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EXAMINING FOLLOWER RESPONSES TO TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP FROM A DYNAMIC, PERSON–ENVIRONMENT FIT PERSPECTIVE

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We invoke the person–environment fit paradigm to examine on a daily basis follower affective, attitudinal, and behavioral responses to transformational leadership needed and received. Results from two experience sampling method (ESM) studies suggested that positive affect was higher on days when transformational leadership received fit follower needs (compared to days when the amount received was deficient or in excess of follower needs) and on days when absolute levels of fit was higher. We also found that positive affect mediated the within-person effects of transformational leadership needed and received on subordinates’ daily work attitudes (Studies 1 and 2) and organizational citizenship behaviors (Study 2). Supplemental analyses in Study 2 revealed that subordinates need more transformational leadership when they experience more challenge stressors, face greater uncertainty at work, and perform more meaningful work.

Organizations prize leaders who can inspire followers to meet and exceed high performance standards and embrace needed change. How leaders accomplish these tasks is a primary concern of theory and research

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pertaining to transformational leadership, leader behavior that is designed to “influence followers’ values and aspirations, activate their higher order-needs, and arouse them to transcend self-interests for the sake of the organization” (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996: 259–260). Empirical work generally supports predictions from transformational leadership theory. Performing behaviors from the transformational leadership repertoire—modeling idealized behaviors, articulating an inspiring vision, and offering intellectual stimulation and support (Avolio & Bass, 1991)—is associated with outcomes that are indicative of follower, team, and organizational effectiveness (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

However, our understanding of transformational leadership's outcomes is complicated by recent evidence suggesting that leaders' transformational behavior can vary dramatically over time (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, & Derks, 2016; Johnson, Venus, Lanaj, Mao, & Chang, 2012; Lanaj, Johnson, & Lee, 2016; Tims, Bakker, & Xanthopoulou, 2011). Because most theorizing is rooted in a relatively static conceptualization of transformational leadership as a between-leader construct, there is little theory to draw upon when it comes to explaining how followers experience within-leader fluctuations in transformational leadership behavior.

We develop a dynamic theory of transformational leadership by invoking Lambert, Tepper, Carr, Holt, and Barelka's (2012) person-environment (P-E) fit conceptualization of leadership as an environmental supply that followers use to satisfy psychological needs. Need fulfillment is a recurring theme in transformational leadership theory and research (see Avolio, 2010; Bass, 1990; Bono & Judge, 2003; Burns, 1978) and is an inherently within-person phenomenon in the sense that, on a daily basis, employees must navigate through varied experiences of need activation and satiation. We adapt Podsakoff et al.'s (1996: 259-260) aforementioned definition of transformational leadership to define transformational leadership needed as *the extent to which followers need leadership that is designed to influence followers' values and aspirations, activate their higher order-needs, and arouse them to transcend self-interests for the sake of the organization*. We extend Lambert et al.'s (2012) ideas by proposing that followers' need for transformational leadership varies daily and influences their responses to daily variation in their leaders' supply of transformational leadership. Our follower-centric theory (DeRue & Ashford, 2010) explains how employees make sense of and respond to transformational leadership that, on a daily basis, falls short of, meets, or surpasses needs.

The sections that follow introduce relevant features of P-E fit theory and hypotheses that speak to the dynamic effects of transformational leadership needed and received on follower affect and work attitudes. We then report the results of two experience sampling method (ESM) studies. The first utilizes daily measurements to explore follower affective and attitudinal responses to transformational leadership needed and received each day for 15 days within 65 employees ($n = 747$ daily observations). The second study extends the first by incorporating an important outcome variable in the form of daily citizenship behavior within 93 employees ($n = 970$

day-level observations) and by utilizing a more sophisticated three-point daily measurement approach. We also take the opportunity in Study 2 to explore within-person predictors of daily transformational leadership needed.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

P-E Fit

Our theorizing draws from the P-E fit research tradition suggesting that individuals' attitudes and behaviors result from the congruence or fit between psychological needs (i.e., those that are acquired through learning and experience) and environmental supplies (e.g., compensation, social connections, and recognition) (Pervin, 1989; Schneider, 1987). This approach posits that employees compare the amount of a particular resource that they need with the amount that their employer has supplied. The conclusions that result from this comparison process fall into three general categories: deficiency, fit, and excess. *Deficiency* occurs when organizational supplies fall short of employees' needs and is ordinarily detrimental to employee attitudes and behaviors (Edwards, Caplan, & Harrison, 1998; Locke, 1976); *fit* captures instances in which organizational supplies match employees' needs; and individuals experience *excess* when the organization supplies resources in amounts that surpass what is needed.

P-E fit theory posits that outcomes are usually more favorable when organizations supply resources in amounts that *fit* employee needs (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). However, outcomes need not be precisely the same in all cases where supplies match employees' needs. For some resources, outcomes may be more favorable when supplies and needs are both high, compared to when supplies and needs are both low (Edwards & Harrison, 1993). Edwards and Rothbard (1999) employ the term "metafit" to capture the idea that for some resources, absolute fit at high levels can carry over to satisfy other fundamental needs. Consider two individuals, one of whom wants and receives low amounts of challenge from their work and one of whom wants and receives high challenge. Both individuals may be said to experience fit between challenge needed and received. But, because jobs that afford employees higher levels of challenge also supply other generally desired resources such as esteem and status, the individual who wants and receives more challenge should experience need

fulfillment more broadly and comprehensively than will the individual who wants and receives less challenge. In general, the metafit concept explains why receiving high levels of a sought-after supply can satisfy needs that may otherwise not be satisfied for individuals who receive lower levels of an undesired supply.

Evidence from prior studies suggests that responses to excess depend on the kind of supply under consideration. Employees respond favorably to excess supplies that can be used to satisfy a variety of needs. Supplies of this sort are described as having *synergistic* properties; an example is high pay, which individuals can use to satisfy both psychological needs (e.g., status) and material needs (e.g., subsistence) (Edwards et al., 1998; Locke, 1976; Warr, 1994). Other supplies are characterized as having *antagonistic* properties because excess levels interfere with need fulfillment. For example, excess autonomy may produce isolation from feedback and assistance, which can compromise efforts to fulfill achievement needs (Edwards & Rothbard, 1999). Lambert et al. (2012) note that the synergistic/antagonistic distinction is one of degree. Supplies reside on a continuum that ranges from highly antagonistic (i.e., excess yields outcomes that are as unfavorable as deficiency), to moderately antagonistic (i.e., excess yields unfavorable outcomes, but not as unfavorable as those associated with deficiency), to moderately synergistic (i.e., excess yields favorable outcomes, but no more favorable than those associated with fit), to highly synergistic (i.e., responses continue to improve moving from deficiency to fit to excess).

Applying these concepts to the matter of modeling follower responses to transformational leadership, we define deficiency as conditions in which the amount of transformational leadership received is less than what followers need, fit as conditions in which transformational leadership received matches the amount needed, and excess as conditions when transformational leadership received exceeds followers' needs. We next propose that both transformational leadership needed and received vary dynamically and that followers continually reassess the degree to which the amounts they receive fit their needs.

Transformational Leadership Needed and Received as Dynamic Constructs

With few exceptions, contributions to the literature are rooted in the assumption that transformational

leadership is a static behavioral pattern that stabilizes at a certain level and thereafter remains constant. Consistent with this perspective, the focus in extant research has been on comparisons *between* leaders who vary in terms of how much or how often they behave transformationally. This work implicitly treats *within* leader variation in transformational leadership as transient error. However, there are compelling reasons to conceptualize transformational leadership as an episodic phenomenon whose variation over time is theoretically meaningful. Prototypical transformational leaders from the world of politics ordinarily inspire their followers through a series of transformational moments or events (e.g., Martin Luther King's, "I Have a Dream," "Nobel Prize Acceptance," and "I've Been to the Mountaintop" speeches) rather than through regular appeals (Robinson & Topping, 2013).

Even in the more mundane world of work, it is likely that highly transformational leaders are intermittently transformational. There are both logistical and strategic reasons for this. From a logistical standpoint, transformational leadership often involves direct contact with followers, opportunities for which vary within and across leader-follower relationships (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002). Moreover, enacting the transformational leadership repertoire requires that individuals summon positive affect (Bono & Ilies, 2006), which fluctuates over time and which requires effortful regulation (Judge, Fluegge Woolf, Hurst, & Livingston, 2008). On this point, Bass (1998) characterizes transformational leadership as non-routine acts that involve unusual levels of forethought and effort on the leader's part. For example, one element of the transformational leadership repertoire, inspirational motivation, requires that leaders articulate a vision of the future that resonates with targets, assess follower understanding, and revise and clarify messages when noise compromises the communication channel (Lord, Diefendorff, Schmidt, & Hall, 2010). Leaders must also expend effort when offering intellectual stimulation, which requires that they identify and monitor challenges in the environment and push followers to think critically and innovatively to develop imaginative and thoughtful solutions. To the extent that behaving transformationally expends self-regulatory resources, we can expect that leaders' transformational behavior will vary day-to-day (Muraven, Shmueli, & Burkley, 2006).

The strategic explanation is embodied in what Roberts, Roberts, O'Neill, and Blake-Beard (2008) referred to as "tempered visibility," a conscious

effort on the part of leaders to maximize their influence by managing their exposure to followers. To perform transformational leadership on a routine basis could engender affective adaptation (i.e., the weakening of emotional responses after repeated exposure to a stimulus; Wilson & Gilbert, 2008) and rob the behavior of its power to inspire. Thus, savvy leaders likely deploy their transformational repertoire intermittently. We therefore adopt the perspective that exposure to transformational leadership fluctuates day-to-day, and that discrete instances in which leaders behave transformationally constitute what Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) referred to as an “affective event,” a significant event at work that evokes emotional reactions (see Breevaart et al., 2016; Johnson et al., 2012; Lanaj et al., 2016; Tims et al., 2011).

We propose that followers’ experience of transformational leadership needed also varies dynamically. In their application of the P–E fit paradigm to leadership, Lambert et al. (2012: 915) argued that the “need for leadership is a situation-specific assessment that may vary across leaders, tasks, time, and forms of leader behavior.” Although Lambert et al. did not model within-person variation in leadership needed or received, their recognition of leadership needed as situation specific is consistent with a rich tradition of theory and research suggesting that need fulfillment is an ongoing process in which individual needs cycle through phases of activation and satiation (see Alderfer, 1969; Maslow, 1943). From moment to moment, the status or salience of particular needs change as individuals acquire from the environment the resources necessary to satisfy activated needs and as previously satiated needs are reactivated. That transformational leadership needed varies dynamically is consistent with theory suggesting that changing environmental circumstances influence the extent to which followers perceive transformational leadership to be instrumental in realizing goals that are of personal importance. Leadership scholars have posited that followers will want their leaders to behave more transformationally in times of uncertainty or crisis and when they desire opportunities to perform meaningful work (Bass, 1990; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993).

We further propose that to understand how followers respond to transformational leadership it is important to account for joint fluctuations in transformational leadership needed and received. Consider two followers, A and B, who need transformational leadership during a stressful time when each must prepare a proposal that could affect their organization’s

future and their own career prospects. During the time windows immediately before and after, both followers are consumed with inconsequential activities and, therefore, have little need for transformational leadership. Follower A receives transformational leadership after the proposal has been prepared and submitted (i.e., after it is needed) and Follower B receives transformational leadership when it is needed. If we were to query Followers A and B in a way that does not account for the dynamic nature of the constructs (e.g., Lambert et al., 2012), it is conceivable that both followers would report that transformational leadership needed and received were high, and we would render an unqualified conclusion that both experienced high absolute fit. Yet these employees’ experiences differed from one another and changed over time. Follower A experienced low absolute fit prior to the focal time window because transformational leadership was neither needed nor received, deficiency when transformational leadership was needed but not supplied, and excess when transformational leadership was supplied but no longer needed. For Follower B, transformational leadership was supplied when it was needed; however, this follower experienced low absolute fit prior to and after the focal time window, and high absolute fit during the window. Our theorizing therefore accounts for the idea that deficiency, fit, and excess are dynamic psychological experiences.

Proximal Consequences of Transformational Leadership Needed and Received

We turn now to describing how daily fluctuations in transformational leadership needed and received affect followers. Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) argue that the proximal consequence of important work events is an affective response. Transformational leader behaviors are significant events for followers in that they involve purposeful attempts to “view their work from new perspectives,” gain “awareness of the mission or vision of the team and organization,” perform at “higher levels of ability and potential,” and “look beyond their own interests toward those that will benefit the group” (Bass & Avolio, 1990: 2). Transformational leadership episodes therefore fit the definition of an affective event.

Our theorizing focuses on follower positive affect, which is a recurring theme in the transformational leadership literature. In early work, Bass (1985: 36) noted that transformational leadership “packs an emotional wallop.” Among scholars now, the consensus is

that transformational leadership arouses enthusiasm and a passionate commitment to goals that followers may have previously perceived to be unimportant or impossible; in other words, transformational leadership is an affective event that increases positive affect rather than decreases negative affect (see Ilies, Judge, & Wagner, 2006a). In a review of the literature pertaining to leadership and affect, Gooty, Connelly, Griffith, and Gupta (2010: 979) capture this perspective: “transformational leaders ignite followers’ aspirations, instilling pride, eliciting enthusiasm, and conveying optimism about a desirable future.” The conceptual basis for this position comes from theory linking the experience of rewarding events and interactions with positive affect and the experience of punishment and aversive interactions with negative affect (Carver & Scheier, 1990; Dimotakis, Scott, & Koopman, 2011). Consistent with the perspective that lower levels of transformational leadership constitute the absence of a rewarding interaction rather than the presence of an aversive interaction, evidence suggests that transformational leadership is more strongly associated with positive affect than with negative affect (e.g., Bono, Foldes, Vinson, & Muros, 2007; Tsai, Chen, & Cheng, 2009).

Affective events theory (AET) further suggests that affective responses to work events depend on employees’ need structure. Weiss and Cropanzano (1996: 32) argue that people appraise whether events are relevant to their *preferred states*: “what people strive for, what they seek to avoid, what they hope to maintain, what they want to see occur.” Events that align with preferred states evoke positive affective reactions. These ideas map onto the concepts fit, deficiency, and excess, even if Weiss and Cropanzano do not use precisely the same language used in P–E fit theory.

Supplies of transformational leadership that are deficient of needed amounts fail to satisfy followers’ preferences, which will be expressed as low positive affect. Followers may interpret deficient levels of momentary transformational leadership to mean that their leader is not articulating an inspiring vision, offering intellectual stimulation, or providing support that the moment or situation calls for. These followers may feel that by withholding transformational leadership, the leader is denying them the opportunity to play a meaningful role in an exciting and attainable future. Positive affect should therefore be higher as transformational leadership received increases from deficient to needed levels. Excess will occur when supplies of transformational leadership are higher than needed. Transformational

leadership is an intense appeal to followers that constitutes a call to rethink important assumptions and/or take action. As our prior example of Followers A and B illustrates, there may be instances in which individuals prefer either more routine leader behaviors or to be left alone entirely (Murnighan, 2012). In other words, there will be times when followers do not want their leaders “working” on their values or rendering appeals to their higher-order needs. On these occasions, followers should find transformational leadership to be less useful in helping them achieve their “preferred state.” We therefore propose that, as supplies of transformational leadership exceed needed levels, positive affect will decline. In keeping with the characterization of deficient and excess transformational leadership as the absence of a generally rewarding experience (that has implications for positive affect) rather than as an aversive experience with leaders (e.g., abusive supervision; Tepper, Simon, & Park, 2017), we anticipate no such effects for negative affect (Dimotakis et al., 2011).

That there are times when followers do not experience transformational leadership as need fulfilling may seem counter-intuitive given the hegemonic position among scholars that, when it comes to transformational leadership, more is better. But, this feature of our theorizing is not without conceptual or evidentiary precedent. Grant and Schwartz (2011) point out that unusually high levels of coveted experiences (e.g., having choices and desirable job characteristics) and prized attributes (e.g., loyalty and empathy) are not always associated with favorable outcomes. Pierce and Aguinis (2013) have written on the “too much of a good thing” effect, in which objectively positive work experiences can yield less favorable outcomes. Ehrhart and Klein’s (2001) between-person study of leadership preferences suggests that this effect may be observed in followers of transformational leaders. Hence, consistent with the characterization of transformational leadership as having antagonistic properties (i.e., responses are less favorable under conditions of deficiency and excess, and favorable when there is fit between needed and supplied amounts; see Lambert et al., 2012; Matta, Scott, Koopman, & Conlon, 2015), we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1. Within individuals, positive affect will be higher when transformational leadership needed and received are equal compared to when transformational leadership is deficient of, or exceeds, needed amounts.

The P–E fit perspective also offers insights into the nuanced ways that followers respond to varying levels of absolute fit between transformational leadership needed and received. Low absolute fit refers to situations where transformational leadership needed and received are both low, and high absolute fit refers to situations where transformational leadership needed and received are both high. When followers need and receive low amounts of transformational leadership, they are presumably adequately inspired and require no additional personal attention. However, at high levels of absolute fit, followers have substantial needs for transformational leadership that are being met. Consistent with the aforementioned concept of “meta-fit”—that high levels of absolute fit can carry over to satisfy other fundamental needs (Edwards & Rothbard, 1999)—we propose that followers who have high needs for transformational leadership will be able to use high supplies to experience desirable psychological states like intrinsic motivation (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006), self-concordance with work goals (Bono & Judge, 2003), and self-efficacy (Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003). In other words, high levels of transformational leadership can satisfy high needs for transformational leadership *and* satisfy other fundamental learned needs: to feel internally motivated, focused on goals that fit personal interests, and competent (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Ryan & Deci, 2000; White, 1959). No such carryover effects are likely when followers need and receive low levels of transformational leadership. This means that the positive effects of fit should be stronger as absolute fit increases from lower to higher levels. We therefore hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 2. Within individuals, positive affect will be higher when transformational leadership needed and received are both high compared to when transformational leadership needed and received are both low.

Distal Consequences of Transformational Leadership Needed and Received

The levels of positive affect that result from the joint effect of transformational leadership needed and received will, in turn, influence followers’ work attitudes. Our preliminary analysis focuses on two work attitudes that have been linked with transformational leadership in between-person studies: job satisfaction (“a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from an appraisal of one’s job or job experiences;” Locke, 1976: 1300) and satisfaction with supervision (affective liking for one’s immediate

supervisor). Evidence from within-person research suggests that job satisfaction is an evaluative state that varies over time and that temporal variation in job satisfaction has substantive causes (Ilies, Scott, & Judge, 2006b; Judge & Ilies, 2004; Scott & Judge, 2006). Based on work suggesting that evaluations of attitude objects consist of an affective component that varies episodically (Weiss, Nicholas, & Daus, 1999), it is reasonable to expect that satisfaction with supervision also fluctuates within people.

Within-person links between positive affect and both job satisfaction and satisfaction with supervision are consistent with theory and evidence suggesting that individuals’ prevailing emotional states influence their assessments of or judgments about attitude objects (see Blaney, 1986; Schwarz & Clore, 1988). Experiencing affective work events that elicit positive emotions increases the likelihood of making positive assessments of attitude objects like one’s job or supervisor (Brief, Butcher, & Roberson, 1995). We therefore propose that positive affect explains the intra-individual impact of transformational leadership on followers’ satisfaction with the job and the supervisor. When the amount of momentary transformational leadership needed and received is consistent with followers’ preferred states, followers experience higher levels of positive affect. Followers’ positive affect, in turn, influences their job satisfaction and satisfaction with supervision. In other words, the joint effect of transformational leadership needed and received influences followers’ work attitudes indirectly, through positive affect.

Hypothesis 3. Within individuals, positive affect will mediate the relationship of transformational leadership needed and received to subordinates’ job satisfaction (Hypothesis 3a) and satisfaction with supervision (Hypothesis 3b).

STUDY 1

Sample and Procedure

We conducted an ESM test of Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3. Study participants were 69 Master of Business Administration (MBA) students who held full-time jobs. Participation satisfied a course requirement and involved completing an in-class survey and 15 on-line, daily surveys at the end of each workday (Monday through Friday) for three weeks. We eliminated from the analyses the responses from four individuals who completed zero or one daily survey. This left 65 individuals who provided 846 daily

responses out of a possible 975 (65 participants \times 15 workdays). Controlling for lagged scores on the dependent variables reduced the sample size to 747 daily observations. The final sample consisted of 36 women and 29 men, and the average age was 29.9 ($SD = 3.8$) years. The in-class survey captured demographic information and the daily surveys included measures of transformational leadership needed and received, positive affect, job satisfaction, and satisfaction with supervision. We also measured daily negative affect in order to control for its effects in our tests of Hypothesis 3 and to explore its relationships with transformational leadership needed and received.

Measures

Because completing daily surveys for three weeks can be an onerous task (see Dimotakis, Ilies, & Judge, 2013) it is desirable to make those surveys easy to complete. We therefore assessed the level-1 constructs with as few items as possible without compromising the psychometric properties of the measures (Beal, 2015).

Transformational leadership. We measured daily levels of transformational leadership needed and received using four items from Avolio and Bass' (2004) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) that respectively capture idealized leadership, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. The daily instrument presented the items, one at a time, and respondents were instructed to use a scale that ranged from 1 = "hardly any" to 7 = "a great amount" to answer two questions about each behavior: how much their supervisor had used the behavior that day (leadership received) and how much of the behavior would have been adequate (leadership needed) (see Edwards, Cable, Williamson, Lambert, & Shipp, 2006). Across the days of data collection, the average coefficient α was .89 for transformational leadership needed and .85 for transformational leadership received.

Positive and negative affect. We measured daily positive and negative affect using Watson, Clark, and Tellegen's (1988) 20-item Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS). At the end of each day participants used a 5-point scale that ranged from 1 = "not at all" to 5 = "extremely" to report the extent to which they currently felt emotions such as "excited," "enthusiastic," and "inspired" for positive affect, and "distressed," "anxious," and "afraid" for negative affect. We averaged the item scores to form total scores for positive affect and negative affect.

The average coefficient α , across the days of data collection, was .96 for positive affect and .87 for negative affect.

Job satisfaction and satisfaction with supervision.

We measured job satisfaction using three items from Edwards and Rothbard (1999) and we measured satisfaction with supervision using three items from Spector's (1997) job satisfaction survey. Illustrative items read, "I was satisfied with my job today" (job satisfaction) and "I really like my supervisor today" (satisfaction with supervision). Participants used a 7-point scale (1 = "very strongly disagree" to 7 = "very strongly agree") to rate their level of agreement with the items. The average coefficient alphas across days were .97 for job satisfaction and .95 for satisfaction with supervision.

Confirmatory Factor Analyses

We used confirmatory factor analysis to evaluate the measures' factor structure. Because the transformational leadership needed and received items captured identical content, the disturbance terms between corresponding items were permitted to covary (see Cole, Ciesla, & Steiger, 2007). Table 1 shows that a six-factor model (transformational leadership needed, transformational leadership received, positive affect, negative affect, job satisfaction, and satisfaction with supervision) had a fairly acceptable root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) (.05), standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) (.07), and comparative fit index (CFI) (.89). In terms of χ^2 , CFI, RMSEA, and AIC (Akaike Information Criterion), this proposed model outperformed a five-factor model that collapsed transformational leadership needed and received, a four-factor model that collapsed satisfaction and positive affect, and a 1-factor model that combined all the items. The proposed model's SRMR was superior to all others except for one that combined the leadership items. We therefore conducted further analyses of the leadership items only. A two-factor model, in which transformational leadership needed and received loaded on separate factors fit the data well ($\chi^2 = 21.68$; $df = 15$; $p > .10$) and was superior to a one-factor model ($\chi^2 = 485.39$; $df = 16$; $p < .01$).

Plan of Analysis

We tested the hypotheses using first-order autoregressive HLM (hierarchical linear modeling) models. To estimate the within-individual effects of deficient and excess transformational leadership on positive

TABLE 1
Confirmatory Factor Analysis Models for Study 1

	χ^2	<i>df</i>	χ^2/df	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	AIC
<i>All Variables</i>							
6-factor Model: Proposed	1727.61	508	3.40	0.89	.05	.07	53845.52
5-Factor Model: Leadership variables combined	2118.46	513	4.13	0.85	.06	.07	54283.70
4-Factor Model: PA and satisfaction variables combined	4712.14	517	9.11	0.61	.10	.10	57428.86
1-Factor Model: All variables combined	6927.25	523	13.25	0.40	.12	.14	60339.27
<i>Leadership Variables Only</i>							
2-Factor Model: Leadership needed and received	21.68	15	1.45	0.99	.02	.02	17740.17
1-Factor Model: Leadership variables combined	485.39	16	30.34	0.66	.19	.05	18149.79

Notes: $n = 846$ observations derived from 66 individuals. In all models, parallel items between needed and received transformational leadership were allowed to covary. PA = positive affect; NA = negative affect.

affect (Hypothesis 1), as well as the effects of experiencing fit at different levels (Hypothesis 2), we regressed positive affect on daily levels of transformational leadership needed, transformational leadership received, their product term, and their respective squared terms (Edwards, 2002). This analysis controlled for lagged positive affect from the previous day (e.g., Scott & Barnes, 2011). We used the information from this equation to evaluate the slope and curvature of the misfit line and of the fit line, corresponding to the tests of Hypotheses 1 and 2, respectively.

We used a block variable approach (Heise, 1972; Marsden, 1983) to test the mediation hypotheses for job satisfaction (Hypothesis 3a) and for satisfaction with supervision (Hypothesis 3b). A block variable is created by regressing a dependent variable on a relevant predictor set and using the regression weights to create a predicted value for each data-point (Igra, 1979). The standardized estimates for the block variable reflect the direct effects of transformational leadership needed and received and the indirect effect through positive affect is calculated by multiplying the standardized estimate of the block variable on positive affect with the standardized estimate of positive affect on the respective satisfaction variables (for recent examples, see Wilson, Baumann, Matta, Iliès, & Kossek, 2018; Wilson, DeRue, Matta, Howe, & Conlon, 2016). We estimated confidence intervals for the indirect effect using PRODCLIN (MacKinnon, Fritz, Williams, & Lockwood, 2007).

Variance Components

We first estimated a null model for each level-1 variable. In all cases, there was sufficient within-person

variance to test the hypotheses: 32.2% for transformational leadership needed, 51.3% for transformational leadership received, 39.1% for positive affect, 52.7% for negative affect, 58.3% for job satisfaction, and 40.3% for satisfaction with supervision.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 2 reports descriptive statistics for the study variables. Within individuals, transformational leadership needed correlated positively with transformational leadership received, positive affect, and satisfaction with supervision; transformational leadership received correlated positively with positive affect, job satisfaction, and satisfaction with supervision; and positive affect and negative affect correlated with both satisfaction variables.

Hypothesis Tests

Hypothesis 1 predicted that individuals will report higher levels of positive affect on days in which they experience fit between transformational leadership needed and received compared to days in which they experience deficiency or excess. HLM results associated with the test of Hypothesis 1 are presented in Table 3 along with tests of the response surface along the fit and misfit lines. As reported in Table 3 and depicted in Figure 1, there was positive slope ($slope = .33, p < .01$) and negative curvature ($curvature = -.25, p < .01$) along the misfit line for positive affect. We further probed the effects of fit versus misfit by calculating the slope of the misfit line 1 *SD* into the regions of deficiency and excess. In the region of deficiency, the slope was positive ($slope = .95,$

TABLE 2
Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Study 1 Variables

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD_w</i>	<i>SD_b</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Lagged Positive Affect	2.67	0.62	0.77		.04	.58**	.36**	.18	.25*	.99**	.07	.60**	.34**
2. Lagged Negative Affect	1.39	0.39	0.35	-.10		-.15	-.04	.32*	.11	.03	.97**	-.18	-.05
3. Lagged Job Satisfaction	4.70	0.93	0.81	.54**	-.30**		.43**	.18	.35**	.60**	-.09	.97**	.45**
4. Lagged Sat. with Sup.	4.64	0.76	0.96	.33**	-.22**	.54**		.10	.42**	.34**	.00	.44**	.99**
5. TL Needed	2.81	0.80	1.26	.04	.04	.07	.07		.69**	.20	.28*	.15	.11
6. TL Received	2.54	0.96	1.04	.04	.07	.04	.04	.73**		.26*	.11	.31*	.42**
7. Positive Affect	2.66	0.61	0.41	.14**	.13**	-.02	-.02	.15**	.26**		.04	.59**	.33**
8. Negative Affect	1.37	0.36	0.79	.08	.09	.01	.01	.08	.01	-.09		-.10	-.01
9. Job Satisfaction	4.69	0.91	0.84	-.06	.09*	-.02	-.02	.02	.17**	.54**	-.30**		.47**
10. Satisfaction with Sup.	4.65	0.75	0.95	-.02	.03	.04	.04	.19**	.38**	.33**	-.20**	.52**	

Notes: *n* = 747–846 observations derived from 65 individuals. The smaller sample size involves analyses for lagged variables. Within-person correlations are shown below the diagonal; between-person correlations are above the diagonal.

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

p < .01) and, in the region of excess, the slope was negative (*slope* = $-.28$, *p* < .01). These results mean that beyond 1 standard deviation of misfit, both deficient and excess levels of transformational leadership were associated with decreasing levels of daily positive affect, although the effects of deficient transformational leadership were stronger than the effects of excess transformational leadership. As predicted in Hypothesis 1, positive affect was lower on days when transformational leadership received was deficient, or in excess of, followers’ needs.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that positive affect will increase as absolute levels of fit between transformational leadership needed and received increase. As shown in Table 3, there was positive slope (*slope* = $.14$, *p* < .01) and null curvature (*curvature* = $-.01$, *p* > .10) along the fit line for positive affect. This means that, compared to fit at lower levels, fit at higher levels was associated with higher levels of positive affect. Hypothesis 2 was supported.

Table 4 presents results pertaining to Hypotheses 3a and 3b. The path estimate from the transformational leadership block variable to positive affect was positive and significant ($\gamma' = .29$, *p* < .01), as were the path estimates from positive affect to job satisfaction ($\gamma' = .46$, *p* < .01) and from positive affect to satisfaction with supervision ($\gamma' = .22$, *p* < .01). The indirect effect of the transformational leadership block variable through positive affect was significant for both job satisfaction (*IE'* = $.13$, *p* < .01,

*CI*_{95%} = $.10, .17$) and for satisfaction with supervision (*IE'* = $.06$, *p* < .01, *CI*_{95%} = $.04, .09$). Hypotheses 3a and 3b were supported.

Supplemental Analyses

We conducted supplemental analyses of transformational leadership needed and received predicting negative affect. As we explained earlier, there are reasons to expect that the effects of transformational leadership needed and received would be weaker for negative affect than for positive affect. Consistent with that position, the polynomial equation explained less level-1 variance in negative affect (pseudo-*R*² = $.03$) than in positive affect (pseudo-*R*² = $.12$). The analyses for negative affect revealed evidence of positive slope along the fit line ($\gamma = .03$, *p* < .05) and negative slope along the misfit line ($\gamma = -.15$, *p* < .01) and indirect effects through negative affect on job satisfaction (*IE'* = $-.04$, *p* < .05, *CI*_{95%} = $-.06, -.02$) and on satisfaction with supervision (*IE'* = $-.02$, *p* < .05, *CI*_{95%} = $-.04, -.01$). These results, which are depicted in Figure 2, suggest that negative affect decreased as transformational leadership received increased from deficiency to fit to excess.

As a robustness check, we also reran all models controlling for participant age and gender. These demographic variables were not significant predictors of the dependent variables and including them produced no substantive changes in the results. The same was true when we reran the models excluding the lagged effects of the dependent variables.

TABLE 3
Polynomial Regression Results for Transformational Leadership Needed and Received Predicting Positive Affect and Negative Affect in Study 1

Variables	Positive Affect		Negative Affect	
	γ	<i>t</i> -value	γ	<i>t</i> -value
Intercept	2.71	26.27	1.40	28.26
Lagged DV	-.17**	-4.70	-.31**	-9.26
Transformational Leadership Received	.23**	7.32	-.05**	-2.71
Transformational Leadership Needed	-.10**	-2.58	.09**	3.89
Transformational Leadership Received Squared	-.07**	-3.43	.00	.24
Interaction Term	.12**	2.64	.02	.71
Transformational Leadership Needed Squared	-.07	-1.73	-.02	-.88
Pseudo- <i>R</i> ²	.12		.03	
Response Surface Characteristics	Estimate	$\chi^2_{(1)}$	Estimate	$\chi^2_{(1)}$
Fit Line Slope	.14**	23.00	.03*	5.33
Misfit Line Slope	.33**	26.14	-.15**	13.24
Fit Line Curvature	-.01	.42	.00	.02
Misfit Line Curvature	-.25**	7.93	-.03	.48

Notes: *n* = 747 observations derived from 65 individuals. Tabled values are unstandardized coefficients. Lagged DV refers to the previous week's value for the focal dependent variable. Pseudo-*R*² refers to the reduction in the dependent variable's level-1 variance compared to a null model (Snijders & Bosker, 2011).

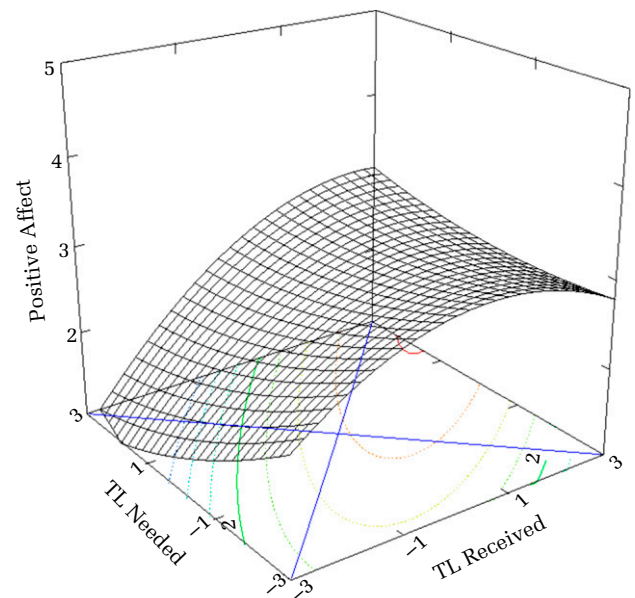
**p* < .05
 ***p* < .01

TRANSITION TO STUDY 2

Elaborating the Model to Include Behavioral Outcomes

Having found preliminary support for a dynamic, P-E fit model of follower responses to transformational leadership, we next developed and tested an elaborated model that accounts for a distal behavioral outcome of transformational leadership needed and received: organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). OCB refers to performance contributions beyond the individual's job description that formal reward systems do not typically recognize (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Individuals may perform extra-role behaviors that benefit the organization (OCB-O; e.g., expressing loyalty toward the organization or

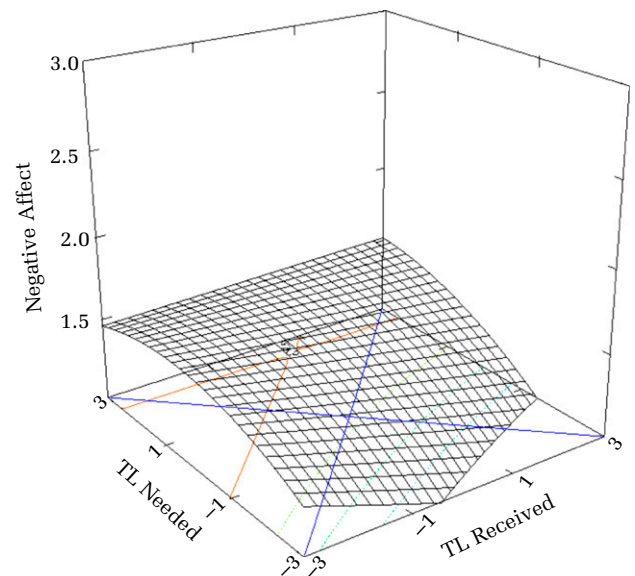
FIGURE 1
Transformational Leadership Needed and Received Predicting Positive Affect in Study 1



Note: TL = Transformational Leadership.

talking positively about the organization) or that benefit other individuals (OCB-I; e.g., helping co-workers or behaving courteously).

FIGURE 2
Transformational Leadership Needed and Received Predicting Negative Affect in Study 1



Note: TL = Transformational Leadership.

TABLE 4
Block Variable Analyses in Study 1

Variables	Positive Affect		Negative Affect		Job Satisfaction		Satisfaction with Supervisor	
	γ'	t-value	γ'	t-value	γ'	t-value	γ'	t-value
Intercept	2.71	26.53	1.40	28.85	4.71	45.45	4.69	39.53
Lagged DV	-.17**	-4.72	-.33**	-9.29	-.23**	-8.33	-.17**	-5.32
Block Variable	.29**	8.35	.15**	4.32	.17**	5.81	.35**	10.74
Positive Affect					.46**	15.07	.22**	6.42
Negative Affect					-.28**	-9.29	-.17**	-5.16
Pseudo-R ²	.12		.03		.38		.27	
Indirect Effects					IE'	z-value	IE'	z-value
Via Positive Affect					.13**	7.29	.06**	5.01
CI _{95%}					[.10	.17]	[.04,	.09]
Via Negative Affect					-.04*	-2.47	-.02*	-2.41
CI _{95%}					[-.06	-.02]	[-.04	-.01]

Notes: $n = 747$ observations derived from 65 individuals. Tabled coefficients are unstandardized. CI_{95%} refers to the 95% confidence interval for the indirect effect. Lagged DV refers to the previous week's value for the focal dependent variable. Pseudo-R² refers to the reduction in the dependent variable's level-1 variance compared to a null model.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

AET provides the conceptual basis for expecting that the positive affect resulting from the dynamic, joint effects of transformational leadership needed and received translate into follower OCB. Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) describe OCBs as “affect-driven behaviors,” voluntary actions that fluctuate over time and that reflect individuals' momentary affective experience. The logical arguments preceding our first hypothesis explain how transformational leadership needed and received influence positive affect. Building on AET to explain how positive affect, in turn, influences OCB, Ilies et al. (2006b) argue that when people are in a good mood they are inclined to perceive others more positively and are therefore more likely to perform acts from which others may derive benefits. Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch, and Hulin (2009) similarly theorize that events that produce positive affect make thoughts about positive behaviors more accessible. In other words, when contemplating their behavioral options, individuals who are in a good mood will privilege acts that benefit the organization and fellow employees. As Dalal et al. (2009: 1053) put it, “OCB is a behavioral manifestation” of state positive affect. These arguments suggest a fourth hypothesis that we tested in Study 2:

Hypothesis 4. Within individuals, positive affect will mediate the relationship between transformational leadership needed and received and subordinates' OCB-O (Hypothesis 4a) and subordinates' OCB-I (Hypothesis 4b).

Identifying Predictors of Transformational Leadership Needed

If transformational leadership needed is as important as our theorizing and Study 1 results suggest, it would seem essential to understand why followers experience a high need for transformational leadership on some days but not others. We therefore designed Study 2 to explore within-person predictors of transformational leadership needed.

Identifying predictors of transformational leadership needed is complicated by the fact that most contributions to the literature implicitly or explicitly embrace a “more is better” perspective on transformational leadership performance. In other words, it is typically assumed that employees have a pervasive and enduring need for transformational leadership (Li, Chiaburu, Kirkman, & Xie, 2013). However, in a handful of writings in which scholars have acknowledged that situational factors influence the necessity for transformational leadership, two themes emerge. The first is that transformational leadership is indispensable during stressful times (Bass, 1990; Shamir et al., 1993). LePine, Zhang, Crawford, and Rich (2016) argue that transformational leadership influences followers' appraisals of and responses to environmental demands and that transformational leaders model the confidence and enthusiasm that helps subordinates construe potentially stressful times as opportunities. Evidence

supporting these arguments comes from studies suggesting that followers perceive lower threat appraisals when their leaders behave more transformationally (Lyons & Schneider, 2009). Recognizing that transformational leadership serves followers well under stressful conditions, we expect that when these conditions arise followers will look for transformational behavior in their leaders.

The second theme has to do with followers' subjective perception of the meaningfulness of their work. Work is more meaningful when it inspires a sense of purpose and social significance that transcends the motivating power of economic incentives (e.g., pay, benefits, or career advancement; Pratt & Ashforth, 2003). Theory (Podolny, Khurana, & Hill-Popper, 2005) and evidence (Arnold, Turner, Barling, Kelloway, & McKee, 2007; Sparks & Schenk, 2001) suggest that transformational leaders connect followers to a higher purpose and inspire followers to allocate time to meaningful work activities. Individuals may therefore perceive transformational leadership as a mechanism for instilling meaning into their work. From this perspective, followers should be more likely to report that they need transformational leadership when their work is less meaningful.

An alternative perspective is that followers look for transformational behavior in their leaders when performing work that is more meaningful. Shamir et al. (1993) argue that, as the stakes increase, it is essential that followers demonstrate the unconditional commitment to exceptional performance that transformational leaders model, inspire, and nurture. When it comes to less consequential work activities (i.e., routine, day-to-day work) transformational leadership is contraindicated because leaders need only supply the extrinsic motivators that ensure satisfactory performance. To the extent that followers recognize the important role that transformational leadership plays in helping them "rise to the occasion," we would expect them to express a stronger need for transformational leadership when performing meaningful work. These opposing perspectives make it unclear whether followers desire transformational leadership when their work lacks meaning or when performing work that is already meaningful. We therefore examined on an exploratory basis the relationship between followers' need for transformational leadership and followers' experience of work meaningfulness.

STUDY 2

We designed Study 2 to test Hypotheses 1 through 4, to conduct an exploratory examination of predictors of transformational leadership needed, and to address some methodological limitations of Study 1. Study 1

participants completed all measures at the same time each day and we therefore cannot rule out the possibility of reverse-causality. Person-mean centering the level-1 variables eliminates between individual sources of variance that evoke many concerns about the validity of self-report data (e.g., response sets, personality confounds; Judge & Ilies, 2004) and common method variance does not explain the finding of negative curvilinearity (Siemsen, Roth, & Oliveira, 2010). Still, it seemed prudent to test the hypotheses using time-separated measures of the constructs that capture our frameworks' novel features: transformational leadership needed, transformational leadership received, and positive affect.

Sample and Procedure

We used e-mail to contact employees of a large Midwestern university. That e-mail described the study and incentives, provided a link to an enrollment survey, and instructed that they could forward the e-mail to family or friends if they wished, although there was no incentive for doing so (for a similar approach, see Koopman, Lanaj, & Scott, 2016). The first 109 individuals who signed-up composed the initial sample. Participants completed demographic items during the study sign-up phase and were then invited to complete three surveys per day for 15 consecutive workdays. The first survey was e-mailed at the start of the workday and contained measures of transformational leadership needed, baseline positive and negative affect, and the predictors of transformational leadership needed (stress and work meaningfulness). The second survey, which was administered at the midpoint of the workday, contained measures of transformational leadership received and baseline measures of the outcome variables (i.e., job satisfaction, satisfaction with supervision, OCB-O, and OCB-I). We also included the measure of transformational leadership needed on the mid-workday survey so that we could examine workday-start stress and meaningfulness as predictors of mid-workday transformational leadership needed. The third daily survey was administered at workday-end and included measures of positive and negative affect and the outcome variables. Participants were compensated up to \$75 depending on how many daily surveys they completed.

We eliminated responses from individuals who worked independently of their formal supervisor in general or at the time of the study (i.e., their supervisor was on vacation or otherwise absent). Missing or unusable data reduced the sample size to 93 individuals who provided 913 day-level observations (i.e., days in which individuals completed all three

daily surveys). The participants were mostly women (78.9%) and Caucasian (82.3%). The average age was 43.3 years ($SD = 10.96$) and average tenure with the employer was 7.4 years ($SD = 6.9$). Participants were employed in a variety of technical, clerical, and administrative positions.

Measures

Transformational leadership needed and received.

For Study 2 we employed 10-item measures of transformational leadership that sampled more broadly from the content domain than did the 4-item measures in Study 1. For each of the four MLQ sub-dimensions—idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration—we selected the two items that displayed the strongest factor loadings in prior assessments of the full instrument's psychometric properties. We then added two more items that had the strongest factor loadings of the remaining MLQ items, regardless of the dimension from which they came. Transformational leadership needed was measured on the workday-start survey (for the purposes of testing Hypotheses 1 through 4) and the mid-workday survey (for the supplemental examination of transformational leadership needed predictors) and the items were prefaced with the question, "how much of this behavior do you want from your supervisor today?" Transformational leadership received was assessed on the mid-workday survey and the items were prefaced with the question, "how much of this behavior have you received today?" Participants reported on transformational leadership needed and received using the response format used in Study 1: 1 = "hardly any" to 7 = "a great amount." Average coefficient alphas were .96 for transformational leadership needed at workday-start, .97 for mid-workday transformational leadership needed, and .97 for mid-workday transformational leadership received.

Affect and satisfaction. To capture positive affect, negative affect, job satisfaction, and satisfaction with the supervisor we employed the same measures that were used in Study 1. Study 2 participants completed the affect measures at the beginning and at the end of the workday and the satisfaction measures on the mid-workday and workday-end surveys. The instructions asked participants to report their levels of positive and negative affect and job and supervisor satisfaction since the previous survey that they had completed. The average α coefficients at baseline and at workday-end, respectively were .95 and .95 for positive affect, .83 and .84 for negative affect, .80 and .81 for job satisfaction, and .85 and .85 for satisfaction with supervision.

Organizational citizenship behavior. On the mid-workday and workday-end surveys, respondents completed eight items from Lee and Allen's (2002) measures of OCB-O (four items) and OCB-I (four items). Participants used a seven-point response scale (1 = "very strongly disagree" to 7 = "very strongly agree") to report their level of agreement with items like "I offered ideas to improve the functioning of my organization" and "I took action to protect my organization from potential problems" for OCB-O and "I willingly gave my time to help others who had a work-related problem" and "I assisted others with their duties" for OCB-I. On the mid-workday survey, respondents reported the extent to which they had performed OCBs since the start of the workday; on the workday-end survey, respondents reported their OCB performance since mid-workday. Across days, the average α coefficients were .91 for mid-workday OCB-O, .93 for workday-end OCB-O, .89 for mid-workday OCB-I, and .91 for workday-end OCB-I.

Predictors of transformational leadership needed.

At workday-start, participants completed measures of stressors and work meaningfulness. Because our examination does not rule out any particular conceptualization of workplace stress, we employed measures that sample broadly from the domain. Specifically, we assessed challenge stressors (i.e., job demands that offer growth opportunities, time pressure, complexity, and responsibility; Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling, & Boudreau, 2000), hindrance stressors (i.e., job demands that represent obstacles to personal development and achievement, administrative hassles, insufficient resources, and politics; Cavanaugh et al., 2000), and uncertainty (i.e., the sense that one cannot predict the future because relevant information is lacking; van den Bos & Lind, 2002). We used Rodell and Judge's (2009) eight-item measures of challenge stressors and hindrance stressors. To avoid overtaxing participants during each measurement period (Beal, 2015), participants were randomly assigned four of the eight items from the challenge and hindrance stressor subscales, respectively. We measured uncertainty and work meaningfulness using four-item scales from Colquitt, LePine, Piccolo, Zapata, and Rich (2012) and from Bunderson and Thompson (2009), respectively. We adapted these items to reflect our study's focus on daily experiences. Illustrative items read, "I will experience severe time pressure in my work" (challenge stressors), "I anticipate having assignments to complete without adequate resources or materials" (hindrance stressors), "Today at work I feel a lot of uncertainty" (uncertainty), and "Today, the work I will do is meaningful" (meaningfulness). For all four measures, the response format ranged from 1 = "very strongly

disagree” to 7 = “very strongly agree.” The average α coefficients were .93 for challenge stressors, .92 for hindrance stressors, .95 for uncertainty, and .94 for work meaningfulness.

Confirmatory Factor Analyses

As in Study 1, our assessment of the items’ factor structure began with an evaluation of the full set of items and, for the commensurate transformational leadership needed and received items, we freed the error terms to covary. Because we used item sampling to assess challenge stress and hindrance stress, their operationalizations varied across measurement occasions. We therefore specified the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) models such that the indicators of challenge stress and hindrance stress were the respective four items selected according to the order in which they appeared on each level-1 measurement occasion. While this is unorthodox, alternative approaches (e.g., missing variable imputation) would favor better-fitting models. To evaluate the extent to which this influenced the measurement model, we ran the CFAs with and without the challenge and hindrance stressor items. Excluding these items had no effect on the conclusions that we draw from the CFAs; we therefore report results from analyses that included the stressor items.

Table 5 shows that a 12-factor model (transformational leadership needed, transformational leadership received, positive affect, negative affect, job satisfaction, satisfaction with supervision, OCB-O, OCB-I, challenge stress, hindrance stress, uncertainty, meaningfulness) fit the data reasonably well in terms of CFI (.90), RMSEA (.04), and SRMR (.05). Alternative models combining either the leadership variables, the predictors of transformational

leadership needed, or the mediator and the distal outcomes did not perform as well as the proposed model. A follow-up analysis of just the transformational leadership needed and received items suggested that a two-factor model provided a fairly good fit to the data (CFI = .91; RMSEA = .06; SRMR = .04; AIC = 50650.57) and was superior to a model in which these items loaded on a single factor (CFI = .62; RMSEA = .12; SRMR = .16; AIC = 56141.04).

Plan of Analysis

As in Study 1, we tested the hypotheses using first-order autoregressive HLM models. We used a polynomial analysis to test the hypothesized effects of transformational leadership needed and received on positive affect (Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2). In the interest of comprehensiveness and consistency, we ran the same analyses for negative affect. We employed a block variable approach to test the hypothesized indirect effects of transformational leadership needed and received through positive affect on job satisfaction (Hypothesis 3a), satisfaction with supervision (Hypothesis 3b), OCB-O (Hypothesis 4a), and OCB-I (Hypothesis 4b). To assess the within-person predictors of transformational leadership needed, we regressed workday-start and mid-workday transformational leadership needed on daily challenge stressors, hindrance stressors, uncertainty, and work meaningfulness.

Variance Components

For the daily variables, a significant proportion of the variance resided within individuals: 42.9% for transformational leadership needed, 54.7% for transformational leadership received, 34.2% for positive affect, 54.0% for negative affect, 35.1%

TABLE 5
Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for Study 2

	χ^2	<i>df</i>	χ^2/df	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	AIC
<i>All Variable Models</i>							
12-Factor Model: Proposed	6258.82	2222	2.82	.90	.04	.05	168372.40
11-Factor Model: Leadership variables combined	12002.77	2233	5.38	.77	.06	.08	176974.06
9-Factor Model: Predictors of leadership needed combined	8890.74	2252	3.95	.84	.05	.09	172497.19
9-Factor Model: PA, satisfactions, and OCBs combined	15855.82	2260	7.02	.68	.07	.12	183135.95
1-Factor Model: All variables combined	36864.60	2288	16.11	.18	.11	.19	213967.13
<i>Leadership Variables Only</i>							
2-Factor Model: Leadership needed and received	829.98	159	5.22	.91	.06	.04	50650.57
1-Factor Model: Leadership variables combined	2986.22	160	18.66	.62	.12	.16	56141.04

Notes: *n* = 913 observations derived from 93 individuals. In all models, parallel items between needed and received transformational leadership were allowed to covary.

for job satisfaction, 20.5% for satisfaction with supervisor, 42.9% for OCB-O, and 49.7% for OCB-I. The same was true for the predictors of transformational leadership needed: 31.8% for challenge stressors, 32.1% for hindrance stressors, 27.3% for uncertainty, and 25.8% for work meaningfulness.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 6 shows descriptive statistics for the study variables. Within individuals, transformational leadership received was positively associated with transformational leadership needed, transformational leadership needed was positively associated with positive affect, positive affect correlated positively with all the outcome variables, and negative affect correlated negatively with the satisfaction variables. All lagged variables were positively associated with their counterparts later in the day. Table 6 also shows that work-day start challenge stressors, hindrance stressors, uncertainty, and work meaningfulness had positive zero-order associations with transformational leadership needed at workday-start and at mid-workday.

Hypothesis Tests

Table 7 shows HLM results for workday-start transformational leadership needed and mid-workday transformational leadership received predicting workday-end positive affect. As reported in Table 7

and depicted in Figure 3, there was null slope ($slope = -.03, p > .10$) and negative curvature ($curvature = -.10, p < .05$) along the misfit line for positive affect. Further, at 1 SD into the region of deficiency the slope was positive and significant ($slope = .25, p < .01$) and at 1 SD into the region of excess the slope was negative and significant ($slope = -.31, p < .01$). These results mean that workday-end positive affect was higher on days in which transformational leadership received fit transformational leadership needed and positive affect was lower on days when transformational leadership received exceeded or was deficient of transformational leadership needed. Hypothesis 1 was supported. Table 7 also shows that, along the fit line for positive affect there was evidence of positive slope ($slope = .05, p < .05$) and null curvature ($curvature = .02, p > .10$). Positive affect was higher on days of higher absolute levels of fit between transformational leadership needed and received. Hypothesis 2 was supported.

Table 7 also shows HLM results for transformational leadership needed and received predicting daily negative affect. The polynomial terms were unrelated to negative affect and there was no evidence of slope or curvature along the fit or misfit lines. These results, which are depicted in Figure 4, suggest that daily levels of negative affect were unaffected by whether individuals received transformational leadership in amounts that were deficient of, fit, or exceeded needed levels.

TABLE 6
Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Among Study 2 Variables.

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD_w</i>	<i>SD_b</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Baseline PA	2.70	0.56	0.77		-.04	.20	-.19	-.25*	.36**	.17	.12
2. Baseline NA	1.20	0.25	0.23	.00		.26*	.22*	.35**	.19	.27**	.27**
3. Challenge Stressors	4.48	0.71	1.08	.15**	.08		.51**	.37**	.34**	.39**	.29**
4. Hindrance Stressors	3.32	0.77	1.15	-.01	.16**	.21**		.81**	.07	.34**	.29**
5. Uncertainty	3.51	0.8	1.33	-.06	.25**	.15**	.38**		.06	.42**	.38**
6. Meaningfulness	4.75	0.5	0.88	.18**	.02	.18**	.05	.01		.35**	.27**
7. TL Needed (day-start)	2.73	1.01	1.23	.13**	.15**	.18**	.11*	.17**	.13**		.86**
8. TL Needed (mid-day)	2.43	0.95	1.18	.01	.04	.13**	.02	.09*	.10*	.63**	
9. TL Received	1.78	0.86	0.17	.05	.05	.11*	.00	.05	.06	.46**	.71**
10. Baseline Job Satisfaction	3.96	0.44	0.56	.20**	-.15**	.02	-.10**	-.07	.07	.02	.01
11. Baseline Sat. with Sup.	3.72	0.44	0.94	.10**	-.08**	-.08	-.15**	-.07	.04	.04	.04
12. Baseline OCB-O	4.30	0.66	0.82	.07	.04	.06	.01	.02	.06	.17**	.18**
13. Baseline OCB-I	4.75	0.77	0.72	.07	.03	.11**	.04	.01	.08	.11*	.07
14. PA	2.57	0.53	0.77	.34**	-.01	.09**	.01	-.01	.08*	.11**	.01
15. NA	1.19	0.23	0.23	-.02	.21**	.07*	-.01	.10*	.08*	.07	.08*
16. Job Satisfaction	3.96	0.41	0.60	.07	-.14**	-.05	-.07	-.09*	.04	-.01	.02
17. Satisfaction with Sup.	3.72	0.45	0.90	-.04	-.02	-.08	-.09	-.09*	.04	.00	-.01
18. OCB-O	4.26	0.66	0.86	-.01	.02	.06	-.01	.00	.04	.15**	.14**
19. OCB-I	4.73	0.74	0.82	.03	.03	.10**	.00	.04	.07*	.08	.06

Table 8 presents results pertaining to Hypotheses 3 and 4. The transformational leadership block variable predicted positive affect ($\gamma' = .11, p < .01$) and positive affect predicted job satisfaction ($\gamma' = .20, p < .01$), satisfaction with supervision ($\gamma' = .09, p < .05$), OCB-O ($\gamma' = .17, p < .01$), and OCB-I ($\gamma' = .16, p < .01$). The indirect effect of the transformational leadership block variable through positive affect was significant for job satisfaction ($IE' = .02, p < .01, CI_{95\%} = .01, .04$), satisfaction with supervision ($IE' = .01, p < .05, CI_{95\%} = .00, .02$), OCB-O ($IE' = .02, p < .01, CI_{95\%} = .01, .04$), and OCB-I ($IE' = .02, p < .01, CI_{95\%} = .01, .04$). Hypotheses 3a, 3b, 4a, and 4b were supported. The transformational leadership block variable was associated with negative affect ($\gamma' = .08, p < .05$) and had a negative indirect effect on job satisfaction through negative affect ($IE' = -.02, p < .05, CI_{95\%} = -.04, -.00$).

Table 9 shows the results from our supplemental analysis of daily predictors of transformational leadership needed. Controlling for positive affect ($\gamma = .19, p < .01$) and for negative affect ($\gamma = .36, p < .05$), there were day-level associations for workday-start transformational leadership needed with challenge stressors ($\gamma = .15, p < .01$), uncertainty ($\gamma = .14, p < .01$), and work meaningfulness ($\gamma = .13, p < .05$). At smaller magnitudes, these associations persisted

to mid-workday transformational leadership needed: $\gamma = .11, p < .05$, for challenge stressors, $\gamma = .11, p < .05$, for uncertainty, and $\gamma = .12, p < .10$, for work meaningfulness. Hindrance stressors were unrelated to transformational leadership needed at workday-start ($\gamma = .04, n.s.$) and at mid-workday ($\gamma = -.03, n.s.$).

As in Study 1, the results were unchanged when we reran all models controlling for participant age and sex, and when we omitted the baseline control variables.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

We conducted two ESM studies of follower responses to transformational leadership from a dynamic, P-E fit perspective. The results provided support for predictions that: (1) positive affect is higher on days in which there is fit between transformational leadership needed and received compared to days when transformational leadership received is deficient of or exceeds follower needs; (2) on days when there is fit between transformational leadership needed and received, positive affect is higher when fit is at higher levels compared to when fit is at lower levels; and (3) within-persons, positive affect mediates the joint effects of transformational

TABLE 6
(Continued)

9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
-.10	.39**	.13	.25*	.18	.87**	.00	.37**	.12	.28**	.15
-.30**	-.15	-.06	.12	.07	.01	.81**	-.22*	-.08	.32**	.14
.05	.03	-.10	.53**	.53**	.32**	.33**	-.02	-.17	.59**	.60**
.07	-.42**	-.53**	.36**	.36**	-.08	.20	-.44**	-.56**	.42**	.40**
-.05	-.49**	-.52**	.29**	.22*	-.11	.31**	-.56**	-.56**	.34**	.27**
-.07	-.02	-.09	.30**	.19	.38**	.20	-.09	-.11	.34**	.17
.05	-.27**	-.19	.36**	.27**	.23*	.34**	-.28**	-.24*	.38**	.29**
.07	-.25*	-.20*	.31**	.21*	.18	.33**	-.23*	-.25*	.35**	.30**
	.01	-.04	.09	.12	-.02	-.15	.12	.00	-.10	.08
.05		.61**	.04	-.08	.36**	-.19	.94**	.57**	-.04	-.12
.14**	.46**		-.02	-.14	.06	-.09	.58**	.97**	-.11	-.14
.22**	.06	.04		.64**	.32**	.26*	.02	-.07	.85**	.64**
.11**	.09*	.06	.30**		.21*	.11	-.07	-.17	.59**	.88**
.06	.13**	.06	.07*	.08		.15	.34**	.05	.37**	.24*
.06	-.10	-.02	-.03	-.02	-.10		-.23*	-.11	.37**	.21*
.01	.35**	.18**	.08*	.04	.27**	-.29**		.58**	-.05	-.10
.02	.08	.38**	.00	.02	.10*	-.13**	.47**		-.16	-.20
.11*	-.02	-.02	.28**	.14**	.19**	.03	.12**	.11*		.71**
.06	-.02	-.06	.21**	.32**	.20**	-.02	.11*	.01	.39**	

Notes: $n = 913$ observations derived from 93 individuals. Within-person correlations are shown below the diagonal; between-person correlations are above the diagonal.

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

TABLE 7
Polynomial Regression Results for Transformational Leadership Needed and Received Predicting Positive Affect and Negative Affect in Study 2

Variables	Positive Affect		Negative Affect	
	γ	<i>t</i> -value	γ	<i>t</i> -value
Intercept	2.53	31.14	1.18	48.05
Baseline	.31**	10.62	.17**	5.21
Transformational Leadership Received	.01	.34	.00	.22
Transformational Leadership Needed	.04*	2.06	.01	.86
Transformational Leadership Received Squared	-.03	-1.33	.01	1.40
Interaction Term	.06**	2.66	-.01	-1.14
Transformational Leadership Needed Squared	-.01	-1.24	.00	-.73
Pseudo- <i>R</i> ²	.14		.06	
Response Surface Characteristics	Estimate	$\chi^2_{(1)}$	Estimate	$\chi^2_{(1)}$
Fit Line Slope	.05*	4.30	.01	.90
Misfit Line Slope	-.03	.66	-.01	.08
Fit Line Curvature	.02	1.62	.00	.23
Misfit Line Curvature	-.10*	5.66	.02	1.09

Notes: *n* = 913 observations derived from 93 individuals. Tabled values are unstandardized coefficients. Pseudo-*R*² refers to the reduction in the dependent variable's level-1 variance compared to a null model.

* *p* < .05

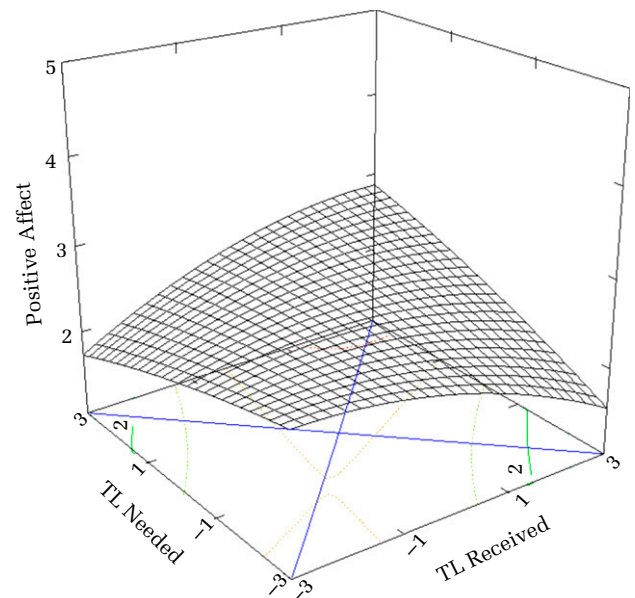
** *p* < .01

leadership needed and received on follower attitudes and OCBs. We also found that transformational leadership needed was higher on days when followers expected higher levels of challenge stress, uncertainty, and meaning in their work.

Theoretical Implications

Our findings make contributions to transformational leadership theory and to P-E fit theory more generally. First, our research provides evidence that higher levels of transformational leadership may not always make things better and may indeed make things less favorable. In early work, Bass (1990: 30) argued that “transformational leadership is not a panacea. In many situations, it is inappropriate.” But, as we have noted, the prevailing perspective on transformational leadership is that more is generally

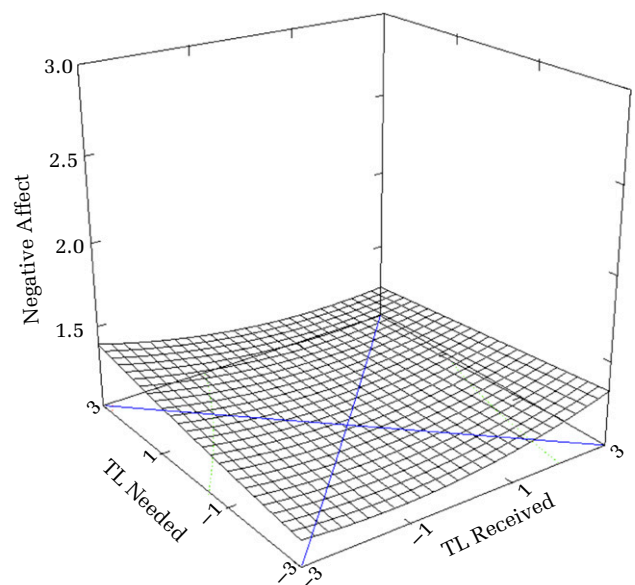
FIGURE 3
Transformational Leadership Needed and Received Predicting Positive Affect in Study 2



Note: TL = Transformational Leadership.

better and certainly does not produce unfavorable outcomes (see Li et al., 2013). We are aware of no research that has identified circumstances in which outcomes become less favorable as levels of

FIGURE 4
Transformational Leadership Needed and Received Predicting Negative Affect in Study 2



Note: TL = Transformational Leadership.

transformational leadership increase. This underscores the importance of our finding that positive affect was lower on days when followers reported excess levels of transformational leadership compared to days when followers experienced fit between transformational leadership needed and received.

The results were largely consistent across our two ESM studies, but there was one difference. In Study 1, positive affect was lower on days when transformational leadership was deficient compared to days involving excess levels of transformational leadership. In Study 2 excess and deficient transformational leadership were equally problematic. We can only speculate as to why transformational leadership was “moderately antagonistic” in Study 1, but “highly antagonistic” in Study 2. It may be that Study 2’s comparatively robust design was better suited to capturing the effects of excess transformational leadership. But, even if transformational leadership does not always have the highly antagonistic properties that we observed in Study 2, the evidence of moderate antagonism observed in Study 1 represents a meaningful departure from prevailing views. Consistent with P–E fit theorizing, more transformational leadership is not necessarily better.

Our research makes a second contribution to transformational leadership theory by demonstrating that not all instances in which leaders provide

needed levels of transformational leadership are equivalent. As hypothesized, followers reported higher levels of positive affect on days that they experienced higher levels of absolute fit between transformational leadership needed and received. These results suggest that the concept of “metafit” (i.e., higher amounts of some supplies can carry over to satisfy needs for other desirable supplies; Edwards & Rothbard, 1999) is relevant to understanding followers’ responses to varying levels of transformational leadership. Transformational leadership can satisfy multiple high valence preferences such as opportunities to experience autonomy, competence, and self-determination (Kovjanic, Schuh, Jonas, Van Quaquebeke, & van Dick, 2012). An important takeaway, then, is that the same levels of transformational leadership can affect followers differently on different days. Followers who experience a high need for transformational leadership will respond favorably on days that leaders supply transformational leadership in high amounts; but supplying an equal amount of transformational leadership will not be as well-received on days that followers need less of it.

Our third contribution to transformational leadership theory comes from the exploratory examination of transformational leadership needed antecedents. These results support themes from classic writings; followers need more transformational leadership on days when they experience

TABLE 8
Block Variable Analyses in Study 2

Variables	Positive Affect		Negative Affect		Job Satisfaction		Sup. Satisfaction		OCB-O		OCB-I	
	γ'	t-value	γ'	t-value	γ'	t-value	γ'	t-value	γ'	t-value	γ'	t-value
Intercept	2.53	31.41	1.18	49.54	3.90	64.22	3.63	39.02	4.74	55.73	4.25	47.22
Baseline	.35**	10.78	.21**	6.08	.28**	8.99	.32**	9.69	.28**	8.59	.23**	6.74
Block	.11**	3.48	.08*	2.20	.02	.97	.05	1.12	.13**	3.69	.11**	3.38
Positive Affect					.20**	6.37	.09*	2.66	.17**	5.08	.16**	4.68
Negative Affect					-.26**	-8.45	-.11**	-3.59	-.03	-.86	.04	1.33
Pseudo-R ²	.14		.06		.23		.15		.14		.11	
Indirect Effects					IE'	z-value	IE'	z-value	IE'	z-value	IE'	z-value
Via Positive Affect					.02**	3.08	.01*	2.17	.02**	2.91	.02**	2.83
95% CI					[.01	.04]	[.00	.02]	[.01	.04]	[.01	.04]
Via Negative Affect					-.02*	2.14	-.01	1.93	.00	.88	.00	1.24
95% CI					[-.04	-.00]	[-.02	-.00]	[-.01	.00]	[-.00	.01]

Notes: n = 913 observations derived from 93 individuals. All coefficients standardized. CI_{95%} refers to the 95% confidence interval for the indirect effect. Lagged DV refers to the previous week’s value for the focal dependent variable. Pseudo-R² refers to the reduction in the dependent variable’s level-1 variance compared to a null model.

* p < .05
** p < .0

TABLE 9
Within-Level Regression Results for Transformational Leadership Needed in Study 2

	Transformational Leadership at Workday-Start		Transformational Leadership at Mid-Workday	
	γ	<i>t</i> -value	γ	<i>t</i> -value
Intercept	2.77	22.48	2.44	20.18
Baseline Positive Affect	.19**	3.13	-.03	-.51
Baseline Negative Affect	.36*	2.56	-.05	-.38
Challenge Stressors	.15**	3.14	.11*	2.47
Hindrance Stressors	.04	.85	-.03	-.62
Uncertainty	.14**	2.96	.11*	2.45
Meaningfulness	.13*	1.99	.12 [†]	1.87
Pseudo- <i>R</i> ²	.09		.03	

Notes: *n* = 913 observations derived from 93 individuals. Pseudo-*R*² refers to the reduction in the dependent variable's level-1 variance compared to a null model.

[†]*p* < .10

**p* < .05

***p* < .01

demands that have the potential to produce strain and when their work is more meaningful. With respect to the findings for workplace stressors, followers in Study 2 needed more transformational leadership on days in which they anticipated job demands that reflect opportunities for growth and development (challenge stressors; Cavanaugh et al., 2000) and when they lacked information that is relevant for predicting the future (i.e., uncertainty; van den Bos & Lind, 2002). Apparently, followers recognize that transformational leadership can help convert certain job demands into developmental opportunities. We found no evidence that hindrance stressors evoke the need for transformational leadership. One explanation for this finding comes from Zhang, LePine, Buckman, and Wei (2014: 690), who theorize that hindrance stressors warrant leadership that focuses on close scrutiny of current work conditions and on securing the resources that followers need to complete routine work assignments (i.e., transactional leadership). Under these circumstances, transformational messages may constitute an unhelpful distraction. Our findings for hindrance stressors are in line with this perspective.

The results for work meaningfulness shed additional light on the conditions under which followers experience a need for transformational leadership. Prior study of the interplay between

transformational leadership and work meaningfulness suggests that transformational leaders cultivate in followers a higher purpose or calling (Sparks & Schenk, 2001) that explains distal outcomes such as follower well-being (Arnold et al., 2007). Our results may be interpreted to mean that followers who perform more meaningful work appreciate that transformational leaders are uniquely capable of inspiring the heightened level of commitment that is called for when followers perform more meaningful work (Shamir et al., 1993). It would appear that transformational leadership evokes in followers the belief that their work is more meaningful *and* provides followers needed inspiration and support when performing work that is meaningful.

Our research makes a fourth contribution by demonstrating the value of examining P–E fit phenomena from a within-person perspective. Need fulfillment is understood to be a dynamic process, but research grounded in P–E fit theorizing does not ordinarily account for within-person variation. Classic theories of need fulfillment differ both in terms of the kinds of needs that are presumed to drive behavior and in terms of the processes by which particular needs become activated. Common to these theories is the notion that, at particular moments, individuals experience specific needs along an activation continuum ranging from highly pressing to thoroughly satiated. The between-person examinations of need fulfillment that dominate the literature capture snapshots of individuals who, with respect to the specific needs under investigation, happen to be situated at particular points along the activation continuum. These studies treat the defining features of the need fulfillment process—moment-to-moment changes from satiation to activation and from activation to satiation—as “noise.” Explicitly accounting for these fluctuations will produce richer and more accurate P–E fit models of need fulfillment.

Practical Implications

Our research provides a unique perspective on practical efforts to leverage the benefits of transformational leadership. Scholars have recommended that organizations implement training programs that instill in managerial leaders the ability to execute the transformational leadership repertoire (e.g., Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996; Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002). But this practical advice is rooted in the assumption that transformational leadership effects range from benign to beneficial

(Li et al., 2013). The antagonistic effects observed in our two ESM studies suggest that, at excess levels, transformational leadership may not be favorable. Transformational leadership training programs should therefore be designed to both improve participants' ability to diagnose followers' dynamic needs for transformational leadership and to deploy the behavioral repertoire in amounts that match those needs. Leaders should reap two kinds of benefits when they learn to calibrate their delivery of the transformational repertoire in ways that meet follower needs. First, by meeting rather than exceeding or falling short of follower needs for transformational leadership, leaders should produce better outcomes for their followers and units. Second, leaders who appropriately diagnose and meet follower needs should be able to more efficiently utilize the time and attention that might otherwise be devoted to performing surplus amounts of transformational leader behaviors. In short, better informed leaders will be able to invest themselves in more productive activities.

Our findings offer insights that leaders should be mindful of when trying to diagnose followers' need for transformational leadership. Leaders can expect that followers will need transformational leadership when the work is more stressful and when the work is more meaningful. It also appears that leaders will make more accurate diagnoses when they take stock of the kind of stressors that followers experience. Challenge stressors and uncertainty evoke in followers a need for transformational leadership. Such is not the case with hindrance stressors, which may signal the need for a more transactional leader response.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

We must acknowledge several limitations of our studies that suggest directions for future research. One limitation has to do with the conceptualization of transformational leadership needed and received that informed our theorizing. Our examination is rooted in Bass' (1985) model, which conceptualizes transformational leadership as a gestalt of four dimensions: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. This model has come under criticism; specifically, Yukl (1999) and van Knippenberg and Sitkin (2013) argue that it is not clear on what basis specific behaviors are included in and excluded from Bass' (1985) conception of transformational leadership. Our overarching research objective was

to conduct the first examination of transformational leadership from a dynamic, P-E fit perspective. We therefore believed it necessary to work from what remains the dominant perspective on what it means for a leader to be transformational, and we operationalized our constructs accordingly.

Having said that, we were able to re-run the polynomial regression analyses for each of the four transformational leadership sub-dimensions.¹ In Study 1, the fit hypotheses were supported for individualized consideration and partially supported for the other dimensions; in Study 2, the fit hypotheses were partially supported for idealized influence only. That the results were more supportive of our theorizing and consistent for transformational leadership as an aggregate construct (compared to the sub-dimensions) may not be surprising given what is known about the comparative power of general versus specific predictors. Evidence from several research domains suggests that predictive power generally improves when there is a match between predictors and criterion variables in terms of construct breadth: "if there are multiple subcomponents in a construct on the criterion side, a predictor with multiple subcomponents should be employed. If on the other hand, the criterion is unidimensional, a unidimensional predictor is likely to be more predictive" (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012: 169). A thorough review of relevant literature is beyond the scope of our discussion, but it would lead us to expect that aggregated transformational leadership will be a more reliable predictor of positive affect which is, itself, an aggregate construct that consists of multiple components (e.g., pride, interest, enthusiasm [Remington, Fabrigar, & Visser, 2000; Watson & Tellegen, 1985]), and that specific sub-dimensions of transformational leadership may perform better as predictors of specific expressions of positive affect. As examples, compared to aggregated transformational leadership, intellectual stimulation may be a better predictor of interest or attentiveness and inspirational motivation may be a better predictor of enthusiasm and determination.

Although our results suggest that there is value in conceptualizing transformational leadership according to the Bass Model, our work does not resolve all questions about the proper specification of transformational leadership. For example, is it appropriate to expect isomorphism at the within-individual level of analysis, given that the majority

¹ The sub-dimension results are available from the authors upon request.

of work on transformational leadership has been conducted between individuals? We assumed isomorphism in transformational leadership received; however, there is no explicit requirement that isomorphism across levels be the norm (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000). In keeping with the conventions of the P–E fit paradigm, we also modeled transformational leadership needed and received using commensurate content. In future research, scholars should conduct more focused studies of the Bass Model to evaluate whether it is an apt characterization of the way that followers experience transformational leadership needed and received within and between individuals.

A second limitation is that our research did not account for evidence suggesting that other forms of leadership needed and received influence employee attitudes and behavior. A promising future research direction would involve examining frameworks that position transformational leadership within broader models of leadership needed and received. For example, we would encourage examination of a framework that brings the dynamic, P–E fit lens to bear on the augmentation hypothesis—the notion that transformational leadership adds to the effect that transactional leadership has on follower motivation and performance (Bass & Avolio, 1993). The proposition to be tested would be that, on a within-person basis, fit between transformational leadership needed and received explains incremental variance in outcomes beyond the joint effect of transactional leadership needed and received. By expanding the domain of leader behaviors and outcomes investigated dynamically and intra-individually, there exists the opportunity to develop a new and exciting area of inquiry.

A third limitation is that our research focused on a limited collection of proximal and distal consequences of transformational leadership needed and received. Further intra-individual examination of the consequences of transformational leadership needed and received is warranted. Some obvious candidates are outcomes that have been identified in the large body of between-persons transformational leadership research that have also demonstrated substantive intra-person variability in ESM studies such as justice (Judge, Scott, & Ilies, 2006; Matta, Scott, Colquitt, Koopman, & Passantino, 2017) and stress (Bono et al., 2007). Other possible outcomes come from studies of between-person correlates of transformational leadership. These include follower intrinsic motivation, creativity, trust, empowerment, and organizational commitment. We

note that many of these outcomes may be linked with positive emotions through what Frederickson (2001) refers to as “broaden-and-build” effects: the tendencies for positive emotions to broaden thinking and attention and to build personal resources that enhance well-being. Hence, there is a compelling theoretical basis for developing and testing intra-person mediation models that link momentary transformational leadership needed and received, positive affect, and a broad assortment of follower outcomes.

A final limitation is that our research does not speak to the factors that predict whether some leaders do a better job of tailoring their transformational behavior to followers’ needs. We encourage research aimed at identifying predictors of transformational leadership needed and received. On a within-person basis, it is conceivable that leaders will have difficulty meeting follower needs for transformational leadership when they are depleted of the personal resources that are needed to perform demanding tasks (Byrne et al., 2014). Between-person factors that dispose leaders to depletion (e.g., neuroticism) or buffer them against depletion (e.g., extraversion) may therefore be relevant to predicting who will fare better in the transformational leadership role. Other factors that may relate to leaders’ ability to achieve fit between transformational leadership needed and received include trait empathy, the tendency to vicariously experience the feelings of others (Miller & Eisenberg, 1988), and political skill, “the ability to effectively understand others at work, and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one’s personal and/or organizational objectives” (Ahearn, Ferris, Hochwarter, Douglas, & Ammeter, 2004: 311). Examination of constructs like these would help to shift the focus from identifying who performs transformational leadership to who performs *the right amount of* transformational leadership.

CONCLUSION

The insights from our research are the byproduct of bringing together two previously disconnected research perspectives, within-person and P–E fit, to explore followers’ responses to transformational leadership. The result is a richer understanding of the ways followers experience and respond to episodic occurrences of transformational leadership. In future research, scholars should refine and extend our work in order to shed further light on the psychology of transformational leadership moments.

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