LEVEL OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN U.S. ARMY COMBAT VERSUS NON-COMBAT PLATOON LEADERS AND PLATOON SERGEANTS

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To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a research proposal written by Tammy L. Clark entitled "Level of Transformational Leadership in U.S. Army Combat versus Non-Combat Platoon Leaders and Platoon Sergeants". I have examined the final copy of this research proposal for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Mater of Arts, with a major in Industrial-Organizational Psychology.

Dr. Uma Iyer, Major Professor

We have read this research proposal and recommend its acceptance.

Accepted for the council:

Dean of Graduate School

LEVEL OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN U.S. ARMY COMBAT VERSUS NON-COMBAT PLATOON LEADERS AND PLATOON SERGEANTS

A Research Proposal

Presented for the

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Tammy L. Clark

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Signature Tammy Chick

Date Dec. 14, 2004

DEDICATION

This research proposal is dedicated to my family.

SFC Larry G. Clark – for taking care of everything while I was studying.

Cameron Clark – for motivating me to be your role model.

& Jacob Clark – for always giving me a reason to laugh.

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Abstract

A transactional leader is one who is able to get a subordinate to perform a task based on a contingent reward (i.e., pay). A transformational leader is one who gets a subordinate to fulfill a task by inspiring them to do so. The United States Army teaches leadership techniques which are very similar to the components of transformational leadership. Given that there are a variety of job demands within the Army, will leadership skills vary accordingly? Participants will include soldiers from a light-infantry unit and a second non-combat. Leadership style will be assessed using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Form 5-X (Bass, B. M. & Avolio, B. J., 2000). It is hypothesized that (1) a difference in leadership style between those who are trained for life-threatening situations (Combat group) and those who are not (Non-Combat group) will be found, and (2) there will be a significant difference in the perceived Transformational leadership style among raters, specifically the self-report rating of the leader will be greater than the ratings of the others (superiors, peers, and subordinates).

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The study of leadership has been considered from a variety of perspectives throughout history. In the early part of the 20th century trait theories emerged in the study of leadership. The trait approach, associated with Gordon Allport, posited that a leader possessed certain traits or characteristics that determined successful leadership (Muchinsky, 2003, p. 367). According to the trait approach, individuals are born leaders. In 1936, Allport and Odbert listed over 18,000 traits (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 2002, p. 170). Subsequent research narrowed this generous number down to five personality dimensions that are associated with positive leadership (Hughes, et al., 2002, p. 170). However, results on the validity of traits influencing leadership have been mixed (Bono & Judge, 2004; Lord, DeVader, & Alliger, 1986; Van Seter & Fields, 1990). The popularity of this approach has recently resurged, although it did decline with the emergence of Behaviorism in the mid-20th century.

Behavioral theories of leadership emphasized that specific behaviors distinguish those who are leaders and those who are not (Robbins, 2003, p.316). The implication of such theories is that leadership can be learned once the specific behaviors are identified. Much of the research has focused on individual behaviors, rather than how effective leaders can utilize collections of specific behaviors (Muchinsky, 2003, p. 369). According to Muchinsky (2002, p. 370), the majority of these theories failed to address the effects of integrating patterns of specific behaviors. The simplicity of the behavioral theories did not account for the effects of integrating various complex behaviors.

Another major shift in the study of leadership occurred in the 1960's. The contingency or situational approach to leadership assumes that the effectiveness of the leader's personality, style

style, and behavior is contingent upon the requirements of the situation (Robbins, 2003, p.319). The major assumptions of contingency theories is that there is no one best way to lead, the environmental factors will dictate the most effective style and behaviors, leadership behaviors can be taught, and leadership style impacts group or organization effectiveness (Northouse, 2003). In addition, leadership effectiveness is affected by the interaction between situational factors and personal characteristics (Northouse, 2003).

Most recently, the way leadership is perceived has focused on the manner in which followers are affected by the leader (Doherty and Danychuk, 1996; Hughes, et al., 2002, p.402). "Perceptions others hold of leaders are critical for understanding the nature of the leader-subordinate interactions, the use of direct and indirect influence by leaders, and the amount of discretion afforded to the leaders" (Foti, Hauenstein, & Sgro, 1998, p.2). This suggests a need for the superior to have knowledge of how his or her own behaviors are being perceived by those he or she oversees.

In 1978, Burns introduced the transformational/transactional model of leadership that has spawned many empirical studies. He stated that the construct of "leadership" is observable through behaviors the individual exhibits, but questioned how deep our understanding is of the facets involved in positive leadership (Burns, 1978). Burns (1978) criticized the all too common anecdotal study of leadership, which frequently depicted only the demonic and heroic figures. A transition into examining leadership through human development and the interactions between leaders and followers was called for by Burns. He described transformational leadership not as a set of specific behaviors, but rather a process by which "leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of morality and motivation" (Burns, 1978, p. 20).

According to Burns (1978), the relationship between the transactional leader and follower is one of exchanging one thing for another. In a transactional leader-follower relationship, the leader distributes work to a subordinate and the subordinate (whom may or may not have the necessary resources or capability to carry it out) is considered to be fully accountable for it. If the work is not carried out successfully, the subordinate is given blame and punished for their failure (just as they are rewarded for succeeding) (Burns, 1978). The exchange practices of the transactional leader prevent both the leader and follower from achieving their full potential (Muchinsky, 2003, p.379).

In comparison, the transformational leader operates in a more complex manner. This form of leadership emphasizes the "capacity to transcend the claims of the multiplicity of everyday wants and needs and expectations" (Burns, 1978, p. 46). A transformational leader can recognize and develop the needs of his/her followers. This is accomplished by identifying the potential motives in followers, attempting to gratify them, and engaging the complete aptitude the followers possess. These motives can include increasing ones job knowledge, skills, and abilities (Berson, & Avolio, 2004).

Bass (1985) elaborated on the concepts of this model and applied it to organizations. Specifically, a transactional leader is one who is able to get a subordinate to perform a task based on a contingent reward (i.e., pay). A transformational leader is one who not only gets a subordinate to fulfill a task, but is intrinsically motivated to do so. In this case, the reward for performing is not money or a promotion, but a satisfaction with knowing the task performed will benefit the organization (Bass, 1985). A subordinate who is under a transformational leader's directive will begin to perform beyond minimum expectations. It may also be said that a leader

is not either one or the other. All leaders are transactional; transformational leadership is an extension of that technique (Bono & Judge, 2004; Doherty and Danychuk, 1996).

According to Bass's model (1985), leadership style follows a continuum. At the low end of the continuum lies laissez-faire leadership; the Five I's (the five components of transformational leadership) are at the high end of the continuum. Transformational Leadership (the Five I's) includes Idealized Influence Attributes (IIA), Idealized Influence Behaviors (IIB), Inspirational Motivation (IM), Intellectual Stimulation (IS), and Individualized Consideration (IC). Transactional Leadership is comprised of Contingent Reward (CR), Management-by-Exception (MBEA & MBEP), and Laissez-faire Leadership (LF). The full range of transformational and transactional leadership can be categorized as follows (Bass & Avolio, 1999; MLQ publisher Mind Garden, Inc., 2002; Tepper & Percy, 1994).

Idealized Influence Attributes (IIA) - involves generating pride in followers, instilling ethics in followers, and stressing the importance of commitment with the team.

Idealized Influence Behaviors (IIB) - concerns the leader's ability to make difficult decisions and overcome obstacle with poise.

Inspirational Motivation (IM) - motivates followers to accept leader's vision, with zeal, and uphold high standards to meet the goal.

Intellectual Stimulation (IS) - concerns expressing original ideas and questioning traditional views, which encourages followers to do the same.

Individualized Consideration (IC) - regards communicating respect to followers by giving them consideration and attention that is unique to each person.

Contingent Reward (CR) - concerns making promises and giving rewards for performance to achieve a set goal and provides aid in exchange for effort.

Management-by-Exception (MBEA & MBEP) includes two forms:

Active (the leader enforces set rules and monitors performance to avert mistakes) and

Passive (the leader fails to take action until mistakes or serious problems are brought to their attention).

Laissez-faire Leadership (LF) - is a hands-off style; the leader avoids responsibility, frequently absent when needed, and has difficulty expressing own opinion.

Leadership of theUnited States Army

The United States Army focuses on instilling leadership skills to all soldiers, regardless of rank (position). The military has promoted a style of leadership that is similar to the theory of transformational leadership (Hedlund, Sternberg, & Psotka, 2000). The modern Army has a leadership structure that seeks to identify leaders of moral character and competency who are motivated to achieve excellence (Price, 2003; Stoneberger, 2000). According to Stoneberger (2000), the military recognizes that leadership of this caliber has a positive effect on subordinates.

Transformational leadership has been studied in various contexts over the past two decades (educational- Barnett & McCormick, 2004; business- Bono & Judge, 2003; Vera & Crossan, 2004; military- Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson; 2003; Eid, Johnsen, Brun, LaBerg, Nyhus, & Larrson, 2004;). It is most frequently measured with the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5-1X; Bass & Avolio, 2000). The organizational structure of the military is ideal for assessing transformational leadership. In any military group, it is very clear who the leader is, as well as which individuals are the leader's superiors, peers, and subordinates. In addition, the United States Army emphasizes certain leadership skills that are reflective of the transformational leadership components (i.e., the Five I's).

Field Manual 22-100 (U. S. Army, 1999) outlines which characteristics are desirable for leadership in the U. S. Army. The characteristics listed with the related transformational component in parentheses follows. The main concepts are: know yourself and seek self-improvement (IM), be technically and tactically proficient (IIB), seek responsibility and take responsibility for your actions (IS), make sound and timely decisions(IIB), set the example (IM), know your soldiers and look out for their well-being (IIA, IM), keep your soldiers informed (IC), develop a sense of responsibility in your subordinates(IIA, IM), ensure that the task is understood, supervised, and accomplished (IC, IS), train your soldiers as a team (IIA), and employ your unit in accordance with its capabilities (IIB).

The organizational structure of the U. S. Army is as follows: the main component of the Army is the Infantry; all other units serve as support for the Infantry (Bass & Avolio, 2000; Stoneberger, 2000). As stated by the U. S. Army, the purpose of all other units is to serve and support the Infantry (1999). The Infantry is governed by the nine principles of war. According to Stoneberger, these are 1). *Objective*- begin every operation with a clearly defined and attainable objective, 2). *Offensive*- action is the most effective way to attain the objective, 3). *Mass*- synchronize the elements of combat power to achieve mass, 4). *Economy of Force*- shrewd use and distribution of forces to achieve mass elsewhere, 5). *Maneuver*- place enemy in position of disadvantage, 6). *Unity of Command*- seek unity at all levels, 7). *Security*- prevent the enemy from acquiring the advantage, 8). *Surprise*- strike the enemy when they are unprepared, and 9). *Simplicity*- prepare clear and uncomplicated plans to ensure success. In order to enable the U.S. Army to follow these principles, the leaders must develop personal leadership styles which ensure their subordinates will be effective in the missions at hand and as future leaders. The following chapter includes a review of relevant transformational leadership studies.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The manner in which leadership is studied seems to be dependent upon on the definition of leadership the researchers adopt. Leadership research in the late 19th and early 20th centuries measured leadership through individuals' possession of certain personality traits that were considered to be related to leadership potential (i.e., Galton in 1869, Bowden in 1927, and Jennings, 1960) (Van Seters, 1990). Behavioral theorists took leadership research in a new direction. Researchers posited that leadership is a subset of human behavior (i.e., Hunt and Larson, 1977) and could be learned (i.e., Fleishman and Harris, 1962) (Van Seters, 1990).

As behavioral theory research advanced, attention was shifted from simply measuring key behaviors to assessing leadership effectiveness through the leader-subordinate relationship (i. e., Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid, 1964 and MacGregor's Theory X and Theory Y, 1966) (Van Seters, 1990). Contingency theorists focused on measuring the effects of behavior, personality, and the situation have on leadership effectiveness (Van Seters, 1990). The most notable theories of the contingency theorists were Fiedler's Contingency Theory (1964), Evan's Path-Goal Theory (1970), and Vroom and Yetton's Normative Theory (1973) (Van Seters, 1990).

According to Van Seters and Field (1990), the perspective of transformational offers the most promising stage in the evolution of leadership theories. Almost 20 years after Bass published *Leadership and Performance Beyond Expectations* (1985), literature on transformational leadership has steadily grown. The majority of the studies published on the theory have examined the relationship between personality characteristics, subordinates' perception of leaders, and performance with transformational leadership. In the past,

transformational leadership has been studied in the business, academic, sports, and military settings.

Singer and Singer (1986) asked participants to imagine an ideal leader that they would like to work for. The participants' personality was assessed and the imaginary leaders' style was assessed with the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Form 4). The personality construct affiliation had a significant relationship with what is now known as Inspirational Motivation (r = .26), Individualized Consideration (r = .19), and the overall transformational score (r = .19). Not only did the results of this study contribute support for Bass's model, it exemplified that subordinates desire more from their leader than simple transactions.

Lim and Ployhart (2004) found a positive relationship between transformational leadership and personality characteristics such as extroversion (r =.31) and agreeableness (r =.22). A negative correlation with neuroticism (r =-.63) was also discovered. In a meta-analysis of personality and transformational leadership, Bono and Judge (2004) corroborated these findings. In addition, integrity, a requirement for trust, has been linked to transformational leadership (Hughes, et al., 2002; Parry & Proctor-Thompson, 2002).

In an organizational context, Berson and Avolio (2004) found that mangers who reported to transformational leaders were more likely to understand the goals of the organization. The goals of the organization influences its' culture (Chen, 2004). Transformational leaders have been found to have a stronger commitment to the goals, mission, and culture of their organization (Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002). Research suggests that organizational culture has an effect on the leaders' interaction with subordinates (Chen, 2004). In an effort to identify antecedents to transformational leadership, Bommer, Rubin, & Baldwin (2004) found

that those individuals who are cynical about change in their organization negatively predicted transformational leadership behaviors.

Transformational leadership has been found to be predictive of team performance and effectiveness in numerous studies (Bass, et al.; 2003; Kuo, 2004). This is relevant in military contexts where virtually every position is an element of a team. In a survey of 72 platoons (over 2,100 soldiers), Bass, et al., (2003), found transformational leadership to be significantly related to platoon performance ($r = .30$). On the other hand, passive-avoidant leadership was negatively related to platoon performance ($r = -.30$). In addition, Dvir, et al., (2002) found that training individuals in transformational principles resulted in better group performance than those that received no training.

Of particular interest is a study that examined the relationship between transformational leadership and team performance in typical and maximum contexts (Lim & Ployhart, 2004). A maximum context situation is one where the individual is aware they are being evaluated and they are performing with maximum effort in a short amount of time (Lim & Ployhart, 2004). In this particular study, the participants were assessed during a one-day assessment center. Lim & Ployhart (2004), reported that transformational leadership was significantly related to team performance in both the maximum ($r = .60$) and typical ($r = .32$) contexts. The maximum performance context was a significantly strong predictor for transformational leadership than the typical performance context.

United States Army

The basic leadership skills taught to both infantry and non-infantry soldiers are equivalent (Bass & Avolio, 2000; Stoneberger, 2000; U.S. Army, 1999). However, fundamental differences between the infantry and other units exist. The degree of responsibility for the lives of others is

greater for the infantryman. For example, a truck driver may be responsible for getting a vehicle from point A to B. The task is simply to transport the goods and vehicle safely. An infantry soldier tasked to search a village is responsible for ensuring the safety of those in his platoon and the villagers he encounters while all while defeating insurgents. Due to the threats the infantry encounters, it is desirable to have leaders who can develop trust and motivate their subordinates to carry out missions (especially if the leader is killed in action and another soldier assumes the role) (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003). Research findings suggest the differences between the two types of soldiers' impacts leadership style (Atwater, Dionne, Avolio, Camobreco, & Lau, 1999; Bass, et al., 2003).

The Army has set physical fitness standards that must be met by all soldiers (U.S. Army, 1999). A standard physical fitness test requires the soldier to perform push-ups, sit-ups, and a two-mile run. According to a subject-matter-expert, the infantry units require their soldiers score 80 points more than non-infantry soldiers. This includes approximately 20 additional push-ups and sit-ups (in two minutes), and a two-minute faster run. Additionally, pull-ups, weekly 6-mile and quarterly 12-mile road marches are required. Atwater, et al., (1999), found that physical fitness was predictive of leader emergence ($r = .20$) and leader effectiveness ($r = .22$) in a military context. Specifically, leader effectiveness was higher at increased physical fitness levels.

In the context of the battlefield, it is critical that leaders have a high degree of situational awareness (awareness of one's own position and other significant contextual factors that may influence that position) in order to be effective (Eid, et al., 2004). In a study of military leaders, transformational leadership was found to significantly predict operational effectiveness (Eid, et al., 2004).

Proposal

Although the military serves as the sample for many studies (Bass & Avolio, 2000; Masi & Cooke, 2000; Eid, et al., 2004; Lim & Ployhart, 2004), a literature search of PsycINFO returned few studies regarding the leadership differences between soldiers whose key objective is to engage in warfare versus those soldiers that are not (Atwater, et al., 1999; Bass, et al., 2003). The present proposal is intended to promote future research and add literature to an area that is lacking.

The U.S. Army has a high demand for strong leadership skills in order to ensure troops are properly prepared for warfare. Is this true for those units that support the efforts of the Infantry? The U. S. Army proposes that the attributes required of an effective infantry leader include "physical toughness, technical knowledge, mental agility, and the ability to motivate soldiers to fight in the face of adversity" (Stoneberger, 2000, p. 8). In a recent study of U.S. Army officers, it was found that leadership effectiveness (as rated by peers and superiors) has a strong relationship with the leaders' knowledge, ability to motivate and develop subordinates, and self-management (Hedlund, Forsythe, Horvath, Williams, Snook, & Sternberg, 2003). It is expected that the demand for developing a personal leadership style which empowers their subordinates is greater for the infantry leader, than the non-infantry leader. As a result, infantry leaders will be more likely to develop transformational leadership styles.

> *Hypothesis 1*— Perceived transformational leadership style in the Combat (infantry) group will be significantly higher compared to that of the Non-Combat (non-infantry) group.

Conceptually, if a leader is classified as being either transactional or transformational, then it may be inferred that the leader exhibits those behaviors consistently (Bass, 1985). When

leadership style is assessed, a high amount of agreement is expected between the self-report ratings of the leader and the ratings of others. Based on the model of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985), the leader should be perceived by superiors, subordinates and peers in the same manner he/she perceives him/herself. However, results regarding the relationship between self-report versus others' ratings indicate a lack of correlation (Edwards & Ewen, 1996). Based on these contradictory findings, it is expected that there will be a significant difference in the perceived leadership style among the raters. Specifically, the self-report ratings tend to be inflated. This discrepancy may be due to each source being exposed to different styles or to the fact that raters do not agree on the frequency that the leadership behaviors are exhibited. In Hypothesis 2, it is predicted that a significant difference in self rating and others rating of perceived leadership style exists.

> *Hypothesis 2* - There will be a significant difference in self rating and others (superiors, peers, and subordinates) rating of perceived transformational leadership style.

The following chapter describes the methods that will be adopted to measure the two hypotheses.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODS

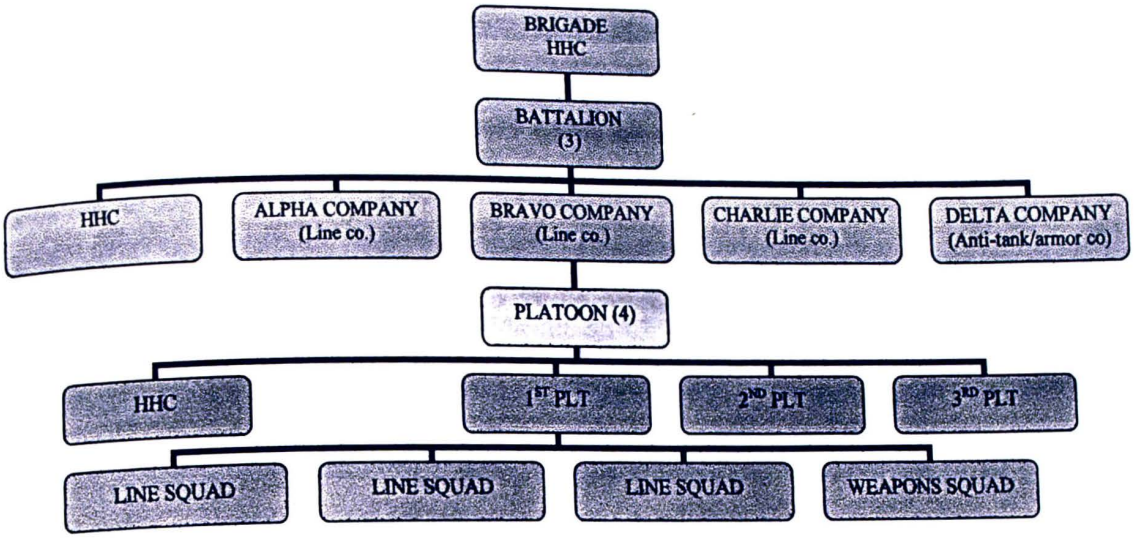
Participants

Participants will be drawn from two battalions stationed at Fort Campbell, KY. Figure 1 depicts the typical composition of an Army unit. Platoon members, platoon sergeants, platoon leaders, and their immediate chain-of-command will be included as participants. The chain-of-command for each company is as follows: the platoon members are the lower-ranking soldiers. These soldiers are divided into four platoons; the ranks included are private, private first class, corporal, specialist, sergeant, and staff sergeant. The platoon leader and platoon sergeant oversee the four platoons. The first sergeant, executive officer, and the commanding officer rank above the aforementioned. The commanding officer is at the top of the chain-of-command within a company. Figure 2 depicts the typical composition of a company.

Within each battalion are five companies (see Figure 1). There are three superiors in each company [2 battalions (3 superiors x 5 companies = 30 superiors)]. The peers and the leaders will be the same individuals [2 battalions (8 leaders x 5 companies) = 80 leaders/peers]. Because the number of subordinates is so great (780), only 120 subordinates will be randomly selected for participation. With this arrangement, three subordinates will be rating each leader. Therefore, the same number of superiors and subordinates will be rating each leader. To ensure the statistical analysis yield accurate results with a strong effect size, a total sample size of 270 is preferred (Van Voorhis & Morgan, 2004). All participants will be at least 18 years of age and under contract with the U.S. Army. Age and tenure (time in service and time in unit) of the participants will be collected.

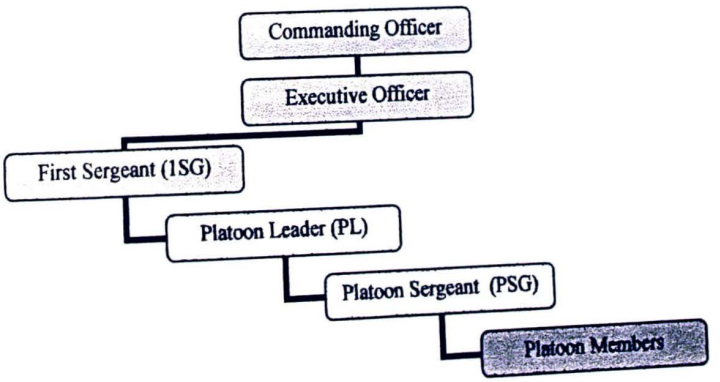
Participation will be approved through the Fort Campbell Public Affairs Office. The experimenter will submit a Department of the Army Request for Troops Form. This request would list possible units that meet the criteria for being a combat or non-combat unit. As it is critical to the experimental design, the participants will be selected based on a pre-existing characteristic. In this case, the type of unit they are assigned to. As a result, they may be nonequivalent (the soldiers can only be a member of one unit, not both). It is preferred that half of the participants are selected from a unit which requires soldiers to fight (or be ready to fight) an enemy in combat situations (e.g., a light infantry unit). These soldiers will represent the Combat group. The other half will be from a unit which does not have the job demand of going to combat (e.g., a training school or medical service unit). These soldiers will comprise the Non-Combat group.

Figure 1. The typical composition of a United States Army unit.



Note. Within each brigade there are three battalions (800 soldiers per battalion).
Within each battalion there are five companies (135 soldiers per company).
Within each company there are four platoons (39 soldiers per platoon).
Within each platoon there are four squads (9 soldiers per squad).

Figure 2. An example of the chain-of-command within a company.



Note. 1. The superiors are highlighted in blue and subordinates in green.
2. The positions of CO, XO, and 1SG exist only once per company. However, the positions of PL and below exist for each platoon within a company.

Materials

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5-1X; Bass & Avolio, 2000) will be used to assess leadership style. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire is designed to be used in situations where 360-degree feedback is desired (Edwards & Ewen, 1996). With this technique the leader is rated by their immediate superiors, peers, and subordinates (Edwards & Ewen, 1996). Multi-source feedback (i.e., 360-degree feedback) has been found to be a more accurate assessment of leadership performance than the use of a single rating (Levy & Williams, 2004). Transactional and transformational leadership is typically measured with the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramanim, 2003; Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 2000; Eid, et al., 2004; Tejeda, Scandura, & Pillai, 2001).

The Leader form is a self-report measure and the Rater form is intended to be completed by the leaders' superiors, peers, and subordinates. The reliability and validity of the most recent version is well documented (Antonakis, et al., 2003; Avolio, et al., 1999; Bass & Avolio, 2000; Tejeda, et al., 2001). Intercorrelations for the transformational scales ranged from .64-.92 (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999). One study reported the internal consistency estimates (coefficient alpha) for the MLQ subscales as ranging from .74 - .94 (Tejeda, et al., 2001). A Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) established a goodness of fit index of .91 (where at least .90 is the cut-off criterion) and the root mean squared residual of .04 (less than .05 is recommended as a cut-off criterion) (Bass & Avolio, 2000). The statistical evidence provides support for the subscales of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire.

Studies that include the military as participants have utilized the MLQ quite often (e.g., Bass & Avolio, 2000; Eid, et al., 2004; Lim & Ployhart, 2004). As an assessment tool, the items and language of the MLQ are of familiarity to the military population (e.g., "meet standards",

"the leader", "effective"). The MLQ items are written on a level that does not require the rater to read at the college level (Bass & Avolio, 2000). The content is reflective of the material contained in Field Manual 22-100 (U. S. Army, 1999).

Both the Leader form and the Rater form contain forty-five statements that ask how often the person of interest displays a variety of behaviors. Each of the items is rated on a five-point Likert scale. For each item, the score can range from 0 (not at all) to 4 (frequently, if not always). Each question assesses the degree to which the leader demonstrates the behavior linked to the aforementioned categories of Bass and Avolio's full range of transformational/transactional leadership model (Idealized Influence Attributes, Idealized Influence Behaviors, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individualized Consideration, Contingent Reward, Management-by-Exception Active & Passive, and Laissez-faire Leadership)(2000). Sample questions on the Leader Form include: "*I talk about my most important values and beliefs*", "*I spend time teaching and coaching*", and "*I avoid getting involved when important issues arise*" (Bass & Avolio, 2000). The items on the Rater Form are almost identical to the Leader Form items, except the wording is changed to "The Person I Am Rating…" (Bass & Avolio, 2000). For example, "*The Person I Am Rating…talks about their most important values and beliefs*" (Bass & Avolio, 2000).

In addition, three scales which assess the rater's overall opinion of the leader are included. They are Extra Effort (EE; getting others to do more than they thought they would), Effectiveness (EFF; fulfilling job-related goals and effective leadership of a group), and Satisfaction (SAT; interacting with others in a satisfying way) (Mind Garden, 2002).

Design

The leaders of interest are the platoon leaders (PL) and platoon sergeants (PSG). The difference between the two ranks is that platoon leaders are officers and platoon sergeants are enlisted non-commissioned officers. They will be providing self-report of their leadership characteristics. Superiors will include the commanding officer (CO), the executive officer (XO), and the first sergeant (1SG). The subordinates will include platoon members holding the rank of private, private first class, corporal, specialist, sergeant, and staff sergeant. Peers will include other platoon leaders and platoon sergeants. In one company, there will be three superiors, two leaders, and 39 subordinates. See Figure 2 for diagram.

Both the Combat group and the Non-Combat group will include the same number of PL's and PSG's. Although they are similar in status, it is relevant to measure the level of transformational leadership in both the PL's and PSG's. According to the U. S. Army (1999), the PL's role based on developing tactical operations, such as implementing commander's missions. The PSG's role is to ensure training, moral, and welfare of subordinates.

The overall design is quasi-experimental. In Hypothesis 1, the independent variable is the soldiers' unit (Combat vs. Non-Combat) and the dependent variable is the ratings of transformational leadership. The independent variable for Hypothesis 2 is the position of the rater (self vs. others) and the dependent variable is the transformational leadership ratings.

Procedure

An informed consent must be signed prior to completing the questionnaire. As each participant enters the room, they will be asked to read and sign the form. The experimenter will only request the name and date of participation for each soldier on the informed consent. No identifying markers will be given on the informed consent (i.e., rank, company, etc.). The

informed consent (see Appendix A) will explicitly state that the soldier's chain of command will not have access to any individual's answers. Fear of punishment from superiors must be dealt with prior to the beginning the questionnaires.

The experimental execution is expected to span several days. The questionnaire will be completed as a group in a classroom setting. The room will be reserved in advance. Each platoon will be registered for the same time and date to prevent the platoon members from communicating how they responded. Because the company as a whole will be unable to participate at the same time, each company will be assigned two or three dates and may come in at their convenience. It is possible that the leaders will be present at the same time as the other participants. One section of the room will be designated for the leaders to prevent them from walking past their raters and viewing their answers.

The participants who are subordinates, superiors, and peers will rate the platoon sergeant and the platoon leader using the MLQ Rater Form (Bass & Avolio, 2000). These participants will complete the Rater Form a total of two times. The MLQ takes approximately 15 minutes to complete. All data collected will be anonymous. Participants will list their age, tenure, rank and position in the company on the form.

Each participant will fill out the MLQ for each platoon leader and platoon sergeant and then immediately hand the completed instrument over to the experimenter. The experimenter will be the only person who will have access to the questionnaires. The experimenter will remain in the room at all times while the questionnaires are being completed. The completed questionnaires will be stored in a locked box to ensure no one else may view the forms.

CHAPTER FOUR

PROPOSED DATA ANALYSIS & DISCUSSION

Frequency counts will be run on the variables rank, company position, and group (Combat or Non-Combat). The scoring for the MLQ is straightforward. There are four items for each scale, except for EE (3) and SAT (2). The score for each category is calculated as an arithmetic average. For example, Leader X receives a total of 12 on the Intellectual Stimulation scale 12/4=3). The score each individual receives is matched to the normative scores and a rank may be assigned (a score of 3 on IS scale places the leader in the 70th percentile). The percentile ranks given by Bass and Avolio (2000) for each category (e.g., Inspirational Motivation, Contingent Reward) are in Appendix B.

Regarding Hypothesis 1 (the Combat group will have a higher level of transformational leaders), an independent samples t-test will be used to compute the differences in the mean total transformational score for the Combat and Non-Combat groups. The mean ratings of the transformational categories (IIA + IIB + IM + IS + IC) will be compared. In order to clarify, the mean of the ratings for Idealized Influence Attributes will be added to the mean of Idealized Influence Behaviors, and so on and averaged. It is common practice to analyze the ratings as independent scales (IIA, IIB, IM, IS, and IC) or an overall mean (IIA + IIB + IM + IS + IC = Total Transformational Score) (Bass & Avolio, 2000; Mind Garden, Inc., 2002). The ratings of the leaders by self-report, subordinate, superior, and peer ratings will be combined for both the Combat and Non-Combat groups.

In the case of support of Hypothesis 1, it is expected that more transformational platoon sergeants and platoon leaders are in the Combat unit (and less in Non-combat unit). This difference may be due to the increased pressure of job demands. In the combat units, danger and

even death are a prominent threat. The results of poor leadership are more serious on the battlefield, than in an office. By the very nature of the responsibility, the Army is intent to produce leaders who are transformational.

In contrast, if no significant results are found in the t-test, it can be concluded that the Combat unit does not have any more transformational leaders than the Non-Combat unit. It may be concluded that job demands, such as life-threatening situations, do not produce transformational leaders. Therefore, leadership style is not specifically related to job type. In addition, there could be a significant difference where more transformational leaders are found in the Non-Combat unit, rather than the Combat unit.

In regards to Hypotheses 2, a paired groups t-test will be performed. The self-report ratings of all the leaders (both the PL's and PSG's in the Combat and Non-Combat groups) will be compared to the ratings of all superiors, peers, and subordinates. In the proposed data analysis data aggregated across raters with data that represents the responses of individuals. As a result of using aggregated data to estimate the relationships or identify group differences, systematic bias may be introduced into the results (Scullen, 1997). A downward adjustment to the alpha level used for testing hypotheses would be undertaken in an effort to minimize this bias.

As stated earlier, it was hypothesized that the ratings of the different groups would differ (Hypothesis 2). In particular, the leader's overall leadership style leader will be rated higher by the leader than the superiors, subordinates, and peers. Support for Hypothesis 2 will occur if differences were found, in the self-report ratings of the platoon sergeants and platoon leaders versus the ratings of their peers, subordinates and superiors. As the literature suggests, the perception a leader has of him/herself may not be equivalent to what others perceive. In

addition, the leader may change his approach in the presence of others. For example, a laissez-faire leader may exhibit charisma when his superior is observing him.

If no differences are found in the ratings of the platoon sergeants and platoon leaders by self-report, peers, subordinates and superiors it may be inferred that leadership style is not a stable characteristic. This finding can be explained by the assumption that leadership style should be stable across situations. The leader should maintain their leadership style whether or not peers or superiors are present when the platoon sergeant or platoon leader is interacting with the subordinates.

One factor that may influence the results is the varying sample size within the groups of raters. The peer and leader group is comprised of fewer participants than the other groups. In addition, all of the superiors and leaders/peers are included in the sample, but the subordinate group contains only a proportion of actual members. It is critical that the subordinates are given equal probability of being chosen for inclusion in the study. By doing so, the likelihood of attaining reliable and valid results will increase.

Another possible limitation is that there is no control over which company the Public Affairs Office will grant permission for participation. There is a high rate of turnover within Army companies. According to a subject-matter-expert, any soldier will spend approximately 2-4 years at one unit. It is likely that one of the companies will have a higher percentage of newer members (all ranks). Unfamiliarity with the platoon leaders and platoon sergeants may have an effect on the ratings.

The research study proposed, if carried out, would add literature to a topic worthy of examination. The effectiveness of the U.S. Army is largely due to it being a highly adaptive organization. It would be valuable to examine the role of transformational leadership in the e-

equipment. Many military researchers suggest a deeper understanding of leadership style is necessary to properly train the future solder (Bass, et al., 2003; Bass & Avolio, 2000; Hedlund, et al., 2000).

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Informed Consent

Thank you for your participation. Today you will be asked to rate your current platoon leader(s) and platoon sergeant(s) on their leadership style. Only the experimenter will have access to the responses you give. Your chain-of-command will not be allowed to look at any of the completed questionnaire. In addition, you will not be required to give your name on the questionnaire. The only information we request is your current rank and position in your unit. With that in mind, please take time to consider each item and answer honestly.

The experimenter will ensure that the information you provide remains anonymous. You will not be punished based your responses.

Your participation is voluntary. If at any time you feel uncomfortable and wish to leave, you may without penalty.

I have read the above informed consent and understand that my participation will be completely anonymous and I am free to leave at any point.

_____ SIGNATURE

_____ DATE

Appendix B

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass & Avolio,2000) Percentiles for individual scores

	II(A)	II(B)	IM	IS	IC	CR	MBEA	MBEP	LF	EE	EFF	SAT	
N =	2,080	2,080	2,080	2,080	2,079	2,078	2,078	2,077	1,826	1,605	733	703	
	MLQ Scores									Outcomes		Percentile	
Percentile													
95	3.7	3.8	3.8	3.7	3.9	3.5	3.0	2.7	2.4	4.0	3.7	4.0	95
90	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.5	3.7	3.3	2.9	2.3	2.0	4.0	3.5	4.0	90
80	3.2	3.4	3.4	3.2	3.4	3.0	2.4	1.7	1.4	3.7	3.2	4.0	80
70	3.1	3.2	3.2	3.0	3.2	2.7	2.1	1.4	1.1	3.3	3.0	4.0	70
60	2.9	3.0	3.0	2.8	3.1	2.5	2.0	1.1	0.9	3.0	3.0	3.0	60
50	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.7	2.9	2.3	1.7	1.0	0.7	3.0	2.7	3.0	50
40	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.4	2.4	2.0	1.6	0.7	0.5	2.7	2.5	2.0	40
30	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.2	2.3	1.8	1.3	0.6	0.4	2.0	2.2	1.5	30
20	1.9	0.9	1.9	1.8	1.9	1.4	1.1	0.4	0.2	1.7	2.0	1.0	20
10	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.2	0.9	0.7	0.2	0.1	0.7	1.7	1.0	10
5	0.9	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.5	0.5	0.1	0.0	0.0	1.2	1.0	5

Legend: II(A) = Idealized Influence (Attributed)
II(B) = Idealized Influence (Behavior)
IM = Inspirational Motivation
IS = Intellectual Stimulation
IC = Individualized Consideration
CR = Contingent Reward
MBEA = Management-by-Exception (Active)
MBEP = Management-by-Exception (Passive)
LF = Laissez-Faire
EE = Extra Effort
EFF = Effectiveness
SAT = Satisfaction

Key of Frequency: 4.0 = Frequently, if not always
3.0 = Fairly often
2.0 = Sometimes
1.0 = Once in a while
0.0 = Not at all

VITA

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