinates' ratings more strongly. Indeed, according to Roush's (1992) study the results revealed that the leader's personality is a more dominant factor of leadership ratings than the personality of subordinates when rated by subordinates.

The results indicated that the outgoing extraverts and harmony-appreciating feeling subordinates regarded their leaders as being more transformational than did introverted and thinking types. In terms of sensing-intuition and judging-perceiving there were no statistically significant differences.

Interactive extraverted types have a tendency towards higher self-ratings than reflective introverted types (see e.g. Berr et al., 2000) and, according to this study, of the ratings to others as well. Introverts' criticalness in their ratings seems to extend from themselves to their leaders as well. Usually criticalness has been connected with thinking not with an introverted preference (see e.g. Lawrence, 1997, p.5) but, according to Jung, introverts are over-critical, and they have a tendency to judge everything by their own critical standards (Storr, 1983, p.142). This tendency seems to be correct according to this study and some others as well (Berr et al., 2000). It seems that extraverted types give high ratings to themselves and others whereas introverted types give low ratings to themselves and others as well.

The feeling subordinates gave their leaders higher ratings than thinking subordinates. Thinking types are by nature more critical and they have an unconscious tendency to give direct critique. Conversely, feeling types have a tendency to give praise eagerly but they might experience difficulty in speaking out in criticizing others (Myers & Myers, 1990). According to Lawrence (1997, p.5) feeling persons are appreciative, trusting and valuing warmth in relationships. Thinking types are skeptical, firm-minded and using impersonal criteria. Even if feedback from leaders' transformational style was collected so that subordinates were anonymous these personality tendencies can be seen. In terms of anonymity, even if the feeling types did not have to create harmony atmosphere or "please" nobody, they still appraised their leaders more positively than thinking types. It seems like feeling types gain harmony with themselves also, when they give less-critical ratings.

These results supported partly Roush's (1992) study, where extraverts, feeling types, and perceiving subordinates gave more positive ratings than did introverts, thinking types and judging types. In this study, the extraverts and feeling types gave higher ratings than did introverts and thinking types. By contrast with Roush's (1992) study, the decisive judging types gave slightly more positive ratings than flexible perceiving types, even though the difference was not statistically significant.

The results of this sample did not confirm the assumption that the subordinates whose personality is similar to leaders will rate them higher. Otherwise, it would have been likely that the ratings of E,S,T,J (extraversion-sensing-thinking-judging) subordinates would have been higher, because leaders represented predominantly these preferences.

Findings of Wofford et al. (2001) indicate that some followers' are more susceptible to efforts of transformational leadership than others when followers' motive patterns appear to have an effect on the outcomes of transformational leadership (e.g. perceived effectiveness of leaders). Concerning this study and earlier results, it may be that some organizations include these susceptible subordinates more than others and thus the effectiveness and work satisfaction in these organizations may be lower. It would be interesting to see how the personality distribution will affect outcomes of certain

organizations in the same field, where the leaders have been rated as transformational leaders. For example, Wofford et al. (2001) suggest that transformational leaders may be more effective in some environments than they are in others. Accordingly, it may be that these leaders are more effective when subordinates have certain personalities.

Conclusions, Limitations and Implications of the Study

The purpose of this study was to find how personality affects subordinates' ratings of their leaders' transformational behaviour. The significant results were found in the extraversion-introversion and thinking-feeling dimensions. Results indicated that subordinates with extraverted and/or feeling preferences appraise their leaders more positively than those with introverted and thinking preferences.

When trying to enhance leadership skills it is imperative for leaders to understand that their behaviour is interpreted differently according to a subordinate's personality. Indeed, the same message that a leader is communicating (even if the content is the same) could be interpreted in several different ways depending on the personalities of the subordinates. Whilst the results of this study have indicated that there are differences in two of the dimensions of transformational leadership appraisals, this is not to say that the other two dimension might not have an impact on other leadership / management feedback. For example, Tsuzuki and Tamao (1998) found that subordinates with judging preference anticipated higher work satisfaction when the manager's structure was enhanced, when compared to perceiving subordinates. In this case, subordinates' extraversion-introversion and thinking-feeling dimensions affect mostly ratings of transformational behaviour, but these, as well as sensing-intuition and judging-perceiving, might affect the managerial performance, performance discussions etc. Future research is needed to find more connections with the role of subordinates in leadership processes.

In organizational settings, these results would be valuable especially from leaders' point of view. Nowadays almost every leader is having feedback from several sources and

this can be quite critical sometimes. Understanding these personality differences may be the method for the leaders to analyze and understand the feedback. It is argued here that the leaders' feedback-giving and ratings by subordinates have the same tendencies regarding personality. That means that leaders with introversion and/or thinking preferences will give more critical feedback to their subordinates. Hereby, the awareness of underrating and overrating tendencies will most probably diminish when the parties understand their personalities better.

In terms of future research, it would be interesting to investigate the effect of both leaders' and subordinates' personality on appraisals, i.e. what is the difference between extraverted and introverted subordinates' appraisals when they are appraising introverted leaders. Furthermore, it would be instructive to study more closely the similarity effect. For example, are subordinates with the same personalities as their leader more eager to give higher ratings than subordinates with opposite personalities? Are introverted subordinates as critical of introverted leaders, or are they even more critical because of similarity? Since certain personalities favour certain organizational fields (Macdaid, McCaulley, and Kainz, 1986), it might be that organizations with mostly extraverted-feeling subordinates are more appreciative of their leaders and others overall when compared to organizations with predominantly introverted-thinking subordinates? What is more, can it be assumed that members of those extraverted-feeling organizations have better job satisfaction than others. When considering these questions, the impact of personality on appraisals merits further research.

Table 2. Results. Means, standard deviations and *t*-values of each preference pair. Positive *t*-value indicates that preference on the left side has a higher mean. E.g. Positive *t*-value at Visioning indicates that the ratings given by extraverted people are higher than the ratings given by introverted people. Level of significance: **p*<.05, ***p*<.01., ****p*<.001

	<u>Extrav. Introv.</u>		<u>Sensing Intuition</u>		<u>Feeling Thinking</u>		<u>Judging Perceiving</u>	
	n=98	n=66	n=140	n=27	n=68	n=99	n=103	n=64
Visioning								
Mean	29.3	28.2	28.6	30.0	30.0	28.1	29.0	28.6
s.d	6.8	6.5	6.7	6.5	5.8	7.2	7.3	5.6
<i>t</i> -value	0.988		0.968		1.918		0.382	
Challenging								
Mean	29.0	26.8	28.0	29.0	29.9	26.9	28.4	27.7
s.d	6.6	6.9	6.4	8.7	6.1	6.9	7.0	6.4
<i>t</i> -value	2.058 *		0.585		2.893 **		0.688	
Enabling								
Mean	32.5	30.9	31.5	33.6	33.9	30.5	31.8	31.9
s.d	9.1	8.9	9.0	9.1	7.7	9.6	9.2	8.9
<i>t</i> -value	1.137		1.091		2.474 *		-0.033	
Modeling								
Mean	37.3	35.7	36.6	37.0	36.9	36.4	37.0	36.2
s.d	6.9	6.0	6.6	6.6	7.1	6.2	6.6	6.5
<i>t</i> -value	1.470		0.333		0.485		0.769	
Rewarding								
Mean	24.2	19.9	22.2	23.5	24.3	21.1	23.1	21.3
s.d	10.3	9.3	11.3	9.9	10.0	10.0	10.6	9.1
<i>t</i> -value	2.815 **		0.613		2.048 *		1.107	
Overall Transformational Profile								
Mean	30.5	28.5	29.5	30.6	31.0	28.7	30.0	29.2
s.d	6.4	5.6	6.1	6.7	5.7	6.4	6.5	5.6
<i>t</i> -value	1.984 *		0.886		2.318 *		0.781	

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The Relationship between Personality and Transformational Leadership

Tiina Hautala

Abstract

Purpose – The purpose was to find if the relationship between personality and transformational leadership exists, when the appraisals are from leaders themselves and from their subordinates.

Design / methodology / approach – The quantitative analyses of 439 leaders and 380 subordinates.

Findings – Results indicated that the relationship between personality and transformational leadership exists. Subordinates' and leaders' ratings did not converge. According to leaders' self-ratings, the extraverted, intuitive and perceiving preferences favour transformational leadership. On the contrary, subordinates' ratings indicated that leaders with sensing preference are associated with transformational leadership.

Research limitations/implications – Even if sample size is relatively extensive, it represents mainly middle-level leaders. More data would be needed to gain the overall picture of this topic in all leadership levels.

Practical implications – Results of this study can be used in training and development, when trying to enhance mutual understanding. Also when leaders are appraising themselves they can have more realistic picture when knowing their tendencies due to the personality.

Originality / value of paper – The results provides further information of this field, where the earlier results have been some how contradictory. Paper shows how different personalities tend to over- or underestimate themselves when comparing to subordinates ratings.

Keywords Appraisals, Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, personality, transformational leadership

Paper type – Research paper

Introduction

Leadership theories began with trait theories of great leaders (see e.g. Bass, 1990; Stogdill, 1974) and after several decades the personality of leaders stimulated interest once again (e.g. Austin & Murray, 1993; Bartram, 1992; Bass, 1985; Hetland & Sandal, 2003; Peterson et al., 2003). Partially, this is due of the connection of high self-awareness with effectiveness which is generally accepted (Atwater & Yammarino, 1992; Bass & Yammarino, 1991; Bernardin, 1986). In case of transformational leaders, the personality of them have gain interest as well (Hetland & Sandal, 2003; Judge & Bono, 2000; Roush, 1992; Roush & Atwater, 1992; Van Eron & Burke, 1992). Some of those studies have concentrated only either leaders' or subordinates' appraisals or some of them have been performed only in military settings. Thus this area merits further investigation, especially in the organizational settings, where the appraisals of both leaders and subordinates are included.

The aim of this study is to investigate the relationship between personality and transformational leadership from particular aspects: a) are certain personalities more transformational than others? b) are appraisals of subordinates similar to leaders' own concerning their transformational leadership behaviour? c) do some personalities appraise themselves more positively than others? The purpose is to discover the different views about personality's impact on the behaviour of leaders as well as to gain some new insights into how this information could be used.

The firm position of transformational leadership in research is due to its positive outcomes that it has been connected with (e.g. Clover, 1990; Deluga, 1992; Marshall, Rosenbach, Deal & Peterson, 1992; Masi & Cooke, 2000; Medley & Larochelle, 1995; Sparks & Schenk, 2001). Also, its suitability in the demands of the changing business world makes it appealing. When leaders are trying to transform subordinates, as well as when they are trying to develop themselves as transformational leaders, leaders should be aware about how their behaviour is interpreted by others. Without proper self-knowledge, development as a leader will not progress. Additionally, without a realistic view of oneself misunderstandings arise easily (see e.g. Garrety, Badham, Morrigan,

Rifkin & Zanko, 2003). In leadership situations, the patterns of personality will contribute to the understanding of others. In the future, the role of transformational leadership will be stressed even more, due to a more professional workforce, lower hierarchies and wider networks where team-work and co-operation are key components.

Transformational leadership

The theory and studies of transformational leadership were started initially by Burns (1978). Burns' idea was based on the premise that transforming leadership raises both leaders' and subordinates' level of motivation and morale. When transformational leadership causes more active behaviour of every participants due to inner motivation, the transactional leaders try to motivate subordinates by rewarding or punishing them (Burns, 1978).

Research has indicated that for example higher productivity, lower employee turnover rates, higher job satisfaction and motivation are due to transformational leadership more than transactional leadership or nontransformational leadership (e.g. Clover, 1990; Deluga, 1992; Marshall et al., 1992; Masi & Cooke, 2000; Medley & Larochelle, 1995; Sparks & Schenk, 2001). Studies of transformational leadership have recently focused on the development and training of transformational leadership, specific areas within it as well as testing and developing its measurements. Since Burns, several researchers have studied and defined transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Kouzes & Posner, 1988; Tichy & Devanna, 1990) and operationalized the concept (e.g. Bass & Avolio, 1990; Kouzes & Posner, 1988; Podsakoff, 1990; Roush, 1992). Bass' (1985) definition of the relationship between transformational leader and subordinate includes charisma (or idealized influence), inspirational leadership, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation. Kouzes and Posner's (1988) view is based on trust. If a leader is perceived by subordinates to be reliable, the subordinates will participate to gain the common vision. They discovered that executives who persuaded others to join them followed the path: the vision-involvement-persistence (VIP) model. The more specific dynamics of this model

consists of five parts: challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart (Kouzes & Posner, 1988). Tichy and Devanna's (1990) definition of transformational leadership is concerned with change, innovation, and entrepreneurship. According to them, transformational leadership is processed through recognizing the need for revitalization, creating a new vision and institutionalizing change. Several instruments have been developed to measure transformational leadership. These include, for example: the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) by Bass and Avolio (1990), the Leader Behaviour Questionnaire (LBQ) (Sashkin et al., 1992), the Leader Description Questionnaire (LDQ) by Clover and Rosenbach, 1986 (see e.g. Sashkin et al., 1992), the Leadership Report (LR) by Burke, 1988 (see e.g. Sashkin & Burke, 1990), the Leadership Feedback Questionnaire (LFQ) by Roush (1992), the Transformational Leadership Questionnaire (TLQ-LGV) by Alban-Metcalfe and Alimo Metcalfe (2000), and the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) by Kouzes and Posner (1988). Some of the instruments measure both transformational and transactional leadership (e.g. Bass & Avolio, 1990) and some focus only on transformational leadership (e.g. Kouzes & Posner, 1988). In the present study, a Finnish version of Kouzes and Posner's (1988) Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) is selected to use.

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

When considering leadership and organizational studies, personality has been usually defined by the Five-Factor Model or "Big Five", by the California Psychological Inventory, CPI by the Cattell's Sixteen Personality Factors Questionnaire, 16PF or by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, MBTI. Usually personality instruments have been criticized because of their permanent trait approach. The advantage of the MBTI is the dynamic and positive approach as well as steady theory behind it. This indicator has quickly become one of the world's most widely used tools when defining personality (Myers et al., 1998, p. 9). Due to its usefulness and comprehensible approach it has become a common method when studying leadership (see e.g. Gallén, 1997; Osborn &

Osborn, 1992; McCarthy & Garavan, 1999; Walck, 1997) and thus it is used in this study as well.

The MBTI is based on Jung's work on psychological types (1921) and has been further developed by Briggs and Myers. Jung (1921) developed three dimensions to explore an individual's psychological type, namely orientation of energy, process of perception and process of judging. Briggs and Myers added a fourth dimension: attitude dealing with the outside world. Thus, the MBTI is based on eight different preferences, which encompass different orientations of energy (extraversion, E and introversion, I), processes of perception (sensing, S and intuition, N), processes of judging (thinking, T and feeling, F) and attitudes towards dealing with the outside world (perceiving, P and judging, J). These preferences result in sixteen different personality types e.g. ISTJ (introversion-sensing-thinking-judging), ENTP (extraversion-intuition-thinking-perceiving). (McCaulley, 1990; Myers & Myers, 1990).

In this study, the focus is on the eight preferences and their linkage to the appraisals of transformational behaviour. *Extraverted* (E) people are usually social and they get energy from others. Contradictory, *introverted* (I) people will lose energy when around others and thus they need to spend more time alone than extraverts. *Sensing* (S) types usually live in the 'here and now' and they tend to gather information via their five senses. They approach work step-by-step and focus on the small things more than intuitive people. *Intuitives* (N) prefer to use well their imagination and ability to see the big picture. *Thinking* (T) people tend to make decisions using impersonal points of logic. *Feeling* (F) persons adopt the logical use of their personal values when deciding. They are usually better at taking other persons' feelings into account than thinking types. *Judging* (J) types prefer order and closure whereas *perceiving* (P) types tend to be flexible and their lifestyle reflects a tendency to go with the flow (Myers & Myers, 1990; Myers, McCaulley, Quenk & Hammer, 1998).

Transformational Leadership and Personality

The personality characteristics regarded of transformational leaders include for example: creativity, novelty, innovativeness, proneness to risk, courageous, believing in people, value-driven, life-long learners, pragmatism, nurturance, feminine attributes and self-confidence (Bass, 1985; Tichy & Devanna, 1990; Ross & Offerman, 1997). Most of these qualities can be connected with intuition, feeling and perceiving preferences according to theory of the MBTI. Intuitive and perceiving people are usually creative risk-takers and feeling people make their decisions basing on their values and are usually connected with feminine attributes (McCaulley, 1990; Myers & Myers, 1990; Walck, 1997).

Several studies proved to be concentrated on transformational leaders' personality, with different personality measures. This interest strongly indicates the importance of this area. Concerning the 5-factor model (FFM) of personality, results have indicated that extroversion (Bono & Judge, 2004; Judge & Bono, 2000; Ployhart et al., 2001), agreeableness (Judge & Bono, 2000) and openness (Ployhart et al., 2001) were correlated with transformational leadership. In these studies the raters were subordinates (Judge & Bono, 2000) and trained assessors (Ployhart et al., 2001).

In the case of 16PF, the conformity was predictive of transformational behavior when superiors rated participants. However, in the case of subordinates, intelligence was connected with transformational leadership (Atwater & Yammarino, 1993). Hetland and Sandal (2003) studied 4 scales of 16PF (warmth, reasoning, openness to change and tension) finding warmth as the strongest personality correlate. A significant negative relationship occurred between tension and transformational leadership. Also, all those four scales explained significantly but modestly the variance of transformational leadership, according to subordinates. Further, according to superiors, the openness to change was predictive when they were rating participants.

Concerning Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, according to leaders' self-ratings, intuitive and perceiving preferences were more likely to indicate a transformational belief system

than introversion, sensing and judging (Van Eron & Burke, 1992). Church and Waclawski (1998) added also extraversion to these preferences, which indicated transformational leadership. According to them, both leaders' and subordinates' ratings indicated that these preferences: extraverted, intuitive and perceiving are more transformational than their counterparts. This was partially supported by Roush's (1992) study of subordinates' appraisals when feeling, perceiving, intuition, and extraversion preferences, received the most positive transformational ratings. Introverted and thinking leaders received the next most positive ratings, and the least positive ratings received were from sensing and judging leaders. Quite in contrast to these studies, Roush and Atwater (1992) found that the sensing and feeling preferences were strongly associated with transformational leadership according to subordinates' ratings. Also the results of Atwater and Yammarino (1993) support these findings concerning feeling preference. Overall, as can be seen, results of this area are quite contradictory. Further research is needed of this important topic to enhance transformational leadership development.

Methods

In this study the modified version of Kouzes and Posner's (1988) Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) is used when measuring transformational leadership. The personality is described with Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI). The LPI effectively represents the main ideas surrounding transformational leadership and furthermore, after modification, it is well-suited to the Finnish culture.

Sample and procedure

Data were collected from 439 leaders and 380 subordinates during the years 1996-2002. The collection, when it was feasible and when the leaders allowed for the data collection, was carried out during training and development sessions. The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) were filled in by the leaders. Subordinates only filled in the LPI. The leaders were asked to give the

LPI-form to at least three of their subordinates in alphabetical order, to avoid possibility that leaders "select" subordinates who will respond. Subordinates then sent these forms directly to the researcher. When the data were analysed the t-test was used, in order to look differences between personalities. T-test is used when two variables are compared and the distribution of the data is normal (Norusis, 1994, p.17).

The sample of those leaders who evaluated themselves (n=439):

The leaders' mean age was 43 years, mean work experience was 13 years, and the average number of subordinates per leader was 38. Gender distribution was as follows: 64 per cent of the leaders were male and accordingly 36 per cent were female. The leaders' fields of activity were information and technology (13%), teaching and education (12%), trade (11%), health and welfare (10%) and the metal industry (9%). The leaders were mostly engineers (16%), technicians (14%), graduates of a Finnish commercial institute (11%), graduated engineers (8%) and Masters of Science (Econ.) (6%).

The sample of leaders who were evaluated (n=121)

The leaders mean age was 43 years, mean work experience as leaders 11 years and the average number of subordinates was 38. The sample comprised 59% male leaders. The leaders' fields of activity were health and welfare (15%), teaching and education (13%), metal industry (9%), paper industry (7%), services (7%) and trade (6%). Leaders were mostly engineers (19%), graduates of a Finnish commercial institute (12%) and graduate engineers (11%).

The study concentrated separately on a) 439 leaders whose MBTI-type was known and b) 380 subordinates' appraisals of their 121 leaders whose MBTI type was known. Most of the 121 leaders also belonged to the sample of 439 leaders. Therefore, the demographics of both samples were quite similar and the samples comparable. The number of subordinates who gave appraisals varied from one to nine. The mean number of the subordinates' appraisals per leader was three.

*Instruments*Leadership Practises Inventory

The Finnish version of the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) (Posner and Kouzes, 1990) was adopted. The Leadership Practices Inventory is based on interviews with managers. This inventory is well suited to the appraisal of leadership behaviour by both leaders and subordinates (see e.g. Harold & Fields, 2004). It is noteworthy that the Leadership Practices Inventory also consists of the rewarding dimension (encouraging the heart), even though contingent rewards have usually been included in transactional leadership (Bass, 1985). According to Yammarino and Bass (1990) contingent rewards and promises and active management-by-exception (transactional leadership) are significantly related to effectiveness and satisfaction, but these associations were less than those involving transformational leadership. In Roush and Atwater's study (1992) subordinates were more likely to make an extra effort for transformational leaders, but also contingent promises and contingent rewards were significantly associated with extra effort. A positive relationship between contingent rewards and an organization's outcome is also supported e.g. by Tucker, Bass and Daniel (1992) and Yammarino and Spangler (1998). According to Goodwin, Wofford and Whittington (2001) rewarding behaviour is included in appropriate behaviour of both transformational and transactional leaders, and that is why some researchers include contingent reward in transformational leadership (e.g. Barling, Slater & Kelloway, 2000). It may be concluded that the role of rewarding depends on the importance of either psychological or material rewards. In the LPI, as well as in this study, psychological rewards are dealt with.

The items in the questionnaire were rated on a Likert- scale ranging from 'not at all if not very rarely' (1) to 'frequently if not constantly' (5). Factor analyses (Varimax) were performed from a total sample of 900 leaders and subordinates to ensure the correctness of the questionnaire's dimensions (see Appendix I). Five questions were removed because either factor loadings were slight and divided into several factors equally, or two factors had almost equal and high (>0.4) loadings.

Loaded factors differed slightly compared to Posner and Kouzes' original model. This tendency seems to be common elsewhere as well. For example, the loadings of the other transformational leadership questionnaire (Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire) were different in Norway than in the original version (Hetland & Sandal, 2003). In study from Mexico (Slater, Boone, Price, Martinez, Alvarez, Topete & Olea, 2002), the LPI results were different from those in the USA. Researchers proposed that LPI is embedded in US culture. In Hong Kong, the questionnaire seemed to work best on three factors (Lam, 1998). Thus cultural differences can be one reason for somewhat different factors, even if theory and concept are the same. The titles of the dimensions are different here, due to these somewhat different factors. Therefore, the five factors in this Finnish version characterize the transformational leadership as Visioning, Challenging, Enabling, Modeling, and Rewarding. The mean of these five practices altogether is regarded as the Overall Transformational Profile. This sixth overall profile is not typically computed for LPI, but however; e.g. Brown and Posner (2001) have used composite scoring of LPI as a transformational leadership index.

In this Finnish version, Visioning can be described as the ideal future to others, making sure that people hold common values, and communicating the views of which is the best way to lead the organization. Challenging includes risk taking, making innovations to improve organization, and looking for challenging tasks. Enabling means respecting others, giving them freedom to make their own decisions, creating a trusting atmosphere, and making others feel the projects as their own. Modeling includes consistency of organizational values and confidence in the philosophy of how to lead, and confirmation of planning and goal setting. Rewarding means celebrating, somehow, when the goals are met.

In order to form the leadership dimensions for subsequent analyses, the loaded (over 0.5) variables of each factor were summed. Additionally, these sums were standardized to get them comparable. Reliabilities were adequate, since Cronbach's alphas ranged from .59 in Modeling to .87 in Enabling. In Posner and Kouzes' study the alphas were reported to be at least .70. In Brown and Posner's (2001) study alphas ranked from .66 to .84.

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator is a self-assessment instrument, where the respondent selects one of two options for every item. The MBTI includes scores on four bipolar dimensions: extraversion-introversion (E/I), sensing-intuition (S/N), thinking-feeling (T/F), and judging-perceiving (J/P). Every item has two alternatives for the respondents to choose between. An individual is assigned a "type" classification based on one of sixteen possible categories. In this study the focus is on the eight preferences not on the whole type.

The foundations of the MBTI-questionnaire started with the 20-year period of behavioural observation by Isabel Briggs Myers and Katharine Briggs. The first items of the questionnaire were validated between the years 1942 and 1944. Since then the development and research into validity and reliability of the questionnaire has continued and new forms of the questionnaire have evolved. Articles concerning the MBTI's validity and reliability can be dated back to 1977 when the first journal of the Journal of the Psychological Type was published. In the late seventies most of the research on psychometrics and validity were carried out by Carskadon and his colleagues. Over time, several others have become interested in the subject as well. The Journal of Psychological Type in 1997 (42) contains summaries of 305 articles from 1979-1997 and of those articles over 40 are concerned with psychometrics and the validity of the MBTI. Overall, the validity of the MBTI has been proved at the four preferences level, as well as at the type level. Internal consistency is high when both the Split-Half and Coefficient Alpha Reliabilities are measured. More recently, internal consistency and construct validity have been proved by several researchers (see e.g. Gardner & Martinko, 1996; Myers et al., 1998). Gender, age, membership in the minority ethnic group, and developmental level are just some of the topics that have been researched when testing the reliability of the MBTI (see Myers et al., 1998).

In this study, the Finnish research F-version was used. The construct validity and reliability of this form have been proved during a validation process lasting several years (see e.g. Järnlström, 2000). Järnlström (2000) reported an internal consistency

(Pearson's correlation coefficients) of .65 to .76 and (Cronbach's coefficient alpha) of .79 to .86.

Results

At the preference level extraverted (75%), sensing (57%), thinking (73%) and judging (77%) were in the majority of those leaders who evaluated themselves. Of the leaders who were evaluated, most shared the preferences extravert (66%), sensing (57%), thinking (71%) and judging (74%). Most of these leaders had the preferences of logically deciding thinking (T) with decisive judging (J). According to Routamaa, Honkonen, Asikainen and Pollari (1997) Finnish managers' personality types are mostly TJs, so these samples correspond closely with Finnish managers' MBTI-types.

The transformational profile of preferences E/I, S/N, T/F and J/P (Tables I and II)

The most statistically significant differences were found in the Rewarding and Challenging parts. More of those differences were found in leaders' self-ratings than in subordinates' ratings.

Extraverted leaders evaluated themselves as being much more **Visioning** than introverts ($p < 0.001$). According to subordinates, the sensing leaders were more visioning than intuitive leaders ($p < 0.05$). In **Challenging**, extraverted leaders' self-ratings were higher than introverts' ($p < 0.001$) intuitive leaders' ratings were higher than sensing types ($p < 0.001$) and perceiving leaders' ratings higher than judging leaders' ($p < 0.001$). There were no statistical differences in the case of subordinates concerning the first three pairs of preferences. With regard to judging/perceiving, subordinates did agree, when the perceiving leaders were rated more challenging ($p < 0.05$). In terms of leaders' self-ratings, extraverted leaders were more **Enabling** than introverts ($p < 0.001$) as well as feeling types compared to thinking types ($p < 0.05$). Subordinates' results did not differ significantly. Extraverted leaders rated themselves higher than Introverts in **Modeling**

($p < 0.001$). In case of subordinates, sensing leaders were rated as more Modeling than intuitive leaders ($p < 0.05$). In **Rewarding** behaviour, several significant differences were found. Leaders with extraverted preferences rated themselves as more Rewarding than introverted leaders ($p < 0.001$). These results were in agreement with subordinates' opinions ($p < 0.05$). Furthermore, subordinates rated sensing and feeling leaders higher in this dimension than intuitive and thinking types ($p < 0.05$). Leaders' self-evaluations indicated that perceiving types are more Rewarding than judging types ($p < 0.001$).

According to the leaders' self-ratings on the **Overall Transformational Profile**, extraverted, intuitive and perceiving types received higher ratings compared to introversion ($p < 0.001$), sensing ($p < 0.01$) and judging ($p < 0.05$) types. According to subordinates, the significant differences were only present in the sensing-intuition dimension, where sensing types were rated higher ($p < 0.01$).

Discussion

Leaders demonstrated a tendency to evaluate themselves as more transformational than subordinates' appraisals indicated. This is supported by many studies (Roush & Atwater, 1992; Yammarino & Atwater, 1997). Especially interactive extraverted types gave themselves clearly higher scores than reflective introverted types. This result is in agreement with several other studies where extraverts have displayed a tendency to overrate themselves (Berr et al., 2000; Van Velsor & Fleenor, 1994; Wilson & Wilson, 1994). As Myers and Myers (1995, p. 54) stated, introverts' qualities should be pointed out, not only to extraverts but sometimes even to introverts themselves. Extraverts tend to be louder and quicker in action than introverts. Usually, at least in Western culture, people are more appreciative towards extraverts' way of living, and the self-confidence of introverts may therefore be lower, which is seen in the low ratings they give themselves. The transformational leadership has been studied cross-culturally, but in case of personality, culture and transformational leadership this area merits research. So far, the comparable studies lack from this area. It may be, that introverted leaders would appreciate themselves higher as transformational leaders in Eastern countries. More

over, followers' appraisals of their leaders' behaviour could vary from the present study as well.

Table I. Means, standard deviations and *t*-values of comparisons of preferences. Leaders' self-evaluations and subordinates' appraisals of their leaders. Positive *t*-value indicates that preference on the left side has a higher mean. E.g. Positive *t*-value at Visioning indicates that the ratings of extraverted preferences are higher than the ratings of the introverted. **p*<.05, ***p*<.01., ****p*<.001

	<i>Leaders' self-evaluations</i>		<i>Subordinates' appraisals of</i>		<i>Leaders' self-evaluations</i>		<i>Subordinates' appraisals of</i>	
	<i>Extrav.</i>	<i>Introv.</i>	<i>Extrav.</i>	<i>Introv.</i>	<i>SensingIntuition</i>	<i>SensingIntuition</i>	<i>SensingIntuition</i>	<i>SensingIntuition</i>
	n=330	n=109	n= 254	n=125	n=249	n=190	n=212	n=167
Visioning								
Mean	31.5	28.8	29.3	27.7	30.5	31.3	29.6	27.7
s.d	6.3	6.0	7.8	7.8	6.7	5.9	8.2	7.2
<i>t</i> -value	3.855 ***		1.790		-1.388		2.354 *	
Challenging								
Mean	36.3	33.2	33.0	31.4	34.3	37.3	32.6	32.3
s.d	5.9	5.7	7.2	7.2	5.8	6.0	7.1	7.3
<i>t</i> -value	4.677 ***		1.959		-4.859 ***		0.424	
Enabling								
Mean	40.0	37.1	35.4	35.0	39.1	39.5	35.8	34.6
s.d	4.2	4.6	7.5	7.6	4.6	4.3	7.8	7.1
<i>t</i> -value	6.117 ***		0.402		-1.388		1.531	
Modeling								
Mean	39.7	37.1	37.7	38.2	38.9	39.3	38.5	37.1
s.d	5.1	5.4	6.5	6.6	5.5	5.0	6.5	6.5
<i>t</i> -alue	4.480 ***		- 0.609		-1.202		2.078 *	
Rewarding								
Mean	27.5	22.5	24.3	21.5	25.8	26.8	24.4	22.0
s.d	10.2	9.1	11.1	10.5	10.4	9.8	11.5	10.2
<i>t</i> -value	4.225 ***		2.367 *		-1.044		2.167 *	
Overall Transformational Profile								
Mean	35.0	31.7	32.0	30.8	33.7	34.9	32.3	30.7
s.d	4.2	4.0	5.8	5.7	4.5	4.2	6.0	5.4
<i>t</i> -value	6.842 ***		1.920		-2.924 **		2.575 **	

Table II. Means, standard d
Leaders' self-evaluat
t-value indicates tha
Positive *t*-value at V
are higher than the
****p*<.001

	<i>Leaders self- evaluations</i>		<i>Subordinates' appraisals of</i>		<i>Leaders' self- evaluations</i>		<i>Subordinates' appraisals of</i>	
	<i>Think.</i>	<i>Feel.</i>	<i>Think.</i>	<i>Feel.</i>	<i>Judg.</i>	<i>Perceiv.</i>	<i>Judg.</i>	<i>Perceiv.</i>
	n=319	n=120	n=273	n=106	n=339	n=100	n=279	n=100
Visioning								
Mean	31.1	30.2					28.8	28.7
s.d	6.3	6.6			30.9	30.8	8.2	6.9
t-value	1.344		28.3	29.9	6.5	5.9	0.089	
			8.0	7.3	0.085			
			-1.771					
Challenging								
Mean	35.8	34.9					32.0	33.8
s.d	5.9	6.2			35.0	37.4	7.1	7.5
t-value	1.437		32.4	32.7	6.0	5.9	-2.056 *	
			7.4	6.6	-3.447 ***			
			-0.335					
Enabling								
Mean	39.0	40.1					35.4	35.0
s.d	4.5	4.3			39.2	39.7	8.0	6.0
t-value	-2.169 *		34.9	36.3	4.6	4.1	0.440	
			7.7	6.8	-0.882			
			-1.611					
Modeling								
Mean	39.2	38.9					37.8	38.3
s.d	5.4	4.9			39.3	38.2	6.7	5.9
t-value	0.508		37.6	6.7	5.3	5.0	-0.654	
			38.7	6.1	1.868			
			-1.431					
Rewarding								
Mean	26.0	27.0					23.6	22.5
s.d	9.9	10.9			25.1	30.1	11.5	9.5
t-value	-0.904		22.6	25.2	9.7	10.8	0.951	
			11.0	10.9	-4.356 ***			
			-2.030 *					
Overall Transformation al Profile								
Mean	34.2	34.1					31.6	31.6
s.d	4.2	4.9			33.9	35.2	6.0	4.9
t-value	0.161		31.2	32.5	4.3	4.5	0.13	
			5.9	5.2	-2.515 *			
			-1.835					

The extraverts' tendency to be more Rewarding may be due to extraverts' appreciation of other people's opinions, and thus acting accordingly. Introverts on the other hand do not need the opinions of others to be satisfied with what they are doing and thus they do not notice others need of recognition (Myers & Myers, 1995, p. 55).

Future oriented intuitive leaders tend to rate themselves as being more transformational than practical sensing leaders, whereas according to subordinates sensing leaders were more transformational than intuitives. The MBTI-theory expects intuitive leaders to be more transformational and especially in visioning and challenging due to their natural tendency to be initiators, inventors, enterprising and promoters. Furthermore, they are imaginative and they concentrate on the future (Myers & Myers, 1990, p. 63). The tendency for intuitive people to be more positive in their own appraisals can be due to their more positive self-image gained in school and from the views of their own supervisors (Berr et al., 2000; Myers et al., 1998, pp. 268-284). For example, according to Berr et al.'s study (2000) intuitive senior managers received higher ratings from their co-workers and supervisors on certain management behaviour, whereas their peers did not agree. These results are also supported by Roush and Atwater (1992). They argued that intuitives' low ratings from their subordinates might be due to the military setting, where there is much routine that intuitive people dislike. However, according to subordinates' opinion of this study, transformational leaders from various fields are sensing types. One reason for these contradictory results may be due to the subordinates' personality. If the subordinates are mainly strong sensing types, they may view imaginative intuitive leaders' behaviour confusing. That is why it is important for intuitive leaders to describe their challenging and imaginative ideas or visions also in a more concrete way so as to come across clearer to sensing subordinates as well.

Tender-minded feeling leaders rated themselves higher than critical thinking leaders at Enabling, and subordinates regarded them higher at Rewarding than thinking leaders. These results are supported by Berr et al. (2000) where feeling senior managers were regarded as being better at giving feedback and recognition to others according to both direct reports and peers. Feeling types are better at others' feelings than more outspoken thinking types. It is therefore important that thinking leaders behave in a more

considerate way to enhance their enabling and thus their transformational leadership behaviour. Overall, the thinking-feeling dimension did not differ as much as other personality dimensions when comparing leaders' and subordinates' points of view.

Self-ratings of spontaneous perceiving leaders' showed them to be more transformational than decisive judging leaders. Subordinates agreed with this regarding the Challenging dimension, whereas other dimensions had no significant difference. According to Routamaa and Pehkonen's (1999) study where managers' lifestyle was studied, perceiving managers behave in a more individualistic, industrious, assertive and adventurous way than judging types, and they also go more against the stream than judging managers. This kind of behaviour (innovating and calling old methods into question) is strongly related to challenging behaviour.

Practical Implications and Further Studies

According to this study, the subordinates' opinion of their leaders' transformational leadership behaviour differed from that of the leaders themselves. Existing theory and earlier studies support the leaders' evaluations of themselves. It can not be said which ones, i.e. subordinates' or leaders' appraisals, are closer to objective evaluation, but the contradiction of the results indicates that leaders should be more aware of their actual behaviour and of their own perceptions about their behaviour. In particular, extraverts, intuitives and thinking types should be aware of their tendency to overrate themselves. As leaders in the new organizational culture, where individual consideration is of central importance, it is crucial for leaders to know about subordinates' interpretation of their behaviour. For example, the impact of leaders' personality on subordinates was studied by Tsuzuki and Tamao (1998) and their results indicated that judging subordinates anticipated higher work satisfaction when managers' work structure was enhanced. Accordingly, spontaneous perceiving subordinates anticipated less work satisfaction when the work structure of managers was enhanced. Understanding the differences caused by personality would help to maintain satisfaction at work, even if leader and subordinate themselves are different personalities.

The results of this study could be used in leadership training and development. The patterns evident in the results of this study, when using Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, can especially be applied as a basis for further discussions on transformational leadership. For example, basing on subordinates' appraisals, private introverts and logical thinking leaders could concentrate more on Rewarding, theoretical intuitive leaders on Visioning, Modeling and Rewarding and organized judging leaders on Challenging. Also the mutual understanding of different personalities would enhance the interaction and communication at organizations. Thus the personality based training for leaders would be helpful in finding the strengths and development areas in persons' leadership style. Recently, the followers' role of (charismatic) leadership process has been stressed e.g. by Howell and Shamir (2005). They stated that different kinds of relationships exist between leaders and followers, due to the followers' self-concept and identity orientation. Basing on their literature review, they argued that if the followers will show substantial acceptance to their leader, the leader will feel to have more influential role, and this, in turn, increases the charismatic leader's influence on followers. Similarly, in the context of the subject of this study, the impact of followers' personality on their relationship of transformational leaders would merit studying. Moreover, it may be that certain personalities interact with leaders so that leaders will become more transformational.

It is impossible to evaluate leaders' behaviour objectively as only tendencies can be seen. It would be interesting to see the effect of subordinates' personality on ratings, e.g. if the extraverted subordinates' ratings differ from ratings of introverted subordinates. Additionally, the impact of the level where leaders are working would demand more research.

Conclusion

In this study, the purpose was to find out how the appraisals of different personalities affect transformational leadership behaviour and whether the ratings of subordinates and leaders differ. Personality was defined by means of the Myers-Briggs Type

Indicator (MBTI) and transformational leadership by the Finnish version of the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI). The dimensions of the Finnish version of the LPI were: Visioning, Challenging, Enabling, Modeling and Rewarding. The results indicated that transformational leadership behaviour varied with leaders' personality by of the leaders' own appraisals as well as subordinates' appraisals. Leaders' self-ratings indicated that perceiving, extraversion and intuition were most transformational. Subordinates' appraisals indicated that the most transformational leaders were sensing leaders. Results concerning the leaders' self-ratings are supported by Van Eron and Burke (1992) where they had similar results.

Overall, the major findings of this study were that the ratings of leaders and subordinates regarding leaders' transformational leadership behaviour were not parallel when focusing on leaders' personality. This implies that personality differences strongly influence the self-assessment as well as the assessments conducted by others when it comes to interpreting leadership behaviour. This must be taken into the consideration when analysing different questionnaires of leadership behaviour. The results give strong support to the argument that self-awareness is one of the most important qualities for leaders.

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TJ Leaders as Transformational Leaders –Followers’ and Leaders’ Appraisals

Tiina Hautala

Abstract

This study focused on the relationship between the most common types (ENTJ, ESTJ, INTJ, ISTJ) of managers and transformational leadership. The sample included Finnish leaders and followers. Both the leaders’ self-ratings and subordinates’ appraisals were studied. Leaders’ personality had significant impact on their self-ratings of their transformational behavior in all five dimensions (Visioning, Challenging, Enabling, Modeling, Rewarding) and in Overall Transformational Profile as well. The subordinates’ opinions showed significant differences concerning in two dimensions of transformational leadership qualities (Challenging and Rewarding). From the leaders’ perspective, ENTJs and ESTJs saw themselves as most transformational. The subordinates’ results were quite different, even if significant differences did not occur, identifying ESTJs as most transformational and ENTJs as among the least transformational.

Introduction

Transformational leadership is one of the most recent leadership theories, and it has been widely studied for approximately 20 years. As noted by several researchers, transformational leadership has a wide range of positive outcomes (e.g., Clover, 1990; Deluga, 1992; Marshall, Rosenbach, Deal, & Peterson, 1992; Masi & Cooke, 2000; Medley & Larochelle, 1995; Sparks & Schenk, 2001). Initially, Burns (1978) developed the idea of transformational leadership. More recently, several researchers have defined the concept (Bass, 1985; Kouzes & Posner, 1988; Tichy & Devanna, 1990). In this

study transformational leadership is defined in terms of Visioning, Challenging, Enabling, Modeling and Rewarding (see Kouzes & Posner, 1988). Visioning consists of describing the ideal future to others, making sure that people hold common values, and communicating the philosophies concerning the best way to lead the organization. Challenging means risk taking, making innovations to improve organization, and looking for challenging tasks. Enabling includes respecting others, giving them freedom to make their own decisions, creating a trusting atmosphere, and making others feel the projects as their own. Modeling means consistency of organizational values, confidence in the philosophy of how to lead, and confirmation of planning and goal setting. Rewarding means celebrating, in some way, when the goals are met.

The crucial point of enabling is to understand the differences in personalities. Recognizing one's own and others' personalities is beneficial to all participants in organizations. Leaders should understand how different behavior is seen by subordinates, and use this information when modifying their own behavior. Because self-evaluations are usually far more positive than outsiders' perspectives (e.g., Berr, Church, & Waclawski, 2000; Roush & Atwater, 1992; Routamaa, Honkonen, Asikainen, & Pollari, 1997), the understanding of others' appraisals will be an important step to enhance self-understanding.

When at least 60% of all leaders (Fleenor, 1997; Osborn & Osborn, 1990; Routamaa et al., 1997; Sundström & Busby, 1997) represent just 4 of the 16 possible types, the research should reveal more knowledge about TJ leaders. Even if the TJ leaders are not necessarily the most transformational leaders of all types (Church & Waclawski 1998; Roush 1992; Roush & Atwater, 1992), it is important to concentrate on them when they are, so far, predominantly in leader/manager positions. Their development as leaders would be important to their organizations and themselves. In this study, TJ-leaders' behavior was observed by the leaders themselves and by their subordinates. Much of the research on the MBTI has concentrated on single preferences, and more studies are needed of whole types. Thus, this study further continues the study of the connection between type and leadership behavior, concentrating on the most common leader types.

The main questions of this research are as follows: How do the typical leaders, defined by personality, appraise themselves? How do followers rate these TJ leaders?

TJ- types

TJ leaders are described as calm, confident, and self-assured. They get to the point and stay focused and they organize and structure the work to achieve goals. They are quick in action to reach the goals (Kummerow, Barger, & Kirby, 1997). All of these four types (ENTJ, ESTJ, INTJ, ISTJ), are extraverted thinking in their preference, i.e. other people are likely to see their logical thinking side first.

Descriptions of each TJ-type from the point of leadership (Myers & Myers, 1990; Pearman, 1999):

ENTJs tend to seek connections among facts and ideas and to have models of the systems. They often criticize and analyze information in relation to some larger framework. They tend to be fast paced, action oriented, responsible, insightful, visionary, forthright and decisive. Their interest is focused on long-range possibilities. They tend to be effective when they are organized, deliberate, and assertive. They are often effective in leading others when being sociable and inclusive. However, they can be seen as condescending, arrogant and they may have problems with creating a developmental climate.

ESTJs can be described as matter-of-fact, practical, having high-energy, being receptive, administrative and retentive of factual detail, tolerant of routine and realistic. They tend to have clear impressions concerning experiences, people and circumstances. They are seen to be decisive, confronting problems, and working according to the plan. They tend to have a demanding and deliberate style of leading others, but they may need to learn more effective ways to build and mend relationships. They may have

difficulties when making strategic transitions. They tend to solve problems by applying and adapting past experience.

INTJs tend to be analytical, deliberate, forceful, independent, demanding and innovative reorganizers. They recognize easily the complexity of ideas. Problems should be complicated enough to be challenging to them. They have a tendency to ignore the feelings of others and may seem to be skeptical and arrogant. They tend to have logical, orderly, and systematic evaluations. Sometimes they may be so convinced of their world view, that they ignore reality.

ISTJs tend to emphasize precision and clarity in spoken or written words. They tend to be thorough, practical, fair-minded, focused, orderly, realistic, critical, and they concentrate on the task at hand. They emphasize logic, analysis and decisiveness. They tend to communicate in a straightforward manner and they have the capacity to confront difficult people. They might have difficulty in understanding the needs that differ from their own and they may have difficulties in creating a more developmental climate. They can be so focused on the past and present that they miss looking toward future challenge.

Overall, these four types tend to be critical and more task- than people-oriented. They are talented in organizing, but less likely to be spontaneous or flexible.

Earlier Studies

Several studies proved to be concentrated on transformational leaders' personality (e.g. Hetland & Sandal, 2003; Judge & Bono, 2000; Ployhart, Lim & Chan, 2001) and some studies have also concentrated MBTI (Church & Waclawski 1998; Roush 1992; Roush & Atwater, 1992).

Concerning the 5-factor model of personality, results have indicated that extroversion (Bono & Judge, 2004; Judge & Bono, 2000; Ployhart et al., 2001), agreeableness (Judge

& Bono, 2000) and openness (Ployhart et al., 2001) were correlated with transformational leadership. In these studies the raters were subordinates (Judge & Bono, 2000) and trained assessors (Ployhart et al., 2001). These qualities has been shown to correlate with MBTI: extroversion with extraversion (E), agreeableness with feeling (F), and openness with intuition (N) (McCrae & Costa, 1989).

In the case of PF16 (Cattell's 16 personality preference questionnaire), the conformity was predictive of transformational behavior when superiors rated participants. However, in the case of subordinates, intelligence was connected with transformational leadership (Atwater & Yammarino, 1993). Hetland and Sandal (2003) studied 4 scales of 16PF (warmth, reasoning, openness to change and tension) finding warmth as the strongest personality correlate. A significant negative relationship occurred between tension and transformational leadership. Also, all those four scales explained significantly but modestly the variance of transformational leadership, according to subordinates. Further, according to superiors, the openness to change was predictive when they were rating participants.

In the case of MBTI, N and P preferences appear to be positively associated with creativity, managing change, and thus transformational leadership according to Walck's (1997) review. When transformational leadership consists of characteristics common to entrepreneurship and it has been shown that perceiving types tend to be more entrepreneurial (Reynierse, 1997; Routamaa, Vesalainen & Pihlajaniemi, 1996), it is natural that perceiving types tend to be more transformational than judging types. Warmth and agreeableness can be regarded as near to MBTI's feeling preferences, and this is supported, for example, by Atwater and Yammarino (1993) and Roush and Atwater (1992). Additionally, Roush and Atwater (1992) find that sensing types tend to be the among the most transformational leaders. Feeling leaders may take others' feelings better into account and be naturally better at individual consideration and enabling. However, according to Church and Waclawski (1998) and Roush (1992) the transformationally behaving are E, N and P leaders.

Concerning leader effectiveness, Sundström and Busby (1997) studied co-workers perceptions of the feeling leaders, who formed one separate group, and of the eight thinking types. ESTJ leaders were seen as highly effective and, surprisingly, they were seen as quite similar in frequency of expression of friendly values as feeling leaders. ENTJs were seen as effective, though not as effective as most other thinking types. According to this study, ENTJs were seen as ambitious and power-oriented. Co-workers saw ISTJs as expressing authority-aligned values relatively often and friendly values relatively infrequently. Concerning INTJs, they were underemphasizing several friendly values. In Thorne and Gough's (1991, p. 102) study of observed features of 10 MBTI types, the ISTJs were described as "Calm, stable, and steady, but also cautious and conventional"; the INTJs were described as "Candid, ingenious, and shrewd, but also as complicated and rebellious"; the ESTJs as "Contented, energetic, and practical, but also prejudiced and self-satisfied", and the ENTJs as "Ambitious, forceful, and optimistic, but also aggressive and egotistical".

Method

Participants

The data were collected separately a) from 268 leaders, who rate themselves and b) 215 followers who rate their 69 leaders. These samples were analyzed separately.

TJ-leaders who appraised themselves (N = 268 leaders):

The leaders' mean age was 43 years, work experience as leaders was 11 years, and the average number of subordinates per leader was 41. The leaders were mostly male (71%), and most were graduate engineers (master level) (18%), engineers (bachelor level) (12%), or graduates of a (Finnish) commercial institute (12%). The fields in which they worked included technology (14%), teaching and education (11%), trade (10%), metal industry (10%), and services (9%). Almost half of the leaders were ESTJs (46%), 28% were ENTJs, 18% were ISTJs and 8% were INTJs.

TJ-leaders who were appraised (N = 69 leaders):

The leaders' mean age was 42. Their mean work experience as leaders was 10 years, and the average number of subordinates per leader was 42. The leaders were mostly male (73%), and most of the leaders were engineers (26%), graduate engineers (13%), graduates of a (Finnish) commercial institute (12%), or Masters of Science (Econ.) (9%). The fields in which they worked included teaching and education (15%), health and welfare (10%), metal industry (10%) and technology (9%). Some of the leaders (about 12%) did not fill in the personal information form. Almost half of the leaders were ESTJs (48%), 23% were ISTJs, 16% were ENTJs and 13% were INTJs.

Instruments

A modified version of the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) was used to measure transformational leadership (Posner & Kouzes, 1990). The LPI was selected because it represents effectively the main ideas surrounding transformational leadership and furthermore, after modification, it is well-suited to the Finnish culture. The items of the questionnaire were rated on a 5-point scale ranging from "not at all, if not very rarely" (1) to "frequently, if not constantly" (5). Factor analyses (Varimax) were made to ensure the correctness of the questionnaire's dimensions. In order to define the dimensions of transformational leadership in Finland, the factors were obtained from a large sample (N = 900), which included both leaders and subordinates. (The table of the factor loadings is available from the author on request.) Reliabilities (Cronbach's coefficient alpha) of the factors were adequate, ranging from .59 in Modeling to .87 in Enabling. Posner and Kouzes reported alphas of at least .70, whereas in Brown and Posner's (2001) study, alphas ranged from .66 to .84.

Factors loaded somewhat differently compared to Posner and Kouzes' (1990) original model, which was probably caused by cultural differences. This tendency seems to be common elsewhere as well. For example, the loadings of the other transformational leadership questionnaire (Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire) were different in Norway than in the original version (Hetland & Sandal, 2003). In the case of the

Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) in Slater et al.'s (2002) study, the results in Mexico were different from those in the U.S., and they assumed that LPI is embedded in U.S. culture. In Hong Kong, the questionnaire seemed to work best with three factors (Lam, 1998). Thus, the cultural differences could be one reason for the somewhat different factors, even if theory and concept are the same. The names of the dimensions are different here, because of certain questions were realigned with dimensions from the original model of Posner and Kouzes'.

The questions loaded differently mostly in case of Enabling. Four questions, which should have been originally in the Encouraging the Heart dimension (in this version Rewarding) loaded to Enabling. However, in the original model the loadings were high concerning both these dimensions as well. When looking at the subject of the questions they are very close to each other, thus it is clearer that they are in the same dimension, and only those which are clearly connected to Rewarding are separated. For example "I create a trusting atmosphere in the projects of which I'm in charge" (belongs originally in Enabling Others to Act; in this version the name is Enabling) is very similar to the statement that "I make sure that everybody is included in our success of projects" (belongs originally in Encouraging the Heart, in this version the name is Rewarding). Thus there can be some nuanced difference when Finnish people understand those in quite a similar way. Therefore, the five factors in this Finnish version characterize transformational leadership as Visioning, Challenging, Enabling, Modeling, and Rewarding. The mean of these five characteristics is regarded as the Overall Transformational Profile.

Concerning the MBTI, the Finnish research version Form F was used. The construct validity and reliability of this Finnish research has been shown during a several year validation process (see Järnlström, 2000).

Procedure

Both the MBTI and the LPI forms were filled out by the leaders. The subordinates filled out only the LPI. Leaders were asked to give, in alphabetical order, at least three of their subordinates the LPI-form. After filling them out, the subordinates sent these forms directly to the researcher. For the statistical analyses, ANOVA and the t-test were used in due to see the differences between TJ-groups. F-value of the t-test indicates if there are statistical differences between the groups which have been compared. However, this F-value does not show where the difference is, which groups differ from each other significantly. For further analysis it is necessary to know which types differ from each other. A post hoc test will indicate this difference. Post hoc analyses were made with the Tukey test (Norusis, 1994)

Results

Overall, the leaders' self-ratings were higher than the subordinates' appraisals of leaders. In Table 1 the means and standard deviations as well as F-values are presented. Additionally, the means and standard deviations of the whole Finnish sample are presented in Table 1, in order to present the overall picture of these values in general. In Table 2 the post hoc results are presented.

Visioning. According to the leaders themselves, ESTJs and ENTJs rated themselves significantly highest and ISTJs rated themselves lowest at Visioning. By contrast, post hoc analyses indicated significant differences when subordinates appraised ESTJ leaders highest and ENTJs lowest. **Challenging.** The leaders' self-ratings indicated that ENTJs saw themselves as most Challenging and ISTJs as least Challenging. According to post hoc analyses, ENTJs' self-ratings differed from ESTJs' and ISTJs' ratings, and ESTJs' ratings differed from ISTJs' self-ratings; also, INTJs' appraisals were higher than ISTJs'. Although the difference was not significant, subordinates rated ESTJs as most Challenging and ENTJs as least Challenging. **Enabling.** Leaders' self-ratings indicated that ENTJs and ESTJs were most Enabling. Post hoc analyses indicated that

significant differences existed between extraverted and introverted leaders' self-ratings. In other words, ESTJs' and ENTJs' ratings differed from ISTJs' and INTJs' ratings significantly. There were no significant differences in the subordinates' ratings. Subordinates' results rated the ENTJs and ISTJs as highest and INTJs as lowest in this respect. **Modeling.** ENTJ and ESTJ leaders' self-ratings were highest at Modeling. Post hoc analyses indicated that ESTJs and ENTJs differed from their introverted counterparts (ISTJ and INTJ). According to subordinates, there were no significant differences in leaders' Modeling behavior. When looking at the means, ISTJs were rated highest and ENTJs lowest in this respect. **Rewarding.** According to the leaders themselves, the ENTJs and ESTJs were the most Rewarding. Post hoc analyses indicated that ESTJs and ENTJs differed from ISTJs. Subordinates' results indicated that ESTJs had the highest ratings here and INTJs the lowest. The significant difference occurred between these two types. **Overall Transformational Profile.** When looking at the overall profile, ENTJ and ESTJ leaders regarded themselves as most transformational. Significant differences existed between extraverted and introverted types; ENTJs' and ESTJs' self-ratings differed statistically from INTJs' and ISTJs'. Regarding subordinates' opinions, there were no significant differences in the overall transformational profile concerning leaders. When looking at the means of subordinates' appraisals, ESTJs and ISTJs were more transformational leaders than ENTJs and INTJs.

Table 1. Means, standard deviations and ANOVA test concerning TJ-types and transformational leadership. Leaders' self-ratings and subordinates' ratings given to TJ-types. Leaders $N = 268$. subordinates $N = 215$. Level of significance: *.05 level, ** .01 level, *** .001 level

	<u>ENTJ</u>	<u>ESTJ</u>	<u>INTJ</u>	<u>ISTJ</u>	<u>F-value</u>	<u>Finnish sample</u>
Leaders N	$N = 76$	$N = 124$	$N = 20$	$N = 48$		$N = 514$
Subordinates N	$N = 33$	$N = 104$	$N = 32$	$N = 46$		$N = 385$
	Mean (sd)	Mean (sd)	Mean (sd)	Mean (sd)		Mean (sd)
Visioning						
Leaders	31.8 (5.5)	31.9 (6.6)	30.8 (5.7)	27.4 (6.6)	$F = 6.717^{***}$	30,7 (6.4)
Subordinates	25.1 (6.9)	29.5 (8.7)	26.9 (7.9)	28.8 (8.5)	$F = 2.740^*$	28.8 (7.8)
Challenging						
Leaders	38.0 (5.8)	35.0 (5.4)	35.7 (6.2)	31.9 (5.6)	$F = 11.928^{***}$	35.6 (6.1)
Subordinates	30.3 (6.7)	32.9 (7.3)	30.6 (6.2)	31.0 (7.8)	$F = 1.694$	32.4 (7.2)
Enabling						
Leaders	40.3 (4.4)	39.7 (4.0)	35.3 (5.4)	36.5 (5.0)	$F = 13.357^{***}$	39.4 (4.4)
Subordinates	36.0 (7.2)	35.1 (8.6)	33.5 (8.0)	35.8 (7.6)	$F = 0.626$	35.3 (7.5)
Modeling						
Leaders	40.8 (4.3)	40.1 (5.3)	35.2 (5.9)	37.0 (5.7)	$F = 10.241^{***}$	39.0 (5.3)
Subordinates	36.1 (6.5)	37.1 (6.7)	36.7 (8.3)	39.7 (5.9)	$F = 2.393$	37.9 (6.5)
Rewarding						
Leaders	26.9 (8.8)	26.3 (10.4)	21.4 (9.4)	21.3 (8.3)	$F = 5.125^{**}$	26.4 (10.4)
Subordinates	20.8 (11.1)	25.3 (11.8)	19.2 (9.2)	20.9 (12.0)	$F = 3.477^*$	23.3 (11.0)
Overall Transformational Profile						
Leaders	35.6 (3.4)	34.6 (4.1)	31.7 (4.2)	30.8 (4.0)	$F = 18.204^{***}$	34.2 (4.4)
Subordinates	29.7 (5.7)	32.2 (6.5)	29.5 (6.0)	31.2 (5.8)	$F = 2.285$	31.6 (5.7)

As a comparison, ENTJ leaders often appraised themselves higher than leaders in the whole sample. Introverted leaders were appraising themselves most often under the general mean and according to subordinates, INTJs were rated most often below the general mean.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the most common leader types (ENTJ, ESTJ, INTJ, ISTJ) as transformational leaders. Transformational leadership was measured by a Finnish version of the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI). The five characteristics of the Finnish LPI are Visioning, Challenging, Enabling, Modeling, and Rewarding. The different TJ types rated themselves and were rated by subordinates differently. It can be stated that leaders differentiated themselves more than their subordinates do with respect to transformational leadership.

Table 2. Results of post hoc test (Tukey)

	<u>Leaders</u>	<u>Subordinates</u>
Visioning	ESTJ, ENTJ > ISTJ	ESTJ > ENTJ
Challenging	ENTJ > ESTJ > ISTJ INTJ > ISTJ	
Enabling	ENTJ, ESTJ > ISTJ, INTJ	
Modeling	ENTJ, ESTJ > ISTJ, INTJ	
Rewarding	ENTJ, ESTJ > ISTJ	ESTJ > INTJ
Overall Transformational Profile	ENTJ, ESTJ > INTJ, ISTJ	

In the Overall Transformational Profile, the leaders rated themselves higher than their subordinates rated them in all but in one case. The exception was the ISTJ, when

subordinates rated them slightly higher than their own appraisals indicated. The overrating tendency has been noticed in some other studies as well (e.g., Roush & Atwater, 1992; Yammarino & Atwater, 1997). Also, Kouzes and Posner (1988) arrived at similar results with the LPI. This might be caused by (too) positive self-images of some of the leaders and (too) critical ratings by some of the subordinates. The extraverted leaders (ESTJ, ENTJ) tended to rate themselves clearly more positively than their introverted counterparts (ISTJ, INTJ) rated themselves, whereas the followers' appraisals showed more variation. Further, the leaders' results showed significant differences in every dimension, but the followers' results indicated significant differences only in the Visioning and Rewarding dimensions.

The Visioning dimension includes e.g. "Describing for others what kind of future I want to build with others". Based on the theory, it would be assumed that ENTJs would be high in Visioning when this Visioning includes both imagining the future and telling others about it (Kouzes & Posner, 1988; Myers & Myers, 1990; Myers, McCaulley, Quenk, & Hammer, 1998). From the leaders' own point of view, ENTJs and ESTJs regarded themselves as being on the same level. By contrast, subordinates' ratings indicated that ENTJs were lowest in this dimension. One reason for these surprising results in the case of ENTJs might be the level at which leaders are working. This study consisted mostly the middle-management leaders. According to Reynierse (1993) at the executive level the more common preferences are Es, Ns, Ts and Js and in middle management Es, Ss, Ts and Js when measured as percentages. Interestingly, when executives were compared with middle management, the E and N preferences were significantly overrepresented as well as ENTJs at type level. In this study, leaders were mainly STs, and if the followers' types are more or less similar with leaders', the similarity can cause more positive appraisals of the same kind of leaders. Understanding each other is easier when the personalities are similar to each other. NTs can be seen as very different and can be misunderstood in ST organizations, because they do not share the same language.

INTJs have been described as having leadership skills with a creative flair, and they have a propensity to improve anything (Kroeger & Thuesen, 1992). Several studies

indicate that intuitives lean towards challenging (e.g. Church & Waclawski, 1995, 1998). Based on the theory and earlier research, it could have been assumed that INTJs as well as ENTJs would be high in Challenging; this study indicated that followers regarded ESTJs as most Challenging (when looking at the means). According to the leaders themselves, ENTJs regarded themselves clearly as more challenging than ESTJs and ISTJs. These contradictory results could be caused by ESTJs' greater comfort at the operational level, where the challenges are often concrete and followers will notice these concrete challenges more easily.

In Enabling, the leaders' results indicated that ENTJs and ESTJs had high ratings. From the subordinates' point of view, ENTJs and ISTJs deserved high means here. Also the subordinates' ratings of the whole Finnish sample indicate that ENTJ and ISTJ received higher means than on the average. In the case of ENTJs, this is supported by Routamaa et al.'s (1997) study of situational leadership in which ENTJs were considered high in developer style (high in relationship-orientation and low in task-orientation). Even if ENTJ and ISTJ are different in type, it seems that they have different but well-working methods of Enabling.

From the subordinates' point of view, judging by the means, ISTJs were highest in Modeling. ISTJs are hard-working people who lead by example. Extraverts communicate more, and do not necessarily show so much concrete example as ISTJs. In the case of INTJs, they might be too much in their own world instead of modeling to others.

The followers' ratings indicated clearly that ESTJs were most Rewarding and INTJs and ENTJs were least Rewarding. According to the leaders themselves, extraverted leaders rated themselves higher than introverted leaders rated themselves. These results could be caused by the introverts' tendency to be embarrassed at public recognition, so they may not notice that some people may like that (Myers & Myers, 1990). Also, ENTJs were low in this area, according to their followers' ratings. Both ENTJs and INTJs are future oriented, and they might be moving on to the next project already; thus, they do not take the time for celebrating accomplishments. Sundström and

Busby's (1997) study indicated that of these four TJ types all but ESTJ underemphasized having a good time, which supports the results of the present study.

ENTJ and ESTJ leaders rated themselves as more transformational than INTJ and ISTJ leaders in all parts of transformational leadership except Challenging (in this dimension ENTJs and INTJs regarded themselves as higher than ESTJs and ISTJs). Additionally, these extraverted TJ leaders rated themselves higher than introverted leaders on the Overall Transformational Profile and their means were higher when compared with the whole sample of Finnish leaders. Overall, leaders' self-ratings indicated that especially ISTJs tended to rate themselves lower than others in transformational leadership. In Thorne and Gough's (1991) study, ESTJs were seen as self-satisfied, ENTJs as egotistical and ISTJs as cautious. The results of the present study are in line with these results, reflecting these extraverted types' over-rating tendency and ISTJs' cautious approach of evaluations. The introverted types' low ratings may be explained also with Sundström and Busby's study, where both ISTJs and INTJs were underemphasizing popularity and social success.

Although the leaders' own appraisals indicated approximately the same level between ENTJ and ESTJ leaders, the subordinates' results did not show the same tendency. Instead, when looking at the means of followers' appraisals, ENTJs were lowest or among the lowest in Visioning, Challenging, and Modeling, and second lowest in Overall Transformational Profile. According to these means, ESTJs were most Visioning, Challenging, and Rewarding and among the highest on the Overall Transformational Profile. Significant differences were found between ESTJs and ENTJs at Visioning. According to Sundström and Busby (1997), ESTJ leaders were seen expressing friendly values almost as much as feeling types. This supports these findings, when ESTJs may have the closest relationship with subordinates compared with other TJ types, and this may affect the subordinates' ratings. The ENTJs' tendency towards high self-esteem may result in an overly positive interpretation of their leadership behavior, whereas other TJ-types may have a more realistic picture of themselves. However, maybe this high self-esteem of ENTJs is one reason why ENTJs tend to be most often among high level leaders (Reynierse, 1993).

Practical Applications

Each type, according to subordinates' opinion, has strengths and weaknesses concerning transformational leadership behavior. Practically, this knowledge can be used when arranging leadership training and development. For example, ENTJs could try to concentrate more on concrete Visioning, Challenging, and Modeling, at least at the operational level. INTJs could try to enable and reward followers more. ENTJ types could concentrate more on how others see them and use this information when acting as leaders, because their too positive picture of themselves as leaders can diminish their development as leaders.

Conclusions, limitations and further studies

The study indicates that personality type has an effect on transformational leadership. Differences can be found, even when leaders share the TJ preferences. It must be noted that in the Finnish sample quite many of the respondents are ESTJs in leaders, or subordinates of ESTJ leaders, which has affected on the means. Further studies are needed to find out the effect of the organizational level on appraisals and of the appraiser's personality. Additionally, the subordinates' view of leaders other than TJ-types needs research.

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Development discussions —the personality of subordinates in relation to the experiences of the discussions

Tiina Hautala

Abstract

In this study the connection of subordinates' personality with development discussions is examined on the basis of their evaluations. Personality is studied on the basis of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and is focused on its definition of cognitive style. The responses of subordinates to leaders with the same cognitive style (ST, sensing–thinking) were compared. The results showed that the subordinates' responses regarding the progress of the development discussions varied depending on the personality of the subordinates. The evaluations of the NTs (intuitive–thinking) differed most from the rest of the cognitive style responses.

Keywords: development discussions, personality, MBTI

Introduction

Development discussions have been much talked about and they occur very frequently in Finnish enterprises. Studies of this topic are rare, and theoretical knowledge of the subject has also remained practically the same during the whole period of the history of development discussions in Finland. In English studies development discussions have hardly been dealt with at all, and the few comparable studies are rather focusing on "performance discussions". In Sweden and Germany the topic is to some extent more prevalent. In Finland the basis of development discussions is often some kind of training for both leaders and subordinates, when new knowledge and research concerned with the topic are important. In the development discussions the

subordinate's role and activity are stressed. Therefore this study is concerned with the effect of the subordinates' personality on the experience of the discussions. The research problem is: *Does the subordinate's cognitive style influence the experiences of the development discussions?* The aim of the study is thus not only to answer the research question but also to produce additional information about the development discussions. This information can be utilized in the training for development discussions as well as for the production of new views about future research.

Personality has been found to influence for instance leadership style, and now interest has once more been aroused in the effect of personality in organizations. With regard to development discussions, personality has been less studied, but it is probable that it influences discussions considerably. In this study personality is studied by means of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), which is one of the world's most used means of describing personality. Research has proved the connection of MBTI types with for instance team work (Hautala & Rissanen, 2002; Heinäsuo & Routamaa, 2004), strategic thinking (Gallén, 1997), leadership style (Berr, Church & Waclawski, 2000; Hetland & Sandall, 2003; Roush, 1992; Routamaa & Ponto, 1994; Routamaa & Pollari, 1998; Van Eron & Burke, 1992), occupational distribution (Garden, 1997; Honkonen 1998; Honkonen & Routamaa, 1996; Rissanen, 2003), change of organization (Routamaa & Honkonen, 1996) and entrepreneurship (Hautala, 2004; Routamaa & Varamäki, 1998). In addition, MBTI has proved to be a functional training instrument for increasing self-knowledge and cooperation as well as a promoter of communication in different organizations in research (Coe, 1992; Young, 2001). Because of its wide adaptability exemplified above, it has been used in this study as well.

Development discussions

One loose definition of development discussions is

"A discussion between superior and subordinate on a previously agreed and planned topic that has a certain aim and in the realization of which some degree of orderliness and recurrence."

(Juuti, 1998:5)

The aim of development discussions is to focus on subordinates' work, future and possibilities of development. Often these factors are linked to the whole of the organization, when the leader connects the visions and strategies of the organization with the job description and plans of the subordinates' prospects for the future. The particular emphasis of the development discussions is on the subordinate, who should be the leading figure of the discussion. Sometimes this can be awkward in practice, for both parties (Allan, 1990; Ukkonen, 1989).

Important in development discussions are preparation, implementation of matters decided on and follow-up as well as continuity. Without preparation, it is impossible to bring out in discussions all matters that may have been in contemplation for a long time already. A discussion proceeding logically step by step makes sure that all desired points are discussed. The leader provides feedback to the subordinate on his work, and the subordinate also gives the leader feedback on his activities. There are no forbidden topics in the discussions, so personal relationships in the workplace can be discussed also. In literature concerned with this matter it is advised to avoid talking about salaries in development discussions since this might determine the whole course of the discussion (Quinn, Faerman, Thompson & McGrath, 1990; Ronthy-Östberg & Rosendahl, 1998).

Development discussions are generally arranged about once a year, and they last about an hour. Result discussions and target discussions are also talked about, in which case these can also be held in addition to development discussions. Results discussions concern the result of the past period; in target discussions, the goals for the coming period are set. In some organizations discussions between leader and subordinate may take place three to four times a year, especially if the business of the organization is in a rapidly changing field, when strategies and visions will have to be frequently updated (Autio, Juuti & Latva-Kiskola, 1990; Ukkonen, 1989).

The influence of personality on the discussions is seen in the tendency of the leader to regard the performance of subordinates whose manner and personality please him as better than it actually is. The leader does not necessarily observe a certain type of

deficiencies if they are similar to his own. Some characteristics of personality can easily be connected with good performance even if they have no connection with it. Such characteristics are loyalty, initiative, courage, reliability and self-expression (Robbins, 1998: 225-227; Ukkonen, 1989:54-55).

Personality

Personality can be approached through structures, for instance traits. On the other hand, it can be described as a process, dynamism, when the forming, changing and expressing of personality are dealt with. Many theories of personality attempt to describe both the structure and the process (Lazarus, 1997:14-15).

There are a number of different theories of personality. The *psychodynamic* theory of personality is based on Freud's psychoanalysis. According to psychoanalysis the personality of an adult has been formed through experiences during childhood. Nowadays several theories, which slightly differ from each other are lumped together under the name of psychoanalysis. They can all be referred to by the common term psychodynamic theories of personality (Atkinson et al., 1996:447, 468). The neopsychoanalytic theory founded by Jung is an extension of the psychoanalytic theory. According to Jung, the structure of personality is complex, a network consisting of systems that influence one another, striving for a final equilibrium. Human beings have, according to him, both a collective and a subjective subconscious. The collective subconscious is common to all, and the subjective subconscious is individual, founded on the individual's own experiences (Engler, 1991: 81-82). The studies of personality are mainly based on *trait theories*. The assumption is that relatively permanent ways of acting and reacting are dominant in each individual. The characteristics are regarded as having two extremes, for instance peaceful–restless, and between these the strength of the characteristic varies depending on the individual. The theory of *humanistic psychology* studies subjective experience and esteems the development of the individual and individualism. The representatives of this theory shun experimental psychology and the attempts to describe human beings by means of tests and statistical–mathematical

methods. Pure natural science was originally the point of departure for personality theories connected with *learning*. According to these, personality was formed through external acts of learning. Later, however, the view arose that a human being is able to control his behaviour inwardly and is not completely dependent on conditioning by the environment. The behaviouristic and social learning are trends of learning theory (Atkinson et al., 1996: 447, 468). *The cognitive theory of personality* assumes that a human being is an organism that controls itself. According to this theory, the human being is an active handler of knowledge, who, relying on cognitive activities orients himself to the environment (Engler, 1991:395–399).

Theories of personality are also accompanied by criticism. For instance the view of social constructionism on personality is quite different from the views of traditional psychology. According to social constructionism the social world, even the human beings, are a product of a social process, in which case personality does not exist "inside human beings". In accordance with this, a certain personality is not a human quality, but personality is the relationship between human beings. For instance, in the company of certain people a human being behaves in a friendly manner, but his behaviour changes when he changes company (e.g. Burr, 1995; Harman, 2003). In spite of criticism, the hold of theories of personality has remained firm, and besides, taking into consideration different and critical points of view naturally promotes the study of the subject field.

The Myers–Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)

The MBTI was initially based on Jung's theory of psychological types, which means it is not a trait theory. The theory has been further developed by Briggs and Myers who have also developed an indicator by means of which an individual's personality can be described. The MBTI preference pairs of personality are four in all. The individual's personality type is formed by the stronger preference of each preference pair. The eight preferences are extravert (E) - introvert (I), sensing (S) - intuitive (N), thinking (T) feeling (F) and judging (J) – perceiving (P). An individual's type of personality can be for example ISTP (introvert–sensing–thinking–perceiving). MBTI differs from other instruments intended for describing personality by the fact that it is based on dynamic theory. According to Myers–Briggs a human being is constantly developing and two

identical human beings do not exist in spite of similar personality type. Or despite a tendency to use constantly one preference more and better than another (e.g. feeling more than thinking), a human being is always seen as developing. Besides, profoundness to the theory is brought about by the dominance order of the preferences (Myers & Myers, 1990).

On the level of personality types, research is often troublesome since a considerable amount of data should be available. Especially with regard to certain personality types the supply of a sufficient amount of data is a difficult problem because such types are rare (e.g. INFJ, ISFP). Often MBTI is therefore studied on the level of preferences or cognitive style.

Cognitive styles are the subject of this study as well. They are four in number, and they comprise perceptive (=sensing–intuitive) and decision–making (=thinking–feeling) preferences when on the level of type the cognitive style is easily recognized by the two middle letters: e.g. cognitive style of ISTP is sensing–thinking (ST). (Myers & Myers, McCaulley, Quenk & Hammer, 1998).

Cognitive styles

A practical and factual ST (sensing–thinking) person strives for practicality, factual knowledge, realism and objectivity. He aims at facts since he can analyse them by means of his senses. He often excels in technical matters, which involve facts and objects. In Finland the sensing-thinking people operate especially as technical experts, mechanics and repairers and as managers (Myers & Myers, 1990:5; Myers et al., 1998:42; Rissanen, 2003:69).

A sympathetic and friendly SF (sensing–feeling) person relies on his senses in the same way as a sensing–thinking ST does. In making decisions he gives preference to his own values and feelings. He is more interested in human beings than in objects. He is generally social and friendly and preferably tends to choose fields where he can make use of these qualities of his. Sensing–feeling people in Finland work especially as

nurses, clerks and in customer service, public services, sales companies and health service. (Myers & Myers, 1990:5–6; Myers et al., 1998:41; Rissanen, 2003:69).

An enthusiastic and insightful NF (intuitive–feeling) person emphasizes intuition rather than his senses when making observations. In making decisions, he lays particular stress on his values and feelings. He is often polite, persuasive and helpful. In Finland intuitive-feeling people work especially as educational specialists (education planners and managers, university teachers and other teachers), as service–, sales– and social workers, instructors, kindergarten teachers and nurses (Myers & Myers, 1990:5–6; Kroeger & Thuesen, 1992:51–85; Rissanen, 2003:69).

A logical and inventive NT (intuitive-thinking) person emphasizes also intuition when making observations. When making decisions, he has tendency to stress analytical thinking and he is often able to see wholeness and conceptualise things. Intuitive-thinking people in Finland tend to work especially as supervisors, experts of business life and doctors (Myers & Myers, 1990:5–6; Kroeger & Thuesen, 1992:51–85; Rissanen, 2003:69).

Cognitive styles	
ST	sensing–thinking
SF	sensing–feeling
NF	intuitive–feeling
NT	intuitive–thinking

Figure 1. Cognitive styles

Communication

In discussion situations the sensing people are apt to interpret what they hear in a very practical sense. Their typical questions tend to be: "What? Where? When?" They usually want examples from real life. The intuitive people try to understand intensions in a deeper sense and connect the topic discussed with some wider context. In the course of the discussion they may be apt to ponder such questions as: "What does the speaker really mean?" and "What are the assumptions behind the message?" The intuitives may experience the sensing people as too pessimistic and resistant to change, in which case they feel that the sensing people do not approve of their ideas. The views of the intuitives again may to the sensing type appear irrelevant, unrealistic and frustrating. (Kummerow, Barger & Kirby, 1997:30–35; Myers & McCaulley, 1990:70–71).

The purpose of thinking persons is often to analyse and organize what they hear. They may ponder such questions as: "What is the structure of the message?", "What is the main idea of the message?" and "Are the reasons logical?" The thinking person may stop the discussion if they feel that too much time has been spent on irrelevant matters or if the discussion has got off the right track and become mere chit–chat. Those mainly characterized by feeling have a tendency to assess and evaluate what they hear. They may ponder such questions as: "What do I think of the message / the speaker?" and "What is the value of the message?" Feeling people may abandon the discussion if it provokes too much tension between the participants, if they do not like the speaker or if not enough attention is paid to the effects on the listeners. The feeling–oriented people may experience the thinking people as too critical, negative and cold, whereas the thinking types may experience the feeling types as too personal and soft (Kummerow et al., 1997:30–35; Myers & McCaulley, 1990:70–71).

Sample

The data was collected in 2000–2002 from a big multinational organization. STs are on the average the most general superiors (MacDaid, McCaulley & Kainz, 1986:187), and

therefore they were chosen. The questionnaires were filled in the presence and under the supervision of the researcher in the target organization. Both the leaders and the subordinates were told that the questionnaires would be seen by the researcher alone. The researcher collected the questionnaires as soon as they had been filled in. The number of leaders who belonged to the same cognitive style (ST) was 12. Their subordinates, who had taken part in the discussions and had answered the questions were 61 (see Table 1).

Table 1. The subordinates' cognitive styles and distribution per leader

COGNITIVE STYLES OF THE SUBORDINATES TO THE ST'S					
Leader's number	<u>ST</u>	<u>SF</u>	<u>NF</u>	<u>NT</u>	<u>YHT</u>
1	5	1	2	1	9
2	2	1		2	5
3	8	1		1	10
4	8	4	3	2	17
5	4				4
6	2	2			4
7	1				1
8	1		1		2
9	2	2			4
10	1				1
11		1			1
12	1	1		1	3
Total	35	13	6	7	61

Questionnaires

For the study of personality the Finnish MBTI questionnaire was used. Its reliability and validity have been tested for 10 years at the University of Vaasa (see Järnlström, 2002).

The development discussions questionnaire is mainly based on Finnish literature on the topic and has been developed by the researcher herself (see Table 2, which contains the questions where there were statistically significant differences). The results will be studied in connection with individual questions. The subordinates responded to several statements using a Likert-type scale, selecting in each case the alternative that best agreed with the respondent's own experience.

For instance:

"I consider myself on equal terms in the discussions"

- I disagree completely
- I disagree to some extent
- I cannot say
- I agree to some extent
- I agree completely

The data was analysed by the SPSS One-Way Anova program, and as the Post-hoc program Tukey was used. The Post-hoc program revealed in some cases statistical distinctions that the One-Way Anova had not detected. Here the distinctions Post-hoc revealed but Anova had not detected are reported; thus they can be regarded as approximate.

Results

The results are presented in Table 2. The numbers of the questions that occur in the brackets refer to the statements and questions that occur in this table.

The leader's role was most positively experienced by the intuitive-thinking (NTs). The leader appreciated accomplishments and also sets targets in their opinion more than in the sensing-feeling (SF) subordinates' (questions 4 and 5). The intuitive-thinking (NT) subordinates experienced more strongly than the sensing-thinking (ST) subordinates that the leader is aware of their level of ability (question 10). The leaders' positive

feedback was not in anyone's opinion exaggerated, but the intuitive–feeling subordinates (NF) agreed more definitely with the statement than the intuitive–thinking subordinates (NT) (question 13). The intuitive–thinking (NT) subordinates felt that they received least feedback (“I don't get any feedback at all”, question 9); the intuitive–feeling ones (NF) that they got the most. In general, the respondents differed with respect to this allegation about feedback, when they felt that they received feedback at least to some extent.

The subordinate's role. The intuitive–thinking (NTs) and sensing–feeling (SF) experienced themselves the most as being on an equal footing; the intuitive–feeling (NF) the least (question 1). The intuitive–thinking (NT) subordinates had evaluated their own performance most favourably; the sensing–thinking (ST) least favourably (question 6). The intuitive–thinking (NT) were best able to give honest feedback on the leader's activities and the environment; the intuitive–feeling subordinates (NF) were least capable of this (questions 7 and 8). Disagreeing with the leader was easiest for the intuitive–thinking (NT) compared with the sensing–thinking (ST) subordinates (question 15).

Subjects and atmosphere of the discussions. The most negative mood the discussions have produced in the intuitive–feeling (NF) and the sensing–thinking (ST) subordinates, although on the basis of the means all the respondents differed more than agreed with the statement. The negative mood was least noticeable among the intuitive–thinking (NT) subordinates (question 2). The sensing–feeling (SF) and the intuitive–feeling (NF) subordinates felt more than the rest that some of the topics they would have liked had not been discussed, while the intuitive–thinking (NT) subordinates disagreed the most with the offered statement (question 3). The intuitive–thinking (NT) subordinates experienced also more than the sensing–thinking (ST) and the sensing–feeling (SF) subordinates that their know–how is discussed (question 11). The intuitive–thinking (NT) subordinates felt, more than the others, that their possibility of development and their plans for the future are dealt with in the discussions. The responses of the intuitive–feeling (NF) subordinates were negative with regard to both (questions 12 and 14) (see Table 2).

Table 2. Means of subordinates' reactions to the development discussions in accordance with the cognitive style. The biggest mean of the response is blackened.

Quest	Statement	Mean ST n=35	Mean SF n=13	Mean NF n=6	Mean NT n=7	F- value	Sig	Post-hoc
1	I feel equal in the discussions	3,89	4,31	3,17	4,43	2,64	*	NT, SF > NF
2	The discussions have left me in a negative mood	2,06	1,62	2,50	1,00	3,82	**	NF, ST > NT
3	Some matters have not been discussed though I would have liked this	2,34	2,69	2,60	1,29	2,54	*	SF, NF > NT
4	The leader estimated my accomplishment	3,51	3,08	3,83	4,00	2,12	-	NT > SF
5	The leader sets targets	3,54	3,46	4,00	4,29	2,87	**	NT > SF
6	I have estimated my accomplishment myself	3,51	3,77	3,83	4,57	3,37	**	NT > ST
7	I can frankly give my leader feedback on his activities	3,57	3,15	2,67	4,29	2,80	**	NT > NF
8	I can frankly give my leader feedback on my working environment	4,06	4,15	3,33	4,43	1,65	-	NT > NF
9	I get no feedback at all	2,32	2,38	1,71	3,00	1,48	-	NF > NT
10	My leader knows my level of know-how	3,53	3,62	4,17	4,43	2,98	**	NT > ST
11	My know-how is talked about in discussions	3,21	3,23	3,33	4,29	2,85	**	NT > ST, SF
12	My possibility of development is discussed	3,50	3,54	2,83	4,14	1,45	-	NT > NF
13	The superior gives too much positive feedback	2,18	2,31	2,83	1,57	2,61	*	NF > NT
14	In the discussions my future plans are talked	3,47	3,85	2,83	4,00	1,79	-	NT > NF
15	I can easily disagree with my superior	3,44	4,15	3,50	4,57	3,40	**	NT > ST

Levels of significance: * .10, ** .05, *** .01

Conclusions

In the study the influence of personality on the appreciation of development discussions was examined from the standpoint of subordinates. From the cognitive styles the sensing-thinking (ST) was selected as a representative of leaders, and the subordinates of these leaders evaluated the proceedings of the discussions. A fair number of differences due to personality were found among the opinions of the subordinates. The intuitive-thinking (NT) subordinates differed most from the rest of the subordinates. It could have been assumed that the sensing-thinking (ST) subordinates would have

evaluated development discussions most positively of all since, according to development discussion literature, those who share the same kind of personality as a rule provide more positive feedback to one another; this is at least the rule concerning feedback from higher to lower level (Robbins, 1998:225–227; Ukkonen, 1989:54–55).

The results suggest that the intuitive–thinking (NT) subordinates estimate their leaders the most positively in the development discussions. Having one preference in common with the leader (T) may have the effect of making communication relatively easy. The intuitive–thinking (NT) people are self-confident, critical, analytical and adept at perceiving the whole. They can hold their own and, since the role of the subordinates is emphasized in development discussions, it is clearly seen from the results that they felt most self-confident in this situation. They felt for instance more equal and felt giving feedback easier than the other subordinates. Also differing in opinion from the leader was easier for them than for the others. They also for their own part influenced the topic area of the discussions by taking a more negative attitude than the others to the question of leaving matters undiscussed and evaluating their own accomplishment. From these responses it is easy to observe the importance of the subordinates' own activity in the experience of discussions.

The intuitive–feeling (NF) subordinates experienced discussions in the most negative way of all. This is an interesting result since their leaders (ST) were, as regards their cognitive style, different in both preferences. According to the theory, it is to be expected that entirely different personalities will regard discussion as the most difficult of all. The intuitive–feeling are apt to be friendly, helpful and good at perceiving wholes and discovering possibilities. Their means were the lowest in experiencing equality and talking about their own possibilities of development and of their future targets and also in providing feedback. They were also the least satisfied with feedback and with the choice of subjects for discussion. They were in addition more frequently than the others of the opinion that the discussions had produced a negative mood. The intuitives are often focused on the future with a long time perspective, whereas the sensing people are more likely to live here and now. The difference in experiencing “future” time perspectives appears in the responses of intuitive–feeling subordinates, when they

considered speaking of their own future targets weaker than others'. The sensing–thinking subordinates most probably see the future as a briefer period of time, nor do they stress this factor in the discussion as much as the future-oriented intuitives would like. Dissatisfaction with the subjects discussed and with talking about individual possibilities of development also indicates the different personalities' different views of these matters. Feeling subordinates often talk about things on a personal level as well, while to the thinking-oriented this is seldom relevant. The intuitive–feeling subordinates often readily talk about personal development (their own or others') since this is both related to the future (intuition) and to human sympathy (feeling). The sensing–thinking ones again, as more fact-oriented, may consider personal development as one part of development discussion and restrict themselves rather to concrete matters than venture into what they consider too theoretical hypotheses. In this case, discussions will not necessarily fulfil the expectations that the intuitive–feeling subordinates had of them. It is also to be noted that the metal trade organization is not, according to research, the most likely alternative to abstractly–bent emotional people (see Rissanen, 2003:69), in which case it may be that dissatisfaction with their own work may be reflected in their responses as well. Also, when the organization's culture stresses the thinking "harder" side of human beings, the intuitive–feeling ones may find it difficult to adapt themselves to this kind of organization.

The sensing–feeling (SF) subordinates felt that they were on an equal footing in the discussions, but felt more than the others that some topics were not discussed, although they would have liked it. In addition, less attention was paid to their capability, estimation of accomplishment and the setting of targets than the others experienced. Sensing–feeling people are sympathetic, concrete and social. They are not inevitably, because of their feeling preference, such active opinion-makers (as are not NFs either) as the sensing–thinking (ST) and intuitive–thinking subordinates. To them harmony and a pleasant atmosphere are important, which may be a reason why they have not in the discussions selected subject fields that would be likely to spoil the atmosphere.

The sensing–thinking (ST) differed from the rest in five dimensions. It is of some interest that they felt, more than the average that the discussions have led to a negative

mood. Although the result is surprising, since communication with the leader is assumed to be easier when leader and subordinate are similar in cognitive style, the result may indicate the sensing–thinking style’s tendency towards realism, which in others’ eyes may also look like pessimism. On the basis of their responses they have the least estimated their own accomplishments, may least disagree with their leader, and their leader knows the least about their level of know-how. The sensing–thinking people (ST) are practical, stick to facts and are down-to-earth. Their thinking preference (T) makes them prone to criticism, in which case a negative feedback to others should not be difficult for them. In this study they nevertheless felt that they can not very easily disagree with their leader, but felt they could give feedback on the leader’s activities almost equally freely as the intuitive–thinking (NT) ones. Then being of a different opinion may indicate that they feel they are on the same line as their leader, who represents the same cognitive style and there is thus little need for disagreement with the leader.

Intuitive–thinking (NT) and intuitive–feeling (NF) people are, with regard to their cognitive style, close to one another as are also sensing–thinking (ST) and sensing–feeling (SF) ones among themselves. The distinguishing factor is the decision-making function or thinking–feeling (T – F). An interesting fact in these results was that differences between intuitive–feeling (NF) and intuitive–thinking (NT) subordinates occurred with reference to nine statements whereas no differences at all were found between sensing–thinking (ST) and sensing–feeling (SF) ones. The thinking–feeling function (T – F) thus affects intuitive preference (N) differently from the sensing preference (S) at least in connection with development discussions.

On the basis of these results, leaders as well as subordinates can better than previously prepare for discussions by taking into account their own and the other party’s personality. For instance subordinates with a feeling preference (F) can try to influence the proceeding of the discussions more when they are aware of their own tendency to avoid negative matters in order to preserve the atmosphere of the discussions. Likewise leaders can with regard to these subordinates give more guidance and more actively

inquire about the subordinates' views and opinions about things. If the leader is very dominating, some subordinates may find it difficult to express their own views.

Studies have found out that a similar style of communication is connected with effectiveness of communication (Myers & McCaulley, 1990:70). The intention is not that either party should try to change its personality, but be flexible about its own style of communication in order to make communication easier and more fluent (see Young, 2004). In general it can be decided from these results that the subordinates' own activity positively influences satisfaction with the discussions.

Limitations and further research

In the results it is to be taken into consideration that although some of the cognitive styles gave lower and higher values to the statements, in all cases where differences occurred, the emphasis of the results were on the positive side. For instance with regard to the statement "The discussions have left me in a negative mood", the mean of the cognitive styles was below three, which means that on the average nobody was left with a negative mood. The development discussions are thus, judging by these results, useful. It must, however, be taken into consideration that the researcher's presence when the questionnaires were filled in might have affected the research results one way or the other, making them different from what they would have been if the respondents had filled in the sheets in their own time.

The relatively small amount of this data makes the results approximate. There is not any further information concerning the actual discussion situations. These situations may have influenced the participants' experience of the discussions. The ideal space for development discussions would be another than the leader's office, but in this case no information about the influence of the choice of space on the discussions has been available. In addition to these matters, it would be interesting to know the third party's, the observer's opinion of the development discussions.

With a view to further research, data should be obtained from several organizations of different types. With an increase in the amount of data it will be possible to draw more powerful conclusions. In spite of the smallness of the present data, it can be concluded that personality influences the experience of development discussions and their smoothness, and further research in this subject would be important.

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How often do you behave or act as following manners. Mark the number in every item, which best is in accordance of your opinion.

1= rarely 2= every now and then 3= sometimes 4= quite often 5= often

- | | | |
|------|--|------------|
| 1. | I seek challenging opportunities, which try-out my skills and capabilities | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 2. | I describe to others, what kind of future I would like to build with others. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 3. | I take others with when planning the actions | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 4. | I am sure about my philosophy of leading | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 5. | I take time to celebration, when the minor goals of project have been reached | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 6. | I am aware of newest things affecting our own organization | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 7. | I appeal to others, that they would identify my own dreams of future | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 8. | I treat others with respect and appreciation | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| (9. | I make sure that the projects I am leading are split into manageable parts | 1 2 3 4 5) |
| 10. | I make sure, that everybody's contribution is included in case of succession of our projects | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 11. | I call into question of our working methods | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| (12. | I give a clearly positive and wishful picture of the future of our organization | 1 2 3 4 5) |
| 13. | I give to others much freedom to do their own decisions | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 14. | I use time and energy, to make sure, that others hold on of values that have been agreed | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 15. | I acknowledge others from work well done | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 16. | I look for innovative ways, to improve our activities in organization | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 17. | I illustrate to others, how the long-time goals can be reached with common vision. | 1 2 3 4 5 |

- | | | | | | | |
|------|---|---|---|---|---|----|
| 18. | I develop co-operation relationships with people I work with | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. | I tell to others, how the organization that I am leading, is best to lead. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. | I give much appreciation and support to team members of their contribution. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (21. | I ask “what can we learn about this”, when the things do not go as expected | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5) |
| (22. | I look forward and foresee what kind the future will be | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5) |
| 23. | I create an trusting atmosphere to my projects | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. | I naturally follow the values that I support | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25. | I find many ways to celebrate accomplishments of works and tasks | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26. | I have the courage to take risks and new methods in my work, even if the failing is possible | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (27. | I will get others interested and being enthusiastic about future possibilities | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5) |
| 28. | I get others to feel the projects in which they are working as their own. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 29. | I make sure, that projects that I am leading, will have clear goals and that subgoals are planned and created | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 30. | I feel as an important thing to tell to others, how good work my group has done. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Bracets indicate that item has removed after factor analyses.

Appendix II. Factor loadings of MBTI continuous split-half scores (Järlström 2000)

Variables	F1	F2	F3	F4	Communality
XEI	0.93				0.87
YEI	0.91				0.86
XSN		0.88			0.83
YSN		0.88			0.83
XTF			0.91		0.86
YTF			0.92		0.86
XJP				0.91	0.88
YJP				0.91	0.88
Eigenvalues	1.50	0.98	1.43	2.94	
% variance explained	18.80	12.30	17.90	36.70	
Cumulative	55.50	85.80	73.50	36.60	

Notes: Type of factor analysis = principal component
Method of rotation = varimax
Loadings are abbreviated to two numbers and loadings + - 0.50 are included.