



**Der Einfluss von Werten und Unwerten auf das Erleben und Verhalten von
Führungskräften und Mitarbeitern**

Publikationsbasierte Dissertation
zur Erlangung des Doktorgrades der Philosophie
(Dr. phil.)

dem Fachbereich Psychologie
der Johann Wolfgang Goethe-Universität Frankfurt am Main
vorgelegt von

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Hamburg, 03. November 2011

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Einreichung der Dissertation: 03. November 2011

Annahme der Dissertation: 10. November 2011

Mündliche Prüfung: 06. Februar 2012

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1. Danksagung

Ich bin vielen Personen zu Dank verpflichtet, die mich bei der Anfertigung dieser Dissertation unterstützt haben. Besonders danke ich meinen Anleitern, Koautoren und Gutachtern. Darüber hinaus bedanke ich mich bei allen Mitarbeitern der sozialpsychologischen Abteilung des Fachbereiches Psychologie der Johann Wolfgang Goethe-Universität, Frankfurt am Main, der RespectResearchGroup der Universität Hamburg, des Department of Management & Organizations der Kellogg School of Management der Northwestern University, Evanston, USA sowie des Department of Organization and Personnel Management der Rotterdam School of Management der Erasmus University, Rotterdam, NL. Des Weiteren danke ich meinen Mentoren und Kollegen der Kienbaum Management Consultants GmbH. Darüber hinaus bedanke ich mich bei meiner Familie und meinen Freunden.

Allen voran danke ich Anna. Ihre Liebe trägt mich.

2. Zusammenfassung

Werte sind zentraler Bestandteil der persönlichen wie sozialen Identität und spielen eine wichtige Rolle für das menschliche Erleben und Verhalten. Bisher wurden Werte aber immer nur als normative Richtlinien oder motivationale Grundlagen verstanden, an denen sich Personen bewusst orientieren oder auf die sie sich zu bewegen. Erste Forschungsergebnisse konnten nachweisen, dass Personen unabhängig davon auch von Unwerten geleitet werden, an denen sie sich bewusst nicht orientieren oder von denen sie sich wegbewegen (Van Quaquebeke, Kerschreiter, Buxton, & van Dick, 2010). Vor diesem Hintergrund stellen die zentralen Ziele dieser Dissertation die theoretische Herleitung der Trennung von Werten und Unwerten und der praktische Nachweis des Einflusses beider Werteorientierungen auf das menschliche Erleben und Verhalten dar.

In dem ersten Manuskript, das dieser Dissertation zugrunde liegt, erfolgte die konzeptionelle Herleitung und Trennung von Werten und Unwerten. Durch das Aufzeigen des theoretischen Ursprungs beider Werteorientierungen konnten explizite Hypothesen zu ihrer Trennung und unabhängigen Wirkung, vor allem in organisationalen- und Führungs-Kontexten, hergeleitet und aufgestellt werden. In dem zweiten Manuskript konnte in zwei Feldstudien ($N_1 = 131$ und $N_2 = 136$) aufgezeigt werden, dass sich Werte und Unwerte empirisch tatsächlich voneinander unterscheiden lassen und unterschiedliche Einflüsse auf die Wahrnehmung ihrer Mitarbeiter und die Ausmaße an Identifikation und Respekt haben. In dem dritten Manuskript konnte in einer Feldstudie ($N_1 = 95$) und einer Szenariostudie ($N_2 = 137$) nachgewiesen werden, dass ideale Werte, die durch Führungskräfte verkörpert werden, darüber hinaus die Wahrnehmung ihrer Mitarbeiter und die Ausmaße an Identifikation und Anerkennung positiv beeinflussen. Das gilt besonders für interne Führungskräfte, die die Mitarbeiter schon länger führen und als Teil der Arbeitsgruppe angesehen werden.

Insgesamt weist diese Dissertation auf die Bedeutung einer differenzierten Darstellung und Betrachtung von Werteorientierungen und Wertesystemen hin und liefert mit der Einführung von Unwerten in die (organisationale) Forschung einen wichtigen Beitrag zur Erforschung ihres Einflusses auf das Erleben und Verhalten von Führungskräften und Mitarbeitern.

3. Abstract

Values are central to people's personal and social identities and thus play an important role for their perceptual and behavioral reactions. However, established research has conceptualized values as ideal guidelines or positive end-states that people strive to achieve. In contrast, empirical research suggests that people are also simultaneously and independently led by counter-ideal values which are negative end-states that people strive to avoid (Van Quaquebeke, Kerschreiter, Buxton, & van Dick, 2010). The purposes of this dissertation are to derive the theoretical underpinnings of ideal- and counter-ideal values and to demonstrate the practical implications of both value orientations for people's perceptions and behaviors.

In the first manuscript of this dissertation, ideal- and counter-ideal values have been conceptually differentiated. By highlighting the theoretical origin of both value orientations, explicit hypotheses about their differentiation and distinct influence, particularly in organizational and managerial contexts, were derived and established. In the second manuscript of this dissertation, it has been demonstrated in two field studies ($N_1 = 131$ and $N_2 = 136$) that ideal- and counter-values really can be empirically distinguished from each other and actually have distinct influences on employees' perceptions and their levels of identification with and respect for their leaders. In the third manuscript of this dissertation, it has been shown in both a field study ($N_1 = 95$) and a scenario study ($N_2 = 137$) that leader's ideal values have influence beyond on their employees' perceptions and levels of identification with and endorsement of them. This is especially true for internal leaders who supervise a work group for a long time and are thus considered to be part of it.

In summary, this dissertation calls for a more differentiated conceptualization of value orientations and value systems and adds to their exploration with the introduction of counter-ideal values to (organizational) research. Thus, it makes an important contribution to the study

of the influence of value systems on the perceptions and reactions of leaders and their employees.

4. Theoretischer Hintergrund

4.1 Einleitung

Wenn man an Führungskräfte denkt, fallen einem auf Anhieb bestimmte Werte ein, für die diese stehen und nach denen sie sich richten. Manche Personen beschreiben ihre Führungskraft beispielsweise als besonders ehrgeizig und distanziert, andere als ausgesprochen zugewandt und hilfsbereit. Je näher man seinen Führungskräften dabei steht, desto eher ist man bereit, ihre Werte als seine eigenen anzunehmen und sich von ihnen in seinem Erleben und Verhalten beeinflussen zu lassen.

Viele Führungskräfte verkörpern aber auch Werte, für die man nicht steht und nach denen man sich nicht richtet. Eine Führungskraft, die beispielsweise als besonders machtbewusst beschrieben wird und dabei arrogant wirkt oder rücksichtslos ist, erscheint einem oftmals sogar ausgesprochen unsympathisch und uneffektiv, weil man sich mit diesen Werten nicht identifizieren kann. Zahlreiche weitere Beispiele zeigen, dass Führungskräfte unterschiedliche Wertorientierungen verkörpern, die Personen nur teilweise teilen. Dabei nutzt man sowohl Werte, für die man steht als auch Werte, nach denen man sich nicht richtet, um das Erleben und Verhalten von Führungskräften einzuschätzen und zu beurteilen.

In der Erforschung unterschiedlicher Werte und ihrem Zusammenwirken in Wertesystemen wurden bisher aber nur Werte, nach denen man sich richtet, untersucht. Der Annahme, dass auch Werte, für die man nicht steht, Einfluss auf das menschliche Erleben und Verhalten haben, ist bisher noch nicht systematisch nachgegangen worden (siehe Van Quaquebeke et al., 2010). Deshalb hat diese Dissertation das Ziel, den Aufbau und die Struktur von Wertesystemen differenzierter zu betrachten und um Werte, nach denen sich Personen nicht richten, zu ergänzen. Diese Wertorientierungen werden dabei aus Gründen der einfacheren Unterscheidbarkeit im Folgenden Unwerte genannt. Während Werte als “enduring beliefs that a specific mode of conduct is personally or socially preferable” definiert werden (Rokeach,

1973, S. 5), werden Unwerte als “enduring beliefs that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially not preferable” definiert (Van Quaquebeke et al., 2010, S. 295). Im theoretischen Hintergrund werden zentrale Forschungsergebnisse zu Werten und ihrem Zusammenwirken in Wertesystemen dargestellt. Dabei werden diese Erkenntnisse im allgemeinen und organisationalen Kontext betrachtet. Anschließend werden Auszüge aus sozial-, kognitions- und motivationspsychologischen Forschungsansätzen dargestellt, die belegen, dass man Werte von Unwerten unterscheiden kann und beide Wertorientierungen einen unabhängigen Einfluss auf das menschliche Erleben und Verhalten haben. Danach werden diese Ansätze mit den Erkenntnissen der Werteforschung zusammengeführt und die Herleitung der Fragestellung dargestellt. Anschließend werden drei Manuskripte vorgestellt, die sich mit den Werten und Unwerten beschäftigen und den zentralen Kern dieser Dissertation ausmachen. In der Gesamtdiskussion und dem Ausblick werden die Ergebnisse dieser Arbeit kritisch betrachtet. Darüber hinaus werden Implikationen für die Theorie und Praxis zu Werten und Wertesystemen abgeleitet und aufgezeigt.

4.2 Zum Stand der allgemeinen Werteforschung

Werte sind zentraler Bestandteil der persönlichen und sozialen Identität (Hitlin, 2003; Hitlin & Piliavin, 2004; Rokeach, 1973, 1979; Schwartz, 1992, 1994; Verplanken & Holland, 2002). Sie dienen als normative Richtlinien und motivationale Grundlagen für die Aufnahme und Verarbeitung von Informationen und haben großen Einfluss auf das menschliche Erleben und Verhalten (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003; Schwartz, 2005, 2006).

Viele Forscher haben sich in der Vergangenheit vor allem mit dem Aufbau und der Struktur von Werten und Wertesystemen beschäftigt (z.B. Kluckhohn, 1951; Lewin, 1952; Rohan, 2000; Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1994, 1999). Dabei haben sie aber unterschiedliche oder inkonsistente Definitionen vorgelegt (z.B. Maio, Olson, Bernard, & Luke, 2003; Rohan, 2000). Die Definitionen von Rokeach (1973, S. 5) und Schwartz (1994, S. 21; 1999, S. 24)

haben sich als besonders tragfähig erwiesen. Rokeach definiert Werte als: “[...] enduring beliefs that a specific mode of conduct is personally or socially preferable to an opposite mode or converse mode of conduct or end-state if existence”. Schwartz definiert Werte als: “[...] desirable transsituational goals, varying in importance, that serve as guiding principles in life of a person or other social entity“ beziehungsweise “[...] conceptions of the desirable that guide the way social actors (e.g., organizational leaders, policy-makers, individual persons) select actions, evaluate people and events, and explain their actions and evaluations”.

Werte unterscheiden sich von anderen Merkmalen der Persönlichkeit wie Einstellungen oder Verhaltensweisen dadurch, dass sie über unterschiedliche Kontexte und Situationen hinweg zeitlich stabil und unabhängig sind (z.B. Connor & Becker, 1994; Epstein, 1979; Posner & Schmidt, 1992; Rokeach, 1985; Rokeach & Ball-Rokeach, 1989). Dennoch sind sie für spezifische Einflüsse aus persönlich bedeutsamen Kontexten offen (Maio & Olson, 1998). Sie bilden eine Brücke zwischen Persönlichkeitseigenschaften und anderen Merkmalen der Persönlichkeit und haben dadurch großen Einfluss auf die Vorhersage des Erlebens und Verhaltens von Personen (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003; Schwartz & Bardi, 2001).

Da einige Werte für Personen wichtiger sind als andere, gehen Forscher davon aus, dass sie in Abhängigkeit ihrer persönlichen Bedeutung und dem relevanten Kontext hierarchisch organisiert sind (z.B. Feather, 1996; Pant & Lachman, 1998). In umfangreichen interkulturellen Studien konnte Schwartz (1992, 1994, 1999) eine universelle Struktur von Werten nachweisen. Er identifizierte zehn Werteorientierungen, denen jeweils unterschiedliche Werte, Motive und Bedürfnisse zugrunde liegen. Diese Orientierungen lauten: Benevolence, Universalism, Self-direction, Stimulation, Hedonism, Achievement, Power, Security, Conformity und Tradition. Schwartz konnte zeigen, dass sie in einem kreisförmigen Circumplex-Modell eingeordnet werden können und zueinander in Beziehung stehen. Das Circumplex-Modell reflektiert unterschiedliche Kompatibilitäten und Konflikte,

die aus den Gemeinsamkeiten und Unterschieden der verschiedenen Wertorientierungen resultieren. Grundsätzlich liegen Werte, die ähnliche Grundbedürfnisse stillen, näher beieinander und Werte, die unterschiedliche Grundbedürfnisse nicht befriedigen, weiter auseinander. Die Wertorientierungen des Circumplex-Modells lassen sich darüber hinaus einer zweifaktoriellen Struktur zuordnen. Der erste Faktor besteht aus den Dimensionen Self-Transcendence und Self-Enhancement. Diesen sind die Wertorientierungen Benevolence und Universalism sowie Achievement und Power zugeordnet. Die zweite Dimension setzt sich aus den Dimensionen Openness to Change und Conservation zusammen. Diesen sind die Wertorientierungen Self-Direction und Stimulation sowie Security, Conformity und Tradition zugeordnet. Die Wertorientierung Hedonismus findet sich teilweise in den Dimensionen Openness to Change und Self-Enhancement wieder.

Die unterschiedlichen Wertorientierungen des Circumplex-Modells ließen sich in 65 unterschiedlichen Kulturen wiederfinden (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000; Schwartz & Sagiv, 1995). Darüber hinaus konnte diese Struktur in 23 unterschiedlichen Ländern repliziert werden (Schwartz & Boehnke, 2004).

4.3 Zum Stand der organisationalen Werteforschung

Werte spielen auch im organisationalen Kontext eine zentrale Rolle. Da sich in diesem Kontext aber nahezu vergleichbar viele unterschiedliche oder inkonsistente Definitionen wie in der Erforschung allgemeiner Werte feststellen lassen, fallen viele Untersuchungsergebnisse unterschiedlich aus (z.B. Dose, 1997; Meglino & Ravlin, 1998; Roe & Ester, 1999; Ros, Schwartz, & Surkiss, 1999; Schwartz, 1999). Deshalb hat man in den letzten Jahren die allgemeinen Definitionen von Rokeach (1973) und Schwartz (1994, 1999) in die Kontexte von Organisationen und Führungsprozessen eingeführt.

In der Erforschung von Werten im organisationalen Kontext steht vor allem der Grad an Kongruenz zwischen persönlichen und organisationalen Wertorientierungen im Mittelpunkt,

da Werte auf individueller Ebene das Erleben und Verhalten der Mitarbeiter beeinflussen und sich auf organisationaler Ebene darauf auswirken, wie organisationale Ressourcen verteilt werden sollten und sich die Mitglieder einer Organisation verhalten sollen (z.B. Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman & Johnson, 2005; Verquer, Beehr, & Wagner, 2003). Kristof (1996, S. 4-5) definiert Kongruenz als: "The compatibility between people and organizations that occurs when at least (a) one entity provides what the other needs, (b) they share similar fundamental characteristics, or (c) both". Viele organisationale Studien haben sich in der Vergangenheit mit unterschiedlichen Arten und Ausprägungen der Zusammenhänge von persönlichen und organisationalen Werteorientierungen beschäftigt (Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Verquer et al., 2003). Der Grad an Kongruenz beeinflusst das Erleben und Verhalten von Mitarbeitern einer Organisation, da Individuen sich besonders zu anderen Personen oder Organisationen hingezogen fühlen, die ihre Werte teilen (z.B. Byrne, 1969; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). Das Teilen von Werten erleichtert unter anderem die Kommunikation und verschiedene Arten von Interaktionen, da Personen beispielsweise Informationen auf dieselbe Art aufnehmen und verarbeiten (Edwards & Cable, 2009). Dadurch reduzieren sie Unsicherheiten und kognitive Komplexität (Kalliath, Bluedorn, & Strube, 1999). Da die Werte einer Organisation von ihren Mitarbeitern reflektiert werden, resultiert der Grad an Inkongruenz zwischen persönlichen und organisationalen Werteorientierungen in kognitiver Dissonanz und Unzufriedenheit (O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). Im Kontext von Führungsprozessen stellten Lord und Brown (2001) heraus, dass besonders erfolgreiche Führungskräfte in der Lage sind, die Wertesysteme und Identitäten ihrer Mitarbeiter zu aktivieren und positiv zu beeinflussen. Wenn Mitarbeiter den Grad an Kongruenz zwischen ihren Wertesystemen und den Wertesystemen ihrer Führungskräfte als hoch ausgeprägt wahrnehmen, führt das zu positiveren Einstellungen gegenüber Führungskräften und Organisationen (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998). Sosik (2005) konnte dabei zeigen, dass Führungskräfte von ihren Mitarbeitern in Abhängigkeit ihrer Werteorientierungen

eingeschätzt werden. Ehrhart und Klein (2001) stellten fest, dass unterschiedliche Mitarbeiter bestimmte Führungskräfte in Abhängigkeit ihrer Werteorientierungen bevorzugen. Offermann, Hanges und Day (2001) sind deshalb der Ansicht, dass Werte und Wertesysteme in Führungsprozessen eine wichtige Rolle spielen.

4.4 Die Trennung von Werten und Unwerten

Die meisten Personen machen die Erfahrung, in ihrem Erleben und Verhalten gleichermaßen von positiven und negativen Reizen beeinflusst zu werden. Die Unterscheidung zwischen positiven und negativen Kräften lässt sich in grundlegenden Theorien der Psychologie wiederfinden, beispielsweise in der Psychodynamischen Theorie nach Freud (1957), der Lerntheorie nach Skinner (1938), der Dispositionstheorie nach Cattell (1957), der Sozial-Kognitiven Theorie nach Rotter (1954) oder der Kognitiven Theorie nach Heider (1958). Somit ist sie ein zentraler Bestandteil für die Analyse menschlicher Wahrnehmungen und Reaktionen (Carver, Scheier, & Sutton, 2000; Elliot, 1999).

Positive und negative Kräfte werden entweder als Verhaltenstendenzen beschrieben (z.B. Annäherungs- versus Vermeidungsverhalten) oder als zugrundeliegende Motivationstendenzen verstanden (z.B. anregend versus abstoßend). In beiden Fällen gehen Forscher davon aus, dass die Trennung zwischen positiven und negativen Reizen der Persönlichkeit fundamental unterliegt (Carver et al., 2000; Dollard & Miller, 1950; Elliot, 1997, 1999; Elliot & Thrash, 2002; Miller & Dollard, 1941; Zuckerman, 2005). Darüber hinaus hat diese Unterscheidung eine lange Tradition in unterschiedlichen sozial-, kognitions- und motivationspsychologischen Forschungsansätzen. Schon James (1890) diskutierte Lust als ein verstärkendes Signal und Schmerz als ein inhibierendes Signal. Freud (1920, 1957) sah die Annäherung an Lust und die Vermeidung von Schmerz als fundamentale Grundlage der psychischen Dynamik von Personen an. Viele Forscher haben sich seitdem auf die grundlegenden Prinzipien der Annäherung und Vermeidung berufen und in ihre Theorien

integriert (z.B. Cacioppo & Berntson, 1994; Higgins, 1996; Markus & Nurius, 1986; Roseman, 1984; Stein & Jewett, 1986; Tellegen, 1985; Tesser & Martin, 1996; Zuckerman, 2005). Im Folgenden werden drei Theorien in Auszügen vorgestellt, in denen das unabhängige Wirken von positiven und negativen Kräften eine zentrale Funktion einnimmt.

In der Aktivierungstheorie von Gray (1981, 1982, 1987, 1991) werden zwei neuroanatomische Systeme beschrieben, die menschliche Reaktionen auf positive oder negative Reize steuern. Das „Behavioral Inhibition System“ (BIS) reagiert beispielsweise auf Strafreize, Angstreize oder unbekannte Signale. Es steigert die Aufmerksamkeit, erhöht die physiologische Aktivierung und hemmt Verhalten. Das BIS bildet die Grundlage negativer Affekte, also emotionaler Reaktionen wie Angst oder Nervosität. Das „Behavioral Approach System“ (BAS) reagiert dagegen beispielsweise auf Belohnungsreize und verstärkt Verhalten. Das BAS stellt die Grundlage positiver Affekte, also emotionaler Reaktionen wie Freude, dar. Beide Systeme werden als unabhängig voneinander beschrieben. Das bedeutet, dass sie unabhängigen Verhaltens- und Motivationstendenzen unterliegen.

In der Selbstregulationstheorie von Carver und Scheier (1981, 1998) werden über den Prozess der Selbstregulation Ist-/Soll-Vergleiche vorgenommen und über Feedbackschleifen die Effekte des eigenen Erlebens und Verhaltens kontrolliert. Ziel der Selbstregulationsprozesse ist die Verringerung zwischen Ist und Soll. Das geschieht über die Rückmeldung von Erfolgen oder Misserfolgen und die Initiierung von Handlungen. Gemäß der Theorie des regulatorischen Fokus (Higgins, 1997, 1998) können Personen ihre Ziele über zwei unterschiedliche selbstregulative Systeme erreichen: Überwiegt das Bedürfnis nach Selbstverwirklichung und Verstärkung positiver Ereignisse, fokussieren sie ihre Aufmerksamkeit auf das Erreichen von Idealen. Überwiegt hingegen das Bedürfnis nach Sicherheit und Schutz, ist das Vermeiden von Anti-Idealen zentrales Anliegen (Higgins, 1997). Während sich Personen im ersten Fall in einem Promotionsfokus befinden, sind sie im

zweiten Fall in einem Präventionsfokus. Nach Higgins (1996, 1997; siehe auch Higgins, Shah & Friedman, 1997) wirken beide Foki unabhängig voneinander.

Da Werte und Wertesysteme zentraler Bestandteil der persönlichen und sozialen Identität sind ist anzunehmen, dass sie sich auch in Werte und Unwerte unterscheiden lassen können. Beide Werteorientierungen stellen den Kern kognitiver Netzwerke unterschiedlicher Einstellungen dar, die Personen gegenüber anderen Personen oder Objekten haben. Einstellungen drücken zugrundeliegende Werte von Personen aus und können positiv oder negativ sein. Personen neigen beispielsweise dazu, eine positive Einstellung gegenüber anderen Personen oder Objekten zu haben, die wertekonform ist, und eine negative Einstellung gegenüber anderen Personen oder Objekten zu haben, die nicht wertekonform ist (Katz, 1960; Maio & Olson, 1995; Maio et al., 2003). Kaplan (1972) zeigte dabei, dass bestimmte Einstellungen negativ sind und unabhängig von positiven Einstellungen wirken. Rodin (1978) ist der Ansicht, dass positive und negative Einschätzungen von Personen oder Objekten auf voneinander getrennten Dimensionen stattfinden. Cacioppo und Kollegen (Cacioppo & Berntson, 1994; Cacioppo, Gardner, & Berntson, 1997) vermuteten darüber hinaus, dass positiven und negativen Einstellungen voneinander unabhängige Konsequenzen im Erleben und Verhalten folgen. Die Trennung von positiven und negativen Einstellungen deutet darauf hin, dass die ihnen zugrundeliegenden Wertesysteme ebenfalls in voneinander unabhängige Werteorientierungen, nämlich Werte und Unwerte, unterteilt werden können.

5. Herleitung der Fragestellung

Die Darstellung der zentralen Forschungsergebnisse zu Werten und ihrem Zusammenwirken in Wertesystemen und die Verweise auf sozial-, kognitions- und motivationspsychologische Forschungsansätze verdeutlichen den hohen Stellenwert, dem eine Trennung von Werten und Unwerten und der unabhängigen Untersuchung beider Werteorientierungen zukommt. Werte und Wertesysteme prägen die persönliche und soziale Identität und beeinflussen das menschliche Erleben und Handeln maßgeblich. Deshalb hat die Erforschung ihres Aufbaus und ihrer Struktur eine große Bedeutung für das genauere Verständnis von Menschen und ihrer Art, Erlebnisse zu verarbeiten und Handlungen durchzuführen.

Daher werden in dieser Dissertation Werte und Unwerte als voneinander unabhängige Werteorientierungen konzipiert und untersucht. Vor diesem Hintergrund beschäftigen sich die nachfolgend aufgeführten Arbeiten mit der konzeptionellen Trennung von Werten und Unwerten (Manuskript 1) und ihrer praktischen Erforschung in den Kontexten von Organisationen und Führungsprozessen (Manuskript 2). Darüber hinaus wird der kausale Einfluss von idealen Werten in den Kontexten von Organisationen und Führungsprozessen gesondert betrachtet (Manuskript 3).

6. Beschreibung der zentralen Ergebnisse

In dem ersten Manuskript erfolgte die konzeptionelle Herleitung und Trennung von Werten und Unwerten. Durch das Aufzeigen des theoretischen Ursprungs beider Werteorientierungen konnten explizite Hypothesen zu ihrer Trennung und unabhängigen Wirkung, vor allem in organisationalen- und Führungs-Kontexten, hergeleitet und aufgestellt werden. Diese Annahmen beziehen sich auf die Unterscheidung zwischen Werten und Unwerten, ihre kontextuelle und situationale Abhängigkeit sowie ihren unabhängigen Einfluss auf die Passung von personalen und organisationalen Wertesystemen.

In den zwei Feldstudien ($N_1 = 131$ und $N_2 = 136$) des zweiten Manuskripts konnte aufgezeigt werden, dass sich Werte und Unwerte empirisch tatsächlich voneinander unterscheiden lassen und unterschiedliche Einflüsse auf die Wahrnehmung ihrer Mitarbeiter haben. In beiden Studien sollten die Teilnehmer den „Portraits Values Questionnaire“ (PVQ) (Schwartz et al., 2001) ausfüllen und anhand dieses Instruments drei, teilweise fiktionale, Führungskräfte einschätzen: Die ihrer Vorstellung nach ideale Führungskraft, die ihrer Vorstellung nach anti-ideale Führungskraft und ihre derzeitige Führungskraft. Diese Variablen wurden anschließend verwendet, um jeweils einen idealen- und anti-idealen Score zu berechnen und in hierarchische Regressionsanalysen einfließen zu lassen. Dadurch konnte in beiden Studien gezeigt werden, dass Werte und Unwerte unabhängig voneinander Einfluss auf das Ausmaß an Respekt der Mitarbeiter gegenüber ihren Führungskräften haben. Darüber hinaus zeigte sich in der zweiten Studie, dass beide Werteorientierungen ebenso unabhängig voneinander das Ausmaß an Identifikation der Mitarbeiter mit ihren Führungskräften beeinflussen. In beiden Studien konnte darüber hinaus gezeigt werden, dass sich der Einfluss beider Werteorientierungen noch einmal verstärkt, wenn man die Stichproben danach aufteilt, wie stark die Teilnehmer zwischen Werten und Unwerten unterscheiden: Differenzierten die Teilnehmer wenig zwischen beiden Werteorientierungen, erwies sich ihr Einfluss als signifikant weniger stark gegenüber der Gesamtstichprobe. Differenzierten die Teilnehmer

dagegen stark zwischen beiden Werten und Unwerten, erwies sich ihr Einfluss als signifikant stärker gegenüber der Gesamtstichprobe.

In der Feldstudie ($N_1 = 95$) und der Szenariostudie ($N_2 = 137$) des dritten Manuskripts konnte aufgezeigt werden, dass ideale Werte, die durch Führungskräfte verkörpert werden, die Wahrnehmung ihrer Mitarbeiter positiv beeinflussen. Allerdings gilt das besonders für interne Führungskräfte, die die Mitarbeiter schon länger führen und als Teil der Arbeitsgruppe angesehen werden. In der ersten Studie sollten die Teilnehmer ausgewählte Items des PVQ in Bezug auf ihre derzeitige Führungskraft ausfüllen. Diese Items verkörpern den Grad der Gruppenorientierung einer Person und wurden in den Studien des ersten Manuskripts als besonders ideal bewertet. Darüber hinaus mussten die Teilnehmer angeben, wie sehr sie ihre derzeitigen Führungskräfte als Teil der Arbeitsgruppe ansehen. Es zeigte sich, dass Mitarbeiter ihre Führungskräfte stärker anerkennen, wenn diese ideale Werte verkörpern und dabei als Teil der Arbeitsgruppe angesehen werden. Wenn die Führungskräfte dagegen ideale Werte verkörpern, aber nicht als Teil der Gruppe angesehen werden, erwies sich das Ausmaß an Anerkennung als signifikant geringer. In der zweiten Studie konnte dieses Ergebnis mit Hilfe eines Szenarios im 2x2 Design bestätigt werden. Darüber hinaus konnte es auch für das Ausmaß an Identifikation nachgewiesen werden. Die Teilnehmer sollten in dieser Studie fiktive Führungskräfte bewerten. Die Charakterisierung dieser Führungskräfte unterschied sich darin, ob sie von intern vs. extern kamen, also die Mitarbeiter schon länger führten oder nicht, und gruppenorientierte Werte vs. nicht-gruppenorientierte Werte verkörperten. Es zeigte sich erneut, dass Führungskräfte von ihren Mitarbeitern besonders positiv wahrgenommen und eingeschätzt werden, wenn sie diese schon länger führen und als Teil der Arbeitsgruppe angesehen werden. Wenn sie diese dagegen noch nicht lange führen und nicht als Teil der Arbeitsgruppe angesehen werden, werden sie von ihren Mitarbeitern signifikant schlechter wahrgenommen und eingeschätzt werden.

7. Gesamtdiskussion und Ausblick

In dieser Arbeit wurde ausgeführt, warum Wertesysteme Werte und Unwerte beinhalten und welche Auswirkungen die getrennte Betrachtung von Werten und Unwerten auf das menschliche Erleben und Verhalten in den Kontexten von Organisationen und Führungsprozessen hat. Im ersten Manuskript wurde gezeigt, dass sich die Unterscheidung von Werten und Unwerten aus sozial-, kognitions- und motivationspsychologischen Forschungsansätzen ableiten lässt. Im zweiten Manuskript wurde die Trennung von Werten und Unwerten empirisch belegt und ihre Auswirkungen auf die Wahrnehmung und Reaktionen von Mitarbeitern auf ihre Führungskräfte dargestellt. Im dritten Manuskript wurde gezeigt, dass besonders gruppenorientierte Werte von Mitarbeitern als ideal wahrgenommen werden und in Interaktion mit der Gruppenzugehörigkeit von Führungskräften ihr Erleben und Verhalten im Führungsprozess beeinflussen.

Der zentrale Beitrag dieser Dissertation liegt in der Erweiterung und Vertiefung des Verständnisses von Aufbau und Struktur von Werten und Wertesystemen (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992, 1994). Darüber hinaus konnte gezeigt werden, dass beide Werteorientierungen in den Kontexten von Organisationen und Führungsprozessen unabhängig voneinander eine zentrale Rolle spielen. Da in den einzelnen Manuskripten die theoretischen und praktischen Implikationen dieser Erkenntnisse und ihre Stärken und Limitationen bereits diskutiert worden sind, erfolgt im Folgenden eine kritische Betrachtung dieser Arbeit.

Alle Manuskripte dieser Dissertation veranschaulichen die große Bedeutung, die die Unterscheidung von Werten und Unwerten hat (siehe Van Quaquebeke et al., 2010). In den Kontexten von Organisationen und Führungsprozessen ist beispielsweise davon auszugehen, dass die persönlichen Wertesysteme unterschiedlicher Zielgruppen wie Führungskräfte und ihre Mitarbeiter große Auswirkungen auf die Gestaltung der organisationalen Kultur und von

Führungsprozessen haben: Die individuelle Bedeutung unterschiedlicher Wertorientierungen beeinflusst das menschliche Erleben und Verhalten und damit zum Beispiel Einstellungen gegenüber Erfolg und Leistung sowie unterschiedliche Arbeitsstrategien und Arbeitsstile (siehe Meglino & Ravlin, 1998; Verplanken & Holland, 2002). Darüber hinaus wirken sie sich auf die Setzung und Verfolgung verschiedener Ziele und die Arbeitsmotivation aus und beeinflussen die Art und Weise, mit Rückmeldungen und Rückschlägen umzugehen (Maio, Pakizeh, Cheung, & Rees, 2009). Dadurch haben beide Wertorientierungen eine große Bedeutung für die Kontexte von Organisationen und Führungsprozessen. Darüber hinaus lässt sich einmal mehr feststellen, wie groß der Einfluss von Werten und Wertesystemen auf das menschliche Erleben und Verhalten ist (siehe Hitlin, 2003; Hitlin & Piliavin, 2004; Rokeach, 1973, 1975; Schwartz, 1992, 1994).

Die Trennung von Werten und Unwerten stellt einen weiteren Schritt in der Erforschung von Wertesystemen und ihren Einfluss auf das menschliche Erleben und Verhalten dar. So hat sich in der Vergangenheit beispielsweise immer wieder gezeigt, dass sich nicht alle Werte des Circumplex-Modells gleichermaßen dazu eignen, die Wahrnehmung und Reaktionen von Menschen vorhersagen zu können (siehe Bardi & Schwartz, 2003; Schwartz & Bardi, 2001). Die Unterscheidung von Werten und Unwerten erweist sich dabei als ein erster Schritt, um den Aufbau und die Struktur von Wertesystemen verstehen und dadurch menschliches Erleben und Verhalten besser nachvollziehen und erklären zu können. Damit markiert diese Arbeit den Auftakt einer vielversprechenden Forschungsagenda, die sich mit den Effekten von beiden Wertorientierungen auf die Wahrnehmung und Reaktionen unterschiedlicher Personen, Gruppen und Organisationen befassen sollte.

Wertesysteme wirken sich in unterschiedlichen Kontexten auf das Erleben und Verhalten von Personen unterschiedlich aus (siehe Maio et al., 2003; Rohan, 2000). Deshalb sollten die Erkenntnisse dieser Dissertation in weiteren Untersuchungen auch auf andere Kontexte übertragen und nachgewiesen werden. Dabei ist vor allem die Frage von Interesse, ob

bestimmte Wertorientierungen die Wahrnehmung und Reaktionen unterschiedlicher Personen im Allgemeinen beeinflussen oder in Abhängigkeit spezifischer Kontexte wirken. Obwohl Werte und Wertesysteme über unterschiedliche Kontexte und Situationen hinweg zeitlich stabil und unabhängig sind, sind sie für spezifische Einflüsse aus persönlich bedeutsamen Kontexten offen (Maio et al., 2003). In weiteren Untersuchungen sollten diejenigen Kontexte ausfindig gemacht werden, in denen Werte und Unwerte jeweils wirken. Darüber hinaus sollte sich in zukünftigen Studien darauf konzentriert werden, wie sich Werte und Unwerte in unterschiedlichen Kontexten in Relation zueinander auf unterschiedliche Personen, Gruppen und Organisationen auswirken. Wie in dem dritten Manuskript bereits geschehen, sollten beide Wertorientierungen dabei auch getrennt voneinander betrachtet werden.

Dabei ist es vor allem wichtig, die Kausalwirkungen von Unwerten nachzuweisen. Darüber hinaus ist die Frage nach potenziellen Moderatoren ihrer Wirkungsweise von Interesse. Im dritten Manuskript konnte bereits gezeigt werden, dass die Gruppenzugehörigkeit einer Führungskraft Einfluss auf die Reaktionen ihrer Mitarbeiter hat. In weiteren Studien sollten Moderatorvariable gefunden werden, die auf beide Wertorientierungen Einfluss nehmen. So ist beispielsweise anzunehmen, dass der Führungsstil der Führungskraft moderierend auf die Effekte von Werten und Unwerten wirkt (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003; Klein et al., 2011).

Da sich die Studien dieser Arbeit nur in den Kontexten von Organisationen und Führungsprozessen bewegen, die Wahrnehmungen und Reaktionen von Mitarbeitern auf ihre Führungskräfte untersucht haben, wäre es vorschnell, ihre Ergebnisse für repräsentativ zu erklären. Deshalb sollten weitere Untersuchungen durchgeführt werden, die sich auch in anderen Kontexten bewegen, um den spezifischen Einfluss von Werten und Unwerten verallgemeinern zu können. Im ersten Manuskript konnte bereits veranschaulicht werden, dass sich Werte wahrscheinlich eher in Kontexten und Situationen auswirken, in denen der

persönliche Fokus von Personen auf Promotion liegt, während sich Unwerte wahrscheinlich eher in Kontexten und Situationen auswirken, in denen der Fokus auf Prävention liegt.

Des Weiteren wurde in den Studien dieser Dissertation ausschließlich der „Portrait Values Questionnaire“ (PVQ) als Messinstrument verwendet, um Werte und Unwerte getrennt voneinander nachweisen zu können. In Ergänzung wäre es wichtig, beide Wertorientierungen auch mithilfe andere expliziter Messinstrumente wie dem „Schwartz Value Survey“ (SVS) (Schwartz, 1992) oder impliziter Methoden wie den „Implicit Association Test“ (IAT) (Greenwald, McGhee, & Schwartz, 1998) zu verwenden. Darüber hinaus basieren die zentralen Annahmen und Erkenntnisse dieser Arbeit ausschließlich auf dem Circumplex-Modell. Im ersten Manuskript konnte veranschaulicht werden, warum das Modell sowohl Werte als auch Unwerte enthält. Ergänzend wäre es bedeutsam, wenn sich die Trennung von Werten und Unwerten auch mit anderen Theorien und Modellen, beispielsweise nach Hofstede (1980, 2001), Chatman und Kollegen (Chatman, 1989; O'Reilly et al., 1991) oder Quinn (1988; Quinn & Rohrbauch, 1983) herleiten und belegen lässt.

Des Weiteren wurden in den Studien dieser Arbeit ausschließlich leistungsunabhängige Maße verwendet, um die Reaktionen der Mitarbeiter auf ihre Führungskräfte zu erheben. Um das Ausmaß an Einfluss von Werten und Unwerten, gerade in den Kontexten von Organisationen und Führungsprozessen, bestimmen zu können, sollten aber auch leistungsabhängige Maße wie Bewertungen zu ihrer Fluktuation oder den Umsatzzahlen eingesetzt werden.

Werte und Unwerte wirken sich vor allem dann auf das menschliche Erleben und Verhalten aus, wenn sie in Kongruenz oder Inkongruenz zueinander stehen (Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Meglino & Ravlin, 1998; Verquer et al., 2003). Im Allgemeinen zeigt sich, dass der Grad an Kongruenz zwischen Mitarbeitern und Organisationen oder Führungskräften zu einer erhöhten Arbeitszufriedenheit oder Arbeitsleistung führt. Dabei werden die Zusammenhänge zwischen persönlichen und organisationalen Werten und Wertesystemen als zentraler Bestandteil von Kongruenz verstanden (z.B. Chatman, 1989, 1991; Kristof-Brown et

al., 2005; Schneider, 1987). Im zweiten Manuskript konnte bereits nachgewiesen werden, dass sich Werte und Unwerte in Kongruenz oder Inkongruenz zwischen Führungskräften und ihren Mitarbeitern unterschiedlich auf die Wahrnehmungen und Reaktionen von Mitarbeitern auswirken. Dafür wurden im ersten Manuskript die ersten theoretischen Grundlagen gelegt. Zukünftige Studien sollten sich aber genauer mit den Antezedenzen und Konsequenzen von Kongruenz und Inkongruenz zwischen persönlichen Werten und Unwerten befassen. Da in den Studien dieser Dissertation darüber hinaus nur Mitarbeiter befragt worden sind, wäre es von großer Bedeutung, in zukünftigen Untersuchungen unterschiedliche Zielgruppen (z.B. Führungskräfte und Mitarbeiter) getrennt voneinander zu untersuchen. Darüber hinaus wurde das Wirken beider Werteorientierungen in dieser Arbeit nur auf individueller Ebene betrachtet. Eine Analyse von Werten und Unwerten sollte aber auch auf organisationaler Ebene erfolgen, da sich Wertesysteme auf dieser Ebene von individuellen Wertesystemen unterscheiden und sich Analysen in Abhängigkeit der Ebene unterscheiden (siehe Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Ostroff, 1993; Ostroff & Rothausen, 1997). Des Weiteren sollte diese Analyse in Bezug auf andere leistungsunabhängige und -abhängige Maße erfolgen, beispielsweise das organisationale Klima oder die organisationale Effektivität.

8. Publikationsübersicht

8.1 Werte und Unwerte: Einführung und Untersuchung von zwei distinkten Kräften in der organisationalen Werteforschung (*Manuskript 1*)

Original:

Graf, M. M., Van Quaquebeke, N., Kerschreiter, R., & van Dick, R. (*revised and resubmitted*).
Ideal and counter-ideal values: Exploring two distinct forces in organizational value research.
International Journal of Management Reviews.

Zusammenfassung:

Wertesysteme beinhalten nicht nur Werte, sondern auch Unwerte. Während Werte normative Standards und Ziele darstellen, nach denen sich Personen bewusst richten, verkörpern Unwerte normative Standards und Ziele, von denen sie sich bewusst nicht leiten lassen. Beide Werteorientierungen wirken unabhängig voneinander und beeinflussen Menschen gleichermaßen in ihrem Erleben und Verhalten. Die psychologische Forschung geht aber bisher davon aus, dass Wertesysteme nur Werte beinhalten. Nach ersten Hinweisen auf die Trennung von beiden Werteorientierungen (Van Quaquebeke et al., 2010) beschäftigt sich diese Arbeit mit der theoretischen Herleitung der Unterscheidung. Dabei werden Belege aus unterschiedlichen psychologischen Theorien herangezogen und auf die Trennung angewendet. Darüber hinaus werden Konsequenzen für die Theorie und Praxis aufgezeigt und in einer umfangreichen Forschungsagenda zusammengefasst.

8.2 Werte und Unwerte von Führungskräften und ihr Einfluss auf die Ausmaße an Respekt und Identifikation ihrer Mitarbeiter (*Manuskript 2*)

Original:

Graf, M. M., Van Quaquebeke, N., & van Dick, R. (*in press*). Two independent value orientations: Ideal and counter-ideal leader values and their impact on followers' respect for and identification with their leaders.

Journal of Business Ethics. doi: 10.1007/s10551-011-0897-7.

Zusammenfassung:

Erste Studien haben zeigen können, dass Wertesysteme nicht nur Werte, sondern auch Unwerte beinhalten (Van Quaquebeke et al., 2010). Beide Werteorientierungen wirken unabhängig voneinander und beeinflussen Menschen gleichermaßen in ihrem Erleben und Verhalten. In den bisherigen Studien sind aber wenig elaborierte Messinstrumente verwendet worden. Darüber hinaus haben Van Quaquebeke und Kollegen (2010) in ihren Studien dazu aufgerufen, die Effekte von Werten und Unwerten in weitere Studien zu untersuchen. In zwei Feldstudien ($N_1 = 131$ und $N_2 = 136$) konnte gezeigt werden, dass die Trennung von Werten und Unwerten auch mit der Verwendung etablierter Messinstrumente nachgewiesen werden kann. Darüber hinaus konnte nachgewiesen werden, dass beide Werteorientierungen gleichermaßen Einfluss auf die Wahrnehmung von Führungskräften durch ihre Mitarbeiter haben und sich auf das Ausmaß an Identifikation und Respekt mit den Führungskräften auswirken. Implikationen dieser Ergebnisse für die Theorie und Praxis werden diskutiert.

8.3 Das Verhältnis von gruppenorientierten Werten der Führungskraft und den Reaktionen ihrer Mitarbeiter: Die moderierende Rolle der Gruppenzugehörigkeit der Führungskraft (*Manuskript 3*)

Original:

Graf, M. M.*, Schuh, S. C.*, Van Quaquebeke, N., & van Dick, R. (*in press*). The relationship between leaders' group oriented values and follower identification with and endorsement of leaders: The moderating role of leaders' group membership.

Journal of Business Ethics. doi: 10.1007/s10551-011-0997-4.

Zusammenfassung:

Studien zur Effektivität von Führungskräften und dem Führungsprozess zeigen immer wieder, dass Führungskräfte, die sich gruppenorientiert verhalten, von ihren Mitarbeitern als effektiv und erfolgreich wahrgenommen werden (Yukl, 2010). Gruppenorientierte Werte liegen dabei gruppenorientierten Einstellungen und Verhaltensweisen zugrunde und werden als ideal wahrgenommen. Da Werte gegenüber Einstellungen und Verhaltensweisen stabiler sind, wurden in einer Feldstudie ($N_1 = 95$) und einer Szenariostudie ($N_2 = 137$) die Auswirkungen von gruppenorientierten Werten von internen und externen Führungskräften auf die Wahrnehmung und Evaluation ihrer Mitarbeiter untersucht. Es zeigte sich, dass interne Führungskräfte, die gruppenorientierte Werte verkörpern, am positivsten eingeschätzt und bewertet werden. Externe Führungskräfte, die sich nicht gruppenorientiert verhalten, werden dagegen am negativsten eingeschätzt. Die Gruppenmitgliedschaft der Führungskräfte (intern versus extern) wirkt dabei als Moderator ihrer Gruppenorientierung. Implikationen dieser Ergebnisse für die Theorie und Praxis werden diskutiert.

* *Equal Authorship*

9. Darstellung der eigenen Leistung

Manuskript 1:

Die Sichtung, Zusammenfassung und Einordnung der bestehenden Literatur, das Aufstellen der zentralen Hypothesen sowie das Verfassen des ersten Entwurfs und die Überarbeitung des Manuskripts wurden vollkommen eigenständig von mir durchgeführt.

Manuskript 2:

Die Planung, Entwicklung und Durchführung beider Studien wurde von mir im Rahmen von Online-Befragungen durchgeführt. Die Sichtung und Zusammenfassung der Literatur, das Aufstellen der zentralen Hypothesen, die Datenanalyse sowie das Verfassen des ersten Entwurfs und die Überarbeitung des Manuskripts wurden ebenfalls vollkommen eigenständig von mir übernommen.

Manuskript 3:

Die erste Studie wurde von Herrn Schuh in Absprache mit mir geplant, entwickelt und durchgeführt. Die Planung, Entwicklung und Durchführung der zweiten Studie wurde von mir im Rahmen einer Online-Befragung durchgeführt. Die Sichtung und Zusammenfassung der Literatur, das Aufstellen der zentralen Hypothesen, die Datenanalyse sowie das Verfassen des ersten Entwurfs wurden ebenfalls vollkommen eigenständig von mir übernommen. Die Überarbeitung des Manuskripts wurde von Herrn Schuh und mir gemeinsam durchgeführt.

Während der Verfassung und Überarbeitung der Manuskripte fand ein regelmäßiger Austausch zwischen den Koautoren, einschließlich Professor van Dick, und mir statt. Dabei wurde der Fortschritt der Arbeiten besprochen. Vor Einreichung der Manuskripte wurden

diese durch die Koautoren, einschließlich Professor van Dick, gelesen und kommentiert.

Diese Kommentare flossen in die Manuskripte ein.

10. Manuskripte

Manuskript 1

Graf, M. M., Van Quaquebeke, N., Kerschreiter, R., & van Dick, R. (*revised and resubmitted*).
Ideal and counter-ideal values: Exploring two distinct forces in organizational value research.
International Journal of Management Reviews.

**IDEAL VALUES AND COUNTER-IDEAL VALUES: EXPLORING TWO DISTINCT
FORCES IN ORGANIZATIONAL VALUE RESEARCH**

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IDEAL VALUES AND COUNTER-IDEAL VALUES: EXPLORING TWO DISTINCT FORCES IN ORGANIZATIONAL VALUE RESEARCH

ABSTRACT

Traditionally, research has conceptualized ideal values solely in terms of ideal goals people want to approach. However, recent findings suggest that people are also independently influenced by counter-ideal values, i.e. counter-ideal goals they want to avoid. The present review summarizes the various literatures and seeks to discern the theoretical underpinnings of both values by examining them from the perspective of existing psychological theories that have adopted a similar “two forces” perspective. Based on this review, a theoretical framework is developed for understanding the relevance of ideal values and counter-ideal values within the organizational context.

Keywords: Values, Value Systems, Ideal Values, Counter-Ideal Values, Person-Organization Fit, P-O Fit

EXPLORING TWO DISTINCT FORCES IN ORGANIZATIONAL VALUE RESEARCH

Values play a central role for organizations and organizational life. On the one hand, they are most often defined in mission statements and organizational guidelines and thus express what an organization's ideals and goals are. On the other hand, they affect the perceptions and evaluations of their members and hence influence their responses and reactions to the world around them. However, when taking a more in-depth look at values and their conceptualization, people and organizations only tend to view them as ideal goals that are desirable to approach (i.e., ideal values) (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992, 1994). For example, through mission statements and organizational guidelines, organizations typically express what they want to be or want to become. The question is, however, whether these statements and guidelines and their underlying value systems are capable of visualizing the organization's full identity, or whether there remain blind spots (see Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008). Recently, organizations have implicitly begun to shed light on these blind spots by adding counter-ideal goals that are desirable to avoid (i.e. counter-ideal values) to their mission statements and organizational guidelines. Whole Foods Market Inc., for example, is the world's largest retailer of natural and organic foods, with stores throughout North America and the United Kingdom. In their core value system and so-called "declaration of interdependence", the people at Whole Foods Market Inc. have integrated what they do not want to be (For example: "*We are buying agents for our customers and **not** the selling agents for the manufacturers.*") or do not want to be motivated by (For example: "*Customers are the primary motivation for our work – they are **not** an interruption of our work.*"). With this clear articulation of both goals that are worth approaching and goals that are worth avoiding, Whole Foods Market Inc. presents its identity more comprehensive and precise than other organizations and thus distinguishes itself from its competitors. Moreover, it shapes a powerful, yet visible organizational culture which attracts employees (Erickson & Gratton,

2007; Pfeiffer & Veiga, 1999). As such, Whole Foods Market Inc. has been ranked on Fortune magazine's 2011 list of the "*100 Best Companies to Work For*" for the 14th consecutive time and is one of only 13 organizations that have made it on the list every year since its inception.

The conceptualization of counter-ideal values and their incorporation into the core value systems is not a single phenomenon. Instead, it can be found in several companies throughout the world, e.g. Nomura Holdings Inc., Japan (For example: "*We are **not** afraid to continually challenge conventional wisdom and actively encourage change in order to pursue growth.*"), or Google Inc., United States of America (For example: "*We **never** manipulate rankings to put our partners higher in our search results and no one can buy better PageRank.*"). Moreover, initial empirical research by Van Quaquebeke and colleagues (2010) and Graf, Van Quaquebeke and van Dick (2011) showed that value systems consist indeed of two different systems, of which one appears to comprise ideal values and the other appears to comprise counter-ideal values. More importantly though, the authors provided evidence that ideal values and counter-ideal values are independent from each other and thus have distinct effects on people's perceptions and reactions.

Following Van Quaquebeke and colleagues (2010), we consider counter-ideal values as "*enduring beliefs that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially not preferable*" (p. 295), while we view ideal values as "*enduring beliefs that a specific conduct or end state of existence is personally or socially preferable*" (Rokeach, 1973, p. 5). Both values represent personal ideals and symbolize important goals: while ideal values represent goals that people desire to approach, counter-ideal values represent goals that people desire to avoid. However, until today, the phenomenon of counter-ideal values and their relationship to ideal values has neither gained broad scientific attention nor been theoretically explored yet. Value theorists consider values still as something positive that people and organizations simply want to achieve or accomplish (Roccas & Sagiv, 2010). This is

somehow noteworthy as many theorists, especially from the field of human motivation, have generally recognized two distinct forces underlying human perception and reactions (e.g., Carver & Scheier, 1981, 1990; Gray, 1981, 1987; Higgins, 1997, 1998). Thus, building upon a fundamental understanding of the nature of human values as a system (Schwartz, 1992, 1994), we propose a distinction between ideal values and counter-ideal values. Unlike the established conceptualization and measurement of values, however, we differentiate between ideal values as goals that energize approach behavior and counter-ideal values as goals that energize avoidance behavior.

This paper is organized in four paragraphs. First, we give a brief summary of the research on the nature of human values. After that we briefly review different theories of human motivation that differentiate between two forces. We then present our conceptualization of ideal values and counter-ideal values as goals that people either want to approach or to avoid and theorize on their implications for different contexts and Person-Organization fit. Finally, we point out implications and suggestions for future research as well as the organizational context.

THE NATURE OF HUMAN VALUES

The nature of human values has always been of great research interest. As a result, many different conceptualizations of values have been proposed and explored (see Maio, Olson, Bernard, & Luke, 2003; Rohan, 2000). Overall, researchers agree that values represent enduring beliefs or trans-situational goals that energize approach behavior (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992). Building on these views, research has shown that values operate as important bridging concepts between personality traits and attitudes (Olson & Maio, 2003; Yik & Tang, 1996) and are among the most important predictors of attitudes and behavior (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003; Maio & Olson, 1995; Rokeach, 1973). They differ from personality traits, because they are referred to when people wish to justify their actions as legitimate or

worthy (Roccas, Schwartz, & Knafo, 2002) and differ from attitudes, because they are able to transcend specific situations (Roccas & Sagiv, 2010).

Values are largely stable and resistant to change (Rokeach, 1985; Rokeach & Ball-Rokeach, 1989), but nevertheless sensitive to contextual influences (Maio & Olson, 1998). In general, it is assumed that values function as ideal guidelines for human cognition, emotion, and behavior, and constitute a fundamental basis of human perception and reactions. Thus, they contribute to individuals' senses of personal and social identity and influence their thoughts, feelings, and actions (Maio et al., 2003).

While values have been described in many different ways, one of the most prominent conceptualizations stems from Rokeach (1973). This definition suggests that values refer to individuals as well as groups and emphasizes that they are rooted in people's cognitions. Moreover, this it regards values as stable, because they are learned in an absolute manner: people are taught to accept values without questioning (see Maio & Olson, 1998).

Another prominent conceptualization of human values was developed by Schwartz (1992, 1994), who proposed a circumplex model of the universal structure of values. Schwartz (1994) defines values as “*desirable trans-situational goals, varying in importance, that serve as guiding principles in the life of a person or other social entity*” (p. 21). Specifically, he argues that values speak to three universal requirements of human existence: individuals' needs as biological organisms, requisites of coordinated social interactions, and groups' survival needs. According to Schwartz, these needs become enshrined in values that express ten different value types: achievement, benevolence, conformity, hedonism, power, security, self-direction, stimulation, tradition, and universalism. These value types can be plotted in a circumplex structure and form four value types of higher-order: self-transcendence, conservation, self-enhancement, and openness to change. These higher-order types, in turn, represent two bipolar dimensions of value conflict that cut orthogonally through the circumplex model: one dimension contrasts conservation values with openness to

change values, whereas the other contrasts self-enhancement values with self-transcendence values. This structure has been extensively studied and replicated using data from over 200 samples in more than 70 countries (Schwartz, 2006).

A central aspect of the circumplex model is the proposed structure of relations among the different value types. According to Schwartz (1994, p. 23), “*the pursuit of each type of values has psychological, practical, and social consequences that may be congruent or incongruent with the pursuit of other value types*”. Thus, their circular structure portrays the pattern of relations of congruence and incongruence between human values. Congruent values lie next to each other in the circle, whereas incongruent values lie in the opposite direction to each other. Schwartz’s conceptualization holds it that the entire circle of values constitutes a bipolar motivational continuum: “*The further away around the circle any two values are located, the more dissimilar the motivations they express*” (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003, p. 1208). Evidence for the circular structure of this model has been provided, for example, by Schwartz (1992) who showed that values that lie next to each other in the circumplex model tend to be positively correlated, whereas values that lie opposite to each other tend to be either uncorrelated or negatively correlated. Moreover, it has been widely recognized that the relationships among different values predict related attitudes and behaviors (Roccas & Sagiv, 2010). These relations often seem to follow a sinusoidal pattern: while certain values increase the activation of congruent attitudes and behaviors, incongruent attitudes and behaviors tend to decrease at the same time (see Sagiv & Schwartz, 1995; Schwartz & Huismans, 1995). Roccas, Schwartz and Amit (2010) showed, for example, that the manipulation of specific values either increases or decreases the salience and magnitude of national identification. Additionally, Maio and colleagues (2009) found that the activation of certain values generally increases related actions, while unrelated actions simultaneously decrease (see also Maio, 2010). Thus, in summary, research provided substantial evidence that values have been proven to have causal impact on peoples’ perceptions and reactions and are among the most

important predictors for individual attitudes and behaviors (Roccas & Sagiv, 2010; Sagiv, Sverdlik, & Schwarz, 2011; Verplanken & Holland, 2002).

The most notable feature of the motivational continuum, however, is that it is only supposed to consist of values that people want to achieve or accomplish, i.e. approach, through appropriate behaviors (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003). Values are typically conceptualized as inherently desirable (Roccas & Sagiv, 2010). Thus, they are usually thought of as representing desirable goals and to reflect what people consider as ideal (Rokeach, 1973). This means that values are only assumed to differ in their personal importance, but not in their motivational direction (Roccas & Sagiv, 2010; Schwartz, 1992, 1994).

Theoretically, only few researchers have thought about the possibility that value systems could additionally consist of values that people do not want to achieve or accomplish, i.e. avoid through certain behaviors. Yet, these approaches remained rather vague and ambiguous, instead of providing a clear conceptualization of counter-ideal values: Aavik and Allik (2006), for example, conceptualized positive and negative values and showed that both are distinct from each other. Unfortunately, however, they did not provide suggestions for their conceptual integration into value systems. Instead, they stated that the hypothesized *“bidimensionality of positive and negative values still needs further investigation”* (p. 186). Van Dijk and Kluger (2004) showed that some values of the circumplex model are supposed to represent promotion goals, whereas others are assumed to represent prevention goals. Although both types of goals are supposed to be distinct from each other, however, the authors could not provide a convincing explanation how their bidimensionality fits into the bipolar motivational continuum provided by Schwartz (1994) and noted that this issue was *“beyond the scope of this research”* (Kluger & Van Dijk, 2005, p. 6).

In fact, until today, nobody has provided a clear conceptual framework for the existence and function of counter-ideal values and their integration into value systems. Empirically, however, researchers have already provided strong support for their existence in

organizational contexts. In a series of three studies, Van Quaquebeke and colleagues (2010) showed that ideal values and counter-ideal values are distinctive constructs and that both value systems independently influenced employees' levels of satisfaction and identification with their leaders. Graf and colleagues (2011) replicated these results and additionally showed that both value systems had also influenced employees' level of openness towards their leaders' influence. Most noteworthy, Graf and colleagues conceptualized ideal values and counter-ideal values by using the circumplex model of Schwartz (1994): they had participants complete the "*Portraits Value Questionnaire*" (PVQ) which measures the different value types of the circumplex model (Schwartz et al., 2001). Participants were asked to rate the portraits of three different persons: their ideal leader, their counter-ideal leader and their actual leader. Then, the authors built difference scores between the ideal leader and the actual leader as well as the counter-ideal leader and the actual leader. Across two studies, their results indicated that both difference scores had distinct impact on employees' perceptions of and reactions towards their leaders. However, the findings also provided first evidence that value systems consist of ideal values and counter-ideal values as two distinct value systems.

Before we describe the theoretical foundation of the empirical findings and present our conceptualization of ideal values and counter-ideal values, however, we briefly review selected theories on human motivation, because we find their theoretical assumptions and practical implications to be fruitful for our conceptualization of ideal values and counter-ideal values and the extension of value theory. We especially consider the assumptions and implications of regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997, 1998) to be essential for the derivation of our propositions, because both theories rely on the importance of values for human perceptions and reactions.

THE DISTINCTION BETWEEN TWO DISTINCT FORCES WITHIN HUMAN MOTIVATION AND THEIR RELEVANCE FOR ORGANIZATIONAL CONTEXTS

The concept of two distinct forces underlying human perception and reactions is not novel in psychological research, not even in organizational context. Rather, it appears to surface in research frequently as a subsequent notion after unidimensional constructs have been established. As we will line out below, the notion of two forces almost seems fundamental to human nature as most individuals experience both forces to underlie their perceptions and reactions distinctively. Many researchers indeed argue that the distinction between positive and negative forces underlies basic structural dimensions of personality (Carver, Sutton, & Scheier, 2000). In particular, this idea has a long tradition in the human motivation literature and beyond (for an overview, see Elliot, 2008).

The central tenant of theories in this realm is that two independent motivational systems form the core of affective and behavioral regulation. The first motivational system has been termed the appetitive system or behavioral activation system (BAS) and motivates movement towards specific goals. It is activated by external or internal signals of reward. The second motivational system has been termed the aversive system or behavioral inhibition system (BIS) and inhibits movement towards specific goals. It is activated by signals of non-reward, punishment or novelty (Cloninger, 1987; Fowles, 1988; Gray, 1981, 1987). Both systems operate as guiding principles affecting how people perceive and react towards their environment. Indeed, it has been argued that they are functionally independent and thus underlie distinct affective qualities and behavioral reactions (Carver & White, 1994) as well as distinct dimensions of personality (Carver et al., 2000).

Variants of this notion can, for instance, also be found in control theory (Campion & Lord, 1982) or self-regulation theory (Carver & Scheier, 1998, 1999). According to these theories, human motivation arises from the interaction of two distinct self-regulating feedback systems (Powers, 1973). It follows that human behavior consists of continuous attempts to align individual perceptions and evaluations of environmental stimuli to desired goals (Carver et al., 2000). The distinction between discrepancy-reducing loops and discrepancy-increasing

loops is in that sense similar to the distinction between the BAS and the BIS. Importantly, the two distinct feedback loops correlate with the experience of distinct affect qualities.

According to Carver and Scheier (1998), these qualities represent two distinct bipolar dimensions of affective experience. Thus, the experience of positive emotions can either arise from reaching a goal or from avoiding an anti-goal. Likewise, the experience of negative emotions can either arise from failure to reach a goal or from reaching an anti-goal.

The second major bodies of theory that rely on approach and avoidance tendencies are referred to as self-discrepancy theory and regulatory focus theory (Higgins 1997, 1998).

According to these theories, individuals regulate their thoughts, feelings, and behaviors to maintain or change their actual self through the comparison with a particular reference self. Self-discrepancy theory specifies that the process of self-regulation occurs with respect to at least two distinct types of reference points: ideal self-guides and ought self-guides. Ideals are qualities that individuals desire to attain, whereas oughts are qualities that individuals feel obligated to attain. Thus, self-guides can function as both standards as well as desirable or non-desirable end-states (Boldero & Francis, 2002; Newman, Higgins, & Vookles, 1992). Ideals and oughts are distinct because they represent qualitatively different psychological situations. Ideal self-guides motivate the attainment of positive outcomes, whereas ought self-guides motivate the avoidance of negative outcomes (Robbins & Boldero, 2003). It follows that individual self-discrepancies reflect perceived differences between one's actual self and one's self-guides. Discrepancies between the actual self and an ideal self-guide reflect the absence of positive outcomes and result in a promotion focus, whereas discrepancies between the actual self and an ought self-guide reflect the presence of negative outcomes and result in a prevention focus (Higgins, 1997, 1998). Each focus has different consequences for perception, decision making, and emotions, as well as for individuals' behavior and performance (Higgins, 1997, 1998).

Regulatory focus theory can be thought of as one of the most comprehensive motivation theories, since its conceptualization seems to comprise primary elements of human motivation. The implications that can be derived from its core assumptions are especially noteworthy, because the suggestion of two different pathways for achieving desired end-states, both varying in their magnitude and importance, is of central concern (Higgins, 1997, 1998).

Approach and avoidance tendencies have also been found to be important explanatory factors for several processes in the organizational context. It is generally recognized, for example, that people tend to have a dispositional preference for one tendency over the other. Moreover, it is known that different contexts can evoke different motivational tendencies. Thus, approach and avoidance have been found to influence processes such as leadership and leader behavior (Bono & Ilies, 2006; Ilies, Judge, & Wagner, 2006; Kark & Van Dijk, 2007), employee reactions (Ilies & Judge, 2005; Richer, Blanchard, & Vallerand, 2002; Van Dijk & Kluger, 2004), and person-organization fit (Brockner & Higgins, 2001). Especially, regulatory focus theory has been found to be highly relevant for a variety of affective and behavioral processes and reactions in the organizational context (Brockner & Higgins, 2001). It is generally recognized that promotion focus leads to creative behavior, speed and an eagerness tendency, whereas prevention focus leads to conservative behavior, accuracy and a vigilance tendency (Förster, Higgins, & Bianco, 2003; Kluger & Van Dijk, 2005). Thus, regulatory foci appear to have unique effects on individuals' performance, for example, because they evoke different goal-striving strategies. According to Johnson, Chang and Yang (2010), prevention focus is associated with a concern for avoiding mistakes, because failures at work are seen as costly and ominous. Such a concern causes prevention-focused employees to work rather slowly and to be diligent. Promotion-focused employees, on the other hand, adopt an eagerness strategy that emphasizes speed because they are rather concerned with goal accomplishment than accuracy (Förster et al., 2003). Thus, promotion focus tends to have stronger and favorable effects on performance, because pursuing approach goals specifies

what should be done to approach accomplishment, whereas pursuing avoidance goals specifies what should not be done to avoid failure (Carver & Scheier, 1998). Applying these tendencies to different settings in the organizational context, regulatory foci have been found to account for important processes, such as information processing (Aaker & Lee, 2001), decision making (Crowe & Higgins, 1997), feedback (Van Dijk & Kluger, 2004) or goal-setting (Latham & Pinder, 2005; Roe, 1999). Thus, it can be concluded that people's perceptions and reactions at work are profoundly affected by the differences in the nature and magnitude of their motivational tendencies (see Brockner & Higgins, 2001).

Values are recognized to constitute a motivational continuum and influence motivational tendencies. Yet, only few researchers have thought about the obvious possibility that value systems could comprise two distinct kinds of values, i.e. values that energize approach behavior and values that energize avoidance behavior. However, the portrayal of the different theories on human motivation makes it somehow obvious that two distinct forces are fundamentally underlying individuals' types and levels of motivation and their perceptions and reactions respectively. Thus, in the next paragraphs, we lay down our propositions considering the conceptual distinction between ideal values and counter-ideal values and point out their impact on individuals as well as organizations. In doing so, we especially rely on notions from self-regulatory theory.

THE DISTINCTION BETWEEN IDEAL VALUES AND COUNTER-IDEAL VALUES

It is generally recognized that the structure of human values resembles the structure of human motivation. In fact, researchers tend to view values as strong regulatory goals (i.e. desirable end-states) and thus directly relate them to regulatory focus theory and regulatory foci (e.g. Kark & Van Dijk, 2007; Lord & Brown, 2001). However, until today, values have only been recognized to affect the valence of approach behavior (Feather, 1994, 1995). Thus, people were thought to be largely influenced by positive values and to act in ways that promote the attainment of these ideals (Roccas & Sagiv, 2010; Roccas, et al., 2002). However,

theories of human motivation, including regulatory focus theory, clearly distinguish between two distinct kinds of goals: those that elicit approach behavior and those that elicit avoidance behavior (Higgins, 1998). We do not think that the current conceptualization of positive values can energize avoidance behavior, since positive values serve as transsituational goals that are believed to be ideal end-states, i.e. ideal values. Rather, we assume that avoidance behavior is energized by negative values that serve as transsituational goals that are believed to be counter-ideal end-states, i.e. counter-ideal values. Thus, people are additionally influenced by negative values and act in ways that prevent the attainment of counter-ideals (see Graf et al., 2011; Van Quaquebeke et al., 2010).

Just like approach and avoidance tendencies have generally been found to be comprised in two distinct motivational systems, we believe that ideal values and counter-ideal values form two independent value systems. This means that value systems ultimately consist of two distinct systems that do not just constitute a bipolar motivational continuum. Rather, ideal values and counter-ideal values build two distinct continuums that influence people's perceptions and reactions in general life, specific contexts and different situations. Thus, we fundamentally view value systems as multidimensional. However, unlike recent conceptualizations (Liberman, et al., 1999; Van Dijk & Kluger, 2004), we do not assume that specific values of the circumplex model exclusively underlie either approach tendencies or avoidance tendencies. Rather, we assume that it depends on dispositional preferences if a value rather serves as an ideal value or a counter-ideal value, i.e. we believe that every value of the circumplex model can theoretically function as both an ideal value and a counter-ideal value. For example, some people might generally get energized to approach power values, while others might generally get energized to avoid power values. This view does neither oppose the general notion that certain values promote specific behaviors while preventing other behaviors associated with opposing values in the circumplex model (see Verplanken & Holland, 2002; Roccas, et al., 2010) nor does it oppose the notion that certain values correlate

positively with specific behaviors while correlating negatively with other behaviors (see Roccas et al., 2002). Rather, our perspective adds to these notions by stating that value systems should be conceptualized in terms of two distinct systems that have independent influence on people's perceptions and reactions.

Support for the conceptual distinction between ideal values and counter-ideal values is provided by empirical research by Van Quaquebeke and colleagues (2010) and Graf and colleagues (2011) presented above. Especially the studies by Graf and colleagues are noteworthy, because the authors were able to demonstrate that the circumplex model provided by Schwartz (1994) indeed consists of two distinct systems one being comprised of ideal values and one being comprised of counter-ideal values. In addition, in their lexical analysis, Aavik and Allik (2006) had participants rate if positive and negative values were either important to aspire or important to avoid. They showed that negative values neither form conceptually opposite dimensions nor mirror positive values. Thus, the authors concluded that both values form two opposite domains that are not completely independent, but build two single factors. In conclusion, based on our theoretical assumptions and the empirical findings, we propose:

Proposition 1: Ideal values and counter-ideal values represent two theoretically and empirically distinguishable value systems.

Proposition 1a: Ideal values serve as goals that underlie a promotion focus and energize approach behavior.

Proposition 1b: Counter-ideal values serve as goals that underlie a prevention focus and energize avoidance behavior.

CONTEXTUAL CONSTRAINTS ON THE IMPORTANCE OF IDEAL VALUES AND COUNTER-IDEAL VALUES

The existence of ideal values and counter-ideal values does by no means imply that both affect individuals' perceptions and reactions to the same degree all the time. In fact, we

believe that ideal values and counter-ideal values do not only vary in their dispositional preference, but also in their individual importance. Thus, they are supposed to be hierarchically structured. Moreover, we assume that the importance of ideal values and counter-ideal values varies due to contextual constraints. To explain their contextual influence, we consider further insights from regulatory focus theory. After that, we draw our conclusions for ideal values and counter-ideal values.

Research on regulatory focus theory usually conceptualizes regulatory focus as a stable personality variable and argues that people have a chronic regulatory disposition toward a promotion focus or a prevention focus. However, regulator focus theory also states that promotion and prevention focus vary contextually, positing that certain salient contextual characteristics evoke either one focus or the other temporarily through priming ideal or ought cues or framing ideal or ought contexts (Brockner & Higgins, 2001). Thus, for example, thoughts about duties and obligations can induce a temporary state of a prevention focus, whereas thoughts about ideals and aspirations can induce a temporary state of a promotion focus. Research suggests that a situational prevention focus evokes a state of vigilance that seeks to avoid failure or mistakes (i.e. due to salient counter-ideal values) (see Crowe & Higgins, 1997), whereas a situational promotion focus encourages a state of eagerness that is open to the creation and invention of new possibilities (i.e. due to salient ideal values) (see Liberman et al., 1999; Friedman & Förster, 2001). Whether people adopt either a promotion focus or a prevention focus is thus a function of dispositional as well as or contextual factors.

Contextual regulatory foci have also been found to be evoked in organizational contexts. According to Brockner and Higgins (2001), contextual variables such as the organizational reward system or its culture are also likely to prime or frame the regulatory focus (see also Neubert et al., 2008; Wallace & Chen, 2006; Wallace, Johnson, & Frazier, 2009). Neubert and colleagues (2008) showed that the leadership style of a supervisor temporarily evokes his or her employees' situational regulatory foci. Furthermore, it can be

assumed that any organizational context that primes or frames ideal cues, is likely to evoke promotion focus and approach behaviors, while any context that primes or frames ought cues, is likely to evoke prevention focus and avoiding behaviors.

Given that ideal values and counter-ideal values serve as distinct goals that are supposed to determine people's motivational tendencies, we assume that both values also vary in their individual importance and are open to different contextual influences. Thus, ideal values and counter-ideal values are supposed to be contextually contingent, i.e. salient in a specific context (see Roccas & Sagiv, 2010; Sagiv & Schwartz, 1995; Sagiv, et. al, 2011).

Liberman and colleagues (1999) stated, that promotion-evoked contexts generally lead to a sensitivity towards positive outcomes and an inclination to approach matches with desired end-states, whereas prevention-evoked contexts lead to a sensitivity towards negative outcomes and an inclination towards avoid matches with non-desired end-states. Accordingly, we argue that the former type of contexts evoke ideal values, i.e. values that energize approach behavior, where the latter type of situations or contexts evoke counter-ideal values, i.e. values that energize avoidance behavior. Schwartz (2009) confirmed that different values contribute to different behaviors to the extent that they are contextually relevant and likely to be activated (see also Bardi & Schwartz, 2003). Moreover, it has been shown that the importance and strengths of values vary due to their contextual salience (see Sagiv et al., 2011; Roccas & Sagiv, 2010). Thus, Seligman and Katz (1996) generally argued for another perspective on value systems. They propose that people simultaneously hold multiple value systems, and that the salience of certain values depends on the context. Their model predicts that people will rank or rate different values differently depending on whether they are asked to consider their value systems according to general guiding principles or with regard to specific contexts. The authors showed, for example, that people hold distinct value systems for different self-states, such as the ideal self (i.e. ideal values) and the ought self (i.e. counter-ideal values). This notion thus suggests that ideal values and counter-ideal values take on

varying degrees of salience in relation to specific contexts. Moreover, Seligman and Katz (1996) suppose that this notion even fits into the circumplex model proposed by Schwartz (1992, 1994): they assume that the multiple value systems can be still summarized under a general circumplex structure and are simply reorganized depending on different contexts.

Considering the organizational context, we believe that especially the organizational reward system and its culture (i.e. organizational value system) account for such distinct contextual cues. Roccas and Sagiv (2010) noted that culture affects peoples' value systems because it provides a shared meaning system that determines socialization processes and encompasses the communication of shared values and behavioral expectations (see also Fisher, 2009; Leung & van de Vijver, 2008). Thus, it determines the social context in which people's value systems operate. Elsbach and Bhattacharya (2001) stated that organizational cultures consist of both values that people actively identify with (i.e. ideal values), and values that people actively disidentify with (i.e. counter-ideal values). According to the authors, the perception of the former leads to an active integration into the organization, i.e. the display of a promotion focus and the approach of desirable goals, whereas the latter leads to an active separation from the organization, i.e. the display of a prevention focus and the avoidance of non-desirable goals (Bhattacharya, Rao, & Glynn, 1997; Brown & Williams, 1984). We assume that especially organizations that provide a dynamic and promotion-oriented context (i.e. contexts that provide autonomy and independence as well excitement, novelty, and challenge) are likely to evoke individuals' ideal values. In contrast, organizations that provide a stable and prevention-oriented context (i.e. contexts that provide safety and stability as well as restraint of actions and inclinations) are likely to evoke individuals' counter-ideal values. In general, we can thus propose:

Proposition 2: Ideal values and counter-ideal values are contextually sensitive.

Proposition 2a: Promotion-oriented contexts (i.e. contexts that provide autonomy and independence as well excitement, novelty, and challenge) evoke ideal values.

Proposition 2b: Prevention-oriented contexts (i.e. contexts that provide safety and stability as well as restraint of actions and inclinations) evoke counter-ideal values.

THE IMPLICATIONS OF IDEAL VALUES AND COUNTER-IDEAL VALUES FOR PERSON-ORGANIZATION FIT

In the previous sections, we presented our propositions concerning the conceptual differentiation between ideal values and counter-ideal values and their independent effects on people's perceptions and reactions. Moreover, we stated that both values are likely to be contextually sensitive. However, ideal values and counter-ideal values are also supposed to affect the level of congruence between different value systems. Specifically, in the following section, we present our propositions concerning the implications of ideal values and counter-ideal values for person-organization fit (P-O fit).

Especially, in organizational context, research on value congruence has become the widely accepted definition of P-O fit (Kristof, 1996; Verquer, Beehr, & Wagner, 2003; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). One of the most prominent conceptualizations stems from Chatman (1989) who defines P-O fit as "*the congruence between the norms and values of organizations and the values of persons*" (p. 339). Whereas individuals' values guide their perceptions and behaviors, organizational value systems provide norms that specify how organizational resources should be allocated and how organizational members should behave. In this sense, value congruence refers to the similarity between an individual's values and the values of an organization (e.g. Chatman, 1989, 1991; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991).

Value congruence affects individuals' attitudes and behaviors because they are more attracted to and trusting of others who are similar to them (e.g., Byrne, 1969; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). People who hold similar values share common aspects of cognitive processing, i.e. they have a shared way of interpreting events and reducing cognitive uncertainty (Kalliath, Bluedorn, & Strube, 1999). Moreover, because an organization's values are reflected onto

individuals who work there, individual attitudes should be most positive when value congruence is maximized (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Dutton & Dukerich, 1991).

In their meta-analysis regarding P-O fit, Kristof-Brown and colleagues (2005) found that values account most often for the research on P-O fit. However, their results also indicate that the traditional conceptualization of fit indices (i.e. ideal values) only account for moderate relationships between P-O fit and individual attitudes and performance measures, such as job satisfaction (.44), job performance (.07) and task performance (.13). These results indicate that ideal values alone do not account for much variance in explaining individual attitudes and performance in organizational contexts (see Kalliath, Bluedorn, & Strube, 1999).

Our conceptualization of ideal values and counter-ideal values fits nicely into these shortcomings and should thus be taken into account when analyzing P-O fit-relationships. Especially, counter-ideal values can contribute to theoretical and empirical shortcomings of the P-O fit-literature. We assume that fit indices should not only contain ideal values, but also counter-ideal values. As both have distinct effects in the organizational culture and independently influence individuals as well as organizations, they are most likely to account for extra variance in theoretical and empirical relationships.

Shah, Higgins and Friedman (1998) suggest that P-O fit can be also viewed from a regulatory focus-perspective (see also Brockner & Higgins, 2001; Higgins, 2000). Moreover, it can be assumed that the different relationships between individuals and their organizations can be described more thoroughly by the assumptions from regulatory focus theory (Brockner & Higgins, 2001). Specifically, the consequences of promotion-focused P-O fit are likely to be different than the consequences of prevention-focused P-O fit. Lockwood, Jordan and Kunda (2002) argued that people are generally sensitive to information that either fits their dominant chronic or situational regulatory focus. Thus, individuals are more motivated and perform better when they are encouraged to pursue activities that match their dominant regulatory focus (see Higgins, 2000). As organizations are likely to prime or frame

individuals' regulatory foci, it can be implied that there can occur at least two distinct kinds of fit relationships between persons and organizations. Promotion-oriented individuals are more motivated and attracted by organizations which highlight strategies that are congruent with their promotion focus and useful for the energization of approach behaviors. Those strategies could be, for example, reaching organizational growth by taking risks and developing new business segments. Conversely, prevention-oriented individuals are more motivated and attracted by organizations which highlight strategies that are congruent with their prevention focus and useful for the energization of avoidance behaviors. Those strategies could be, for example, reaching organizational consolidation by avoiding failures and relying on established business segments.

As ideal values and counter-ideal values are supposed to underlie promotion and prevention focus, it is likely that both values can significantly add to a deeper understanding of P-O fit-relationships. Ideal values and counter-ideal values are held by both individuals and organizations. As both values are proposed to be distinct, it can be assumed that they form distinct types of P-O fit-relationships. Until today, research on P-O fit has only focused on motivational goals that energize approach behavior, i.e. ideal values. However, both individuals and organizations also hold motivational goals that energize avoidance behaviors, i.e. counter-ideal values. Both values vary in their importance and are contextually contingent. Thus, they have different impact on the notion of P-O fit and should be taken into account when analyzing P-O fit-relationships. When people are driven by ideal values, for example, they are supposed to focus on strategies geared toward promoting desired outcomes. Thus, it is assumed that they will be especially open to organizations and organizational contexts that exemplify positive outcomes to be approached. In contrast, when they are driven by counter-ideal values, they are supposed to focus on strategies geared toward preventing undesired outcomes. Thus, it is supposed to reason that they will be especially open to organizations and organizational contexts that exemplify negative outcomes to be avoided. When values are

highlighted that are incongruent with individuals' dominated of preferred value orientation, however, the energization of motivation and behavior may be likely to be undercut. Lockwood and colleagues (2002) showed across three studies that promotion goals (i.e. ideal values) and prevention goals (i.e. counter-ideal values) could be primed by different situations and that people are significantly more motivated by a role model that fits their situationally evoked regulatory focus. Moreover, the authors provided evidence that people are generally more motivated by a role model that fits their chronic regulatory focus. Shah and colleagues (1998) and Kark and Van Dijk (2007) showed that these effects could also be applied to organizational contexts. Taken together, these results indicate that, depending on their dominant values and the values that are contextually evoked, people are more encouraged to engage in approach or avoidance behaviors by organizations whose value systems fit their ideal values and counter-ideal values. In contrast, they are discouraged to engage in approach or avoidance behaviors by organizations whose value systems do not fit their value systems. Based on this research, we can thus propose:

Proposition 3: Ideal values and counter-ideal values have distinct effects on Person-Organization fit-relationships.

Proposition 3a: Fit between individual and organizational ideal values leads to a stronger promotion focus and more engagement in approach behaviors.

Proposition 3b: Fit between individual and organizational counter-ideal values leads to stronger prevention focus and more engagement in avoidance behaviors.

Proposition 4: The perception of fit between personal and organizational values is contextually sensitive.

Proposition 4a: Promotion-oriented contexts (i.e. contexts that provide autonomy and independence as well excitement, novelty, and challenge) guide peoples' perception towards fit between individual and organizational ideal values.

Proposition 4b: Prevention-oriented contexts (i.e. contexts that provide safety and stability as well as restraint of actions and inclinations) guide peoples' perception towards fit between individual and organizational counter-ideal values.

IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The conceptualization of values and value systems presented above suggest that ideal values and counter-ideal values are distinct forces that influence individuals' perceptions and reactions as well organizations and organizational life. We stated that both values are tied to individuals' motivational tendencies and approach and avoidance behaviors. Ideal values can be seen as desirable end-states or positive goals one wants to approach, while counter-ideal values can be seen as non-desirable end-states or negative goals one wants to avoid. Both values are supposed to be situationally and contextually contingent, especially in organizational contexts. Moreover, we assumed that individual value systems and organizational value systems form different types of P-O fit-relationships that have distinct implications on individual perceptions and reactions towards their organizations.

The propositions suggested above shed more light on the conceptualization of values and value systems. This should result in a better understanding of their functioning, especially in organizational contexts. Until now, however, values and value systems have only been recognized to affect the valence of approach behavior and thus been conceptualized as desirable goals or ideal endstates. Moreover, most researchers rely on the circumplex model introduced by Schwartz (1992, 1994), which we do not question by any means. Instead, we view our conceptualizations of ideal values and counter-ideal values in terms of two distinct systems as a multidimensional contribution to the extension and elaboration of its circular structure. Another contribution of this paper is the attempt to take the contextual contingencies of ideal values and counter-ideal values into account and describe their implications for people's perceptions and reactions.

However, we view our conceptualization of ideal values and counter-ideal values only as a beginning for the research on their theoretical foundation. Thus, in the following, we lay the basics for further implications and suggestions for future research. Although first empirical attempts have been made to simultaneously measure ideal values and counter-ideal values (Graf, et al., 2011; Van Quaquebeke et al., 2010), we recommend that future research begins with a clear construction and implementation of measurement scales. As such, we suggest adapting established and elaborated instruments, such as the Schwartz Value Survey (SVS) (Schwartz, 1992) or the “*Portraits Values Questionnaire*” (PVQ) (Schwartz, 2005, 2006). Both measurements are useful for mapping both value systems independently upon the circumplex model and thus can facilitate the extension and elaboration of its content and structure. The PVQ is particularly useful, because it asks participants to rate their similarity to the persons described in each portrait. We recommend changing the measurement instrument by replacing the fictitious characters with imagined ideal and counter-ideal persons. In this way, it is possible to relate participants’ responses for each fictional person to the self-responses and build the difference scores (see Graf et al., 2011). This technique also enables researchers to avoid the transference of an ideal value system into its mere counter-ideal counterpart (see Graf, et al. (2011) and Van Quaquebeke et al. (2010) for a more elaborated discussion). For organizational settings, we suggest gathering initial data by asking employees and representatives of organizations (e.g. the top management) to fill in the instrument. Subsequent studies could then reassess the different P-O fit-relationships between both values and map their contents and structures against each other in the circumplex model to prepare the empirical ground for our theoretical underpinnings of ideal values and counter-ideal values as distinct value systems.

The development of new measurement scales that accurately reflect the distinction between ideal values and counter-ideal values alone presents ample research opportunities. However, to gain further insights into the implications of both values, we suggest obtaining

performance ratings from external sources such as other employees and their leaders in addition to measuring participants' values. In this respect, it seems, however, interesting to explore not only to what extent both values independently affect perceptions and reactions to the social world but also what factors mediate and moderate these effects. Indeed, we would advise to survey situational and contextual aspects that might serve as boundary constraints to the effects of ideal values and counter-ideal values. In this respect, future research might consider scenario studies and experiments that manipulate relevant contextual variables. For example, it might be fruitful to frame either desirable or non-desirable endstates in terms of ideal goals or counter-ideal goals. Such situations or contexts are expected to evoke either ideal values or counter-ideal values. Insights from regulatory focus theory show that different contextual cues elicit different situational foci and thus behaviors of distinct qualities (e.g. Van Dijk & Kluger, 2004, 2010). According to our propositions, we would expect ideal values to be of higher influence in contexts or situations where one wants to approach a desirable end-state and counter-ideal values to be of higher influence in situations where one wants to avoid a non-desirable end-state (cf. Higgins, 1997, 1998).

Beyond that, future studies should assess the implications of ideal values and counter-ideal values for different P-O fit-relationships between individuals and organizations and map the fit indices onto organizationally relevant outcomes such as individual attitudes and performance. Moreover, while we dare not to speculate that the fit indices with regard to each value orientation might have different effects on different outcomes, it stands to reason that first empirical evidence may direct us into that direction (see Graf et al., 2011). We also suggest assessing situational or contextual moderators either in field or experimental designs to determine when ideal values versus counter-ideal values fit indices hold more predictive power.

In addition, it would be interesting to explore the specific mediating mechanisms underlying the effects of both value orientation fit indices. While variables such as trust and

interpersonal attraction have been noted as potential mediators for ideal values (Edwards & Cable, 2009), we expect different mediators to hold different importance for each value orientation (cf. Van Dijk & Kluger, 2004, 2010).

IMPLICATIONS AND CONTRIBUTIONS FOR ORGANIZATIONAL PRACTICE

The conceptualizations of values and value systems presented above also suggest several practical issues to consider, especially for the organizational culture and core organizational processes. As values have always been understood and conceptualized as ideal goals or desirable end-states, counter-ideal values have remained a blind spot for both their conceptualization and application in research and practise. However, we think that their influence on individuals and organizations is too important to be ignored. Thus, organizations might consider exploring their potential to define their culture and core processes more thoroughly and increase the fit between their employees' personal value systems and their organizational value systems.

Many researchers have shown the importance of the match between personal value systems and organizational value systems. P-O fit is especially recognized to lay the foundations for organizational identities and ultimately organizational effectiveness (Edwards & Cable, 2009; Kristof-Brown, et al., 2005; Verquehr, et al., 2003). However, we added to this understanding by stating that organizational value systems do not only contain ideal values but also counter-ideal values. Especially counter-ideal values should also be considered for different organizational processes and made visible to organizations and its members. In a first step, organizations may thus bring their counter-ideals to the surface. For this purpose, it might be fruitful to conduct in-depth interviews with the most representative or prototypical members of an organization (see Hogg & Terry, 2001) to gain deeper insights in what the core ideal values and counter-ideals of a present organization might be. These interviews could then be internally and externally validated by letting other members and clients rate their results.

In a second step, organizations shall incorporate their ideal values and counter-ideal values into their mission statements and organizational guidelines to define overall standards to live and to live not by. These standards should be written down and made visible for every organizational member, because thus it is ensured that the organization's general purpose is clear. Additionally, we recommend that the organizational standards shall be communicated in every possible way, i.e. leaders need to "walk the talk" of ideal values and counter-ideal values and constantly reinforce their message at every opportunity. For example, Whole Foods Market Inc. appears to be so attractive for applicants and employees, because its core value system provides a clear framework of how the organizational life is both like and not like. The managers at Whole Foods Markets Inc. are encouraged to tell new and prospective hires what it is like and what it is not like to work at the company respectively, i.e. they are able to articulate the ideal values and the counter-ideal values that make working at Whole Foods Markets Inc. distinctive compared to other organizations (Erickson & Gratton, 2007).

Finally, organizations may bring their mission statements and codes of conduct to life. By this, we recommend organizations to align core organizational systems and processes with their mission statements and code of conducts, e.g. the reward system and selection processes. Considering the reward system, organizations are recommended to think about incorporating both values into its structure and the following performance review process. In general organizational reward systems are recognized as the most powerful means of the organizational culture (see Kerr & Slocum 1987; Kuhn, 2009; Lawler & Jenkins 1992). Typically, employees are rewarded for behaving according to the prevalent value systems in organizations, which are by now mostly dominated by ideal values. However, organizations may also reward employees for behaving according to the counter-ideal values of the organization. Insights from regulatory focus theory show for example that some organizations tend to reward their employees focusing on a promotion focus, whereas other organizations tend to reward their employees by focusing on a prevention focus. However, organizational

reward systems that incorporate both foci and evaluate their members accordingly, are likely to be more comprehensive and thus more accepted by their employees (see Brockner & Higgins, 2001; Kuhn, 2009).

Considering selection processes, it is suggested that future employees might not only be introduced to an organization's ideal values, but also to its counter-ideal values. Thus, both organizations and employees avoid that their ideal value systems might fit, for example, whereas their counter-ideal value systems do not. It is generally known that perceived P-O misfit leads to decreased motivation and increased intention to turnover (e.g. Arthur et al., 2006; Wheeler et al., 2005, 2007). To avoid such incongruencies and costs, organizations are well advised to select future employees according to both values. Furthermore, by introducing employees to their ideal values as well as their counter-ideal values, organizations may manage to present a clearer view of them which, in turn, might lead to a stronger employer brand, increased processes identification and a more comprehensive organizational identity. According to Erickson and Gratton (2007), Whole Foods Market Inc. has established the process of team-based hiring: "*[applicants] are informed that each department in each store [...] comprises a small, decentralized entrepreneurial [work team] whose members have complete control over who joins the group. After a four week trial period, team members vote on whether [an applicant] is hired or not. [Every applicant] needs two-thirds of the team's support in order to join the staff permanently*" (Erickson & Gratton, 2007, pp. 3-4). By defining and communicating their ideal values and counter-ideal values in such a unique way, Whole Foods Market Inc. empowers applicants to make well-informed employment choices – after they have compared the organizational value systems with their personal value systems. Thus, the organization ensures that they attract and attain highly engaged and motivated applicants and employees (see Erickson & Gratton, 2007).

In general, exploring the organizational implications of both values in relation to each other and their situational as well as contextual contingency appears to be a fruitful and

important. Indeed, a systematic understanding of their theoretical underpinnings and managerial implications might help scientists and practitioners to build more powerful organizations that fully outline and express their identity. Successful examples like Whole Foods Markets Inc. show that a fully described identity that best conveys what it is like and not like to work at the organization, makes the organization unique and distinctive, yet very attractive to apply and work there.

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Manuskript 2

Graf, M. M., Van Quaquebeke, N., & van Dick, R. (*in press*). Two independent value orientations: Ideal and counter-ideal leader values and their impact on followers' respect for and identification with their leaders.

Journal of Business Ethics. doi: 10.1007/s10551-011-0897-7.

Running Head: TWO INDEPENDENT VALUE ORIENTATIONS

Two independent value orientations:

Ideal and counter-ideal leader values and their impact on followers' respect for and
identification with their leaders

Abstract

Traditionally, conceptualizations of human values are based on the assumption that individuals possess a single integrated value system comprising those values that people are attracted by and strive for. Recently, however, Van Quaquebeke, Kerschreiter, Buxton and van Dick (2010) proposed that a value system might consist of two largely independent value orientations – an orientation of ideal values and an orientation of counter-ideal values (values that individuals are repelled by), and that both orientations exhibit antithetic effects on people's responses to the social world. Following a call for further research on this distinction, we conducted two studies to assess the independent effects of ideal and counter-ideal values in leadership settings. Study 1 ($N = 131$) finds both value orientations to explain unique variance in followers' vertical respect for their leaders. Study 2 ($N = 136$) confirms these results and additionally shows an analogous effect for followers' identification with their leaders. Most importantly, we find that both value orientations exhibit their effects only independently when the content of the two orientations pertain to different value types in Schwartz's (1994) circumplex model. Implications for theory and practice are discussed.

Keywords: Ideal Values, Counter-Ideal Values, Leadership, Respect for Leaders, Identification with Leaders

Introduction

Human values shape our personal, social, and professional lives by signaling desirable ways of behaving as well as ideal end states (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992). As such, values profoundly affect people's attitudes (Maio & Olson, 1994) and behaviors (Verplanken, 2004; Verplanken & Holland, 2002) toward the social world. Recently, there has been a resurgence of research on topics such as values, value congruence and value leadership (e.g., Posner, 2010; Suar & Khuntia, 2010; Van Quaquebeke, Zenker, & Eckloff, 2010).

Research from different areas of psychology, however, increasingly finds that people are not only driven by appetitive forces they are attracted to, but also by aversive forces they are repelled by (see Carver, Sutton, & Scheier, 2000). The theoretical and empirical distinction between these orientations is noted in many theories regarding human nature, such as, for instance, dispositional theory (Cattell, 1957), social-cognitive theory (Rotter, 1954), and cognitive theory (Heider, 1958). Surprisingly, however, this notion of opposing psychological forces seems to be largely absent from value research. One notable exception is the recent work by Van Quaquebeke and colleagues (2010), who argue that human value systems comprise two types of value-orientations, one that is appetitive and one that is aversive. They propose that both are independently informative for people's attitudes and behavior, and, based on first empirical evidence, conclude that it would be premature to assume that the content of one value orientation reflects the mere opposite of the other. Instead, they can be thought of as two independent layers. Indeed, Van Quaquebeke and colleagues' results confirm that the degree to which leaders are perceived to represent values of both orientations, i.e. followers' ideal and counter-ideal leader values, simultaneously and independently affect followers' identification and satisfaction with those leaders. However, the authors also caution that their findings should be considered preliminary because they only used single item measures to assess the degree to which a leader matched participants' ideal and counter-ideal leader values. It is thus not clear whether the contents of both value

orientations are related. Moreover, it is unclear whether their contents may include important boundary conditions that may explain when and why a leader's congruence with both value orientations exhibit independent effects on followers' responses towards that leader.

With the present study, we aim at a more in-depth investigation of the importance of both value orientations in the context of leader-follower relationships. Following Van Quaquebeke and colleagues (2010), we seek to test whether the independent forces of ideal and counter-ideal values on followers' responses towards their leaders can be replicated using a more complex value instrument such as the Portrait Values Questionnaire (PVQ; Schwartz, 2005, 2006). Second, we seek to investigate whether the predictive value of both value orientations for followers' responses towards their leaders depends on the degree of content independence of both value orientations. In doing so, we not only seek to enrich the current literature on human values, but also inform practice with regard to how value statements should be made and how they can be improved by taking both value orientations into account.

Two Value Orientations

The nature of human values has always been of great research interest. As a result, many different conceptualizations of values have been proposed and explored. Overall, researchers agree that values either describe desirable ways of behaving or ideal end states (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992). Building on these views, research has shown that values function as important bridging constructs between different aspects of personality and attitudes (Olson & Maio, 2003; Yik & Tang, 1996), and are among the most important predictors of attitudes and behavior in all areas of life, including work contexts (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003; Hemingway & Maclagan, 2004; Maio & Olson, 1995; Meglino & Ravlin, 1998).

The most commonly applied framework for understanding value systems stems from Schwartz (1992, 1994). He found that values can be organized by 10 general value types: universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity, security, power, achievement, hedonism,

stimulation, and self-direction. Each value type is characterized by a central motivational goal and the pursuit of any two of these goals can either be compatible or incompatible. Based on these assumptions, Schwartz proposed a circumplex model, in which motivationally compatible value types lie next to each other, whereas motivationally incompatible value types appear opposed to each other. Essentially, Schwartz suggested that the ten value types can be organized along two orthogonal bipolar dimensions (i.e. value types of higher order): the first dimension contrasts the poles self-transcendence and self-enhancement, whereas the second dimension contrasts the poles conservation and openness to change. According to this framework, people differ in terms of the subjective and relative importance they place on each value type and thus in terms of the dynamic organization of the priorities in their value systems (cf. Rohan, 2000).

However, recent insights from research on attitudes and beliefs suggest that values might differ not only with regard to their importance and organization but also with regard to their reflections of the positive or negative motivational goals that underlie them (Maio, Olson, Bernard, & Luke, 2003). In other words, values might not always be desirable ways of behaving or ideal end states; some values might be undesirable ways of behaving and counter-ideal end states that individuals try to avoid. In that sense, like attitudes, values reflect positivity or negativity toward an object of evaluation. Indeed, attitudes serve a value-expressive function: people tend to like objects that promote their values and dislike objects that threaten their values (Katz, 1960; Maio & Olson, 1995). Kaplan (1972) thus proposed that individuals display two distinct types of attitudes: one that subsumes an evaluation that varies in negativity, and one that subsumes an evaluation that varies in positivity. Consistent with this reasoning, Rodin (1978) argued that people represent degrees of liking and disliking of objects along separate dimensions of evaluation. In addition, Cacioppo and colleagues (e.g., Cacioppo & Berntson, 1994; Cacioppo, Gardner, & Berntson, 1997) proposed that positive and negative evaluative processes involve distinct classes of antecedents and consequences.

As values underlie cognitive networks of attitudes and beliefs, it follows that these can also reflect both positive and negative behaviors or end states. Following Van Quaquebeke and colleagues (2010), we specifically seek to investigate whether the two value orientations can be differentiated with regard to leadership.

Hypothesis 1: Followers' representation of ideal and counter-ideal leader values are empirically distinct.

Leaders Representing Followers' Value Orientations

Leadership has been defined in many ways. One of the most prominent definitions stems from Yukl who views leadership as process of influence (2010). When defined in this way, the concept of influence and the means by which it is achieved are put centerstage. As such it is important to understand how leader exert influence beyond positional forms of power, i.e. how their leadership (and not management) becomes effective. It has been suggested that leaders are most effective and respected when their values are congruent with the values that their followers cherish, and vice versa (see Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002; Lord & Brown, 2001). Incongruence between leaders' and their followers' values, by contrast, can be a source of major conflict or ambiguity for employees.

Assuming that value systems comprise both ideal and counter-ideal values, we propose that both value orientations simultaneously influence followers' responses towards their leaders, in particular those responses that signal a certain openness and accordance with the leader such as followers' vertical respect for (Van Quaquebeke, Henrich, & Eckloff, 2007) and identification with their leaders (van Dick, Wagner, Stellmacher & Christ, 2004). Indeed, people are likely to use both value orientations to assess the amount of congruence between their value systems and the value systems represented by their leaders. This dual evaluation enables followers to judge their leaders more completely and ultimately to decide how much they are attracted to or repelled by their leaders.

Hypothesis 2: The more followers perceive their leaders to represent their ideal values in the leadership domain, the more they respect (and identify with) their leaders.

Hypothesis 3: The more followers perceive their leaders to represent their counter-ideal values in the leadership domain, the less they respect (and identify with) their leaders.

Hypothesis 4: Followers' perceptions of their leader's congruity both with their ideal leader values and with their counter-ideal leader values simultaneously and independently predict followers' respect (and identification with) their leaders.

Furthermore, we assume that the size of these effects depends on the degree of overlap in the contents of the two value orientations. If the mental representations of two distinct concepts are so similar that they form the same representation from different angles, the effects of one are inherent in the other (cf. Aron, Aron, Tudor, & Nelson, 1991; Smith, Coats, & Walling, 1999). Under such circumstances, one value orientation would already capture the effect of the other value orientation.

In this respect, Van Quaquebeke and colleagues (2010) assume that people are likely to vary in the degree to which their ideal and counter-ideal values represent the same dimension versus different dimensions. Hence, if counter-ideal values are mentally represented as dimensionally distinct from ideal values, they are likely to have additional influence on peoples' attitudes and behaviors. However, Van Quaquebeke and colleagues were not able to test this assumption, because they only used a single item measure and thus could not map specific values upon the circumplex model to interpret their dimensionality.

Hypothesis 5: The more distinct followers' ideal and counter-ideal values are from each other, the more the leader's congruity with both value orientations will influence followers' respect for and identification with their leaders.

To test our hypotheses, we conducted two survey studies. Study 1 explores whether a leader's match with ideal and counter-ideal leader values independently inform followers' respect for the leader. Study 2 aimed at replication and furthermore extends Study 1 by exploring whether ideal and counter-ideal leader values have the same effects on another central variable in organizational behavior research: followers' identification with their leader.

Study 1

Method

Participants

To obtain a heterogeneous sample of employees, we recruited participants via a German online panel (www.sozioland.de). Online panels consist of people who have all agreed to participate in online surveys and who have been thoroughly checked by the panel provider. This enables researchers to access a pool of people who are not only willing but also used to filling in online surveys - thereby increasing the quality of response data. A total of 131 participants completed the survey. All of the participants indicated that they reported to a specific leader. A slight majority of the sample was female (57%). Average age was 37.94 years ($SD = 9.80$). Almost 41% of participants had a university or college degree. Around 60% of participants had completed professional or vocational training. Total work experience (i.e. time in employment after completion of first degree) averaged 16 years ($SD = 10.22$) with an average of five personally experienced leaders ($SD = 3.68$), of whom an average of 24% were female. Overall, participants were employed across more than 20 different industries.

Measures

To measure the degree to which participants perceived their leaders to match their ideal and counter-ideal leader values, we asked participants to fill in the Portrait Values Questionnaire (PVQ; Schwartz, 2005, 2006; see also Schwartz, Melech, Lehmann, Burgess, & Harris, 2001) adapted to the work context. The PVQ Short includes 21 verbal portraits

(Bilsky, Janik, & Schwartz, in press; Schwarz et al., 2001), each describing a person's aspirations in a way that implicitly points to the personal importance of a certain value type of the circumplex model. Each participant had to complete the PVQ thrice. In one version, participants were asked to what extent the person described in each portrait resembled their ideal leader. In the second version, participants were asked to what extent the person described in each portrait resembled their counter-ideal leader. In the final version, they were asked to what extent the person described in each statement resembled their current leader. The three versions were presented in random order to participants, and the 21 portraits were also presented randomly.

Originally, the PVQ is presented using a six-point Likert response scale, ranging from “not like me at all” to “very much like me”. However, we reformulated the categories to match the three questions described above. We also added a neutral midpoint to form a seven-point Likert scale (cf. Krosnick, & Fabrigar, 1997; Krosnick & Presser, 2010; O’Muircheartaigh, Krosnick, & Helic, 1999), as it has been shown that the reliability of scales increases with the number of answer alternatives (Alwin, 2010; Alwin & Krosnick, 1991). Krosnick and Presser (2010) concluded that the use of seven-point scales provides several conceptual and methodological advantages, such as an adequate transformation of people’s mental representations of concepts and a homogenous distribution of responses.

The outcome variable, participants’ vertical respect for their leaders, was measured using Van Quaquebeke and Brodbeck’s (2008; see also Van Quaquebeke, van Knippenberg, & Brodbeck, in press) six-item scale. The scale reflects the extent to which followers voluntarily accept and seek their leader’s influence, using items such as “I trust the judgment of my leader in work issues” and “At work I enjoy being able to learn from my leader”. Each participant rated each item on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from “not at all” to “very much”.

Analyses

We first computed scales that reflected the four higher-order value types: self-transcendence, self-enhancement, openness to change, and conservation. To assess the leader's congruence on both value orientations, we computed Euclidean distances (cf. Danielsson, 1980) between followers' ideal leader values and their perceived current leader values as well as between followers' counter-ideal leader values and their perceived current leader values for each of the four higher-order value types. Next, we summed the difference scores to compute two overall scores: a) congruence between the ideal and current leader values and b) congruence between the counter-ideal and current leader values.

To test Hypotheses 1 through 4, we conducted a two-step multiple regression analysis. In the first step, we included the standardized congruence score between the current and the ideal leader to test its influence on followers' respect for their current leaders (Hypothesis 2). In the second step, we added the respective counter-ideal to current leader congruence score to test whether it would appear as distinct from the ideal-current congruence score (Hypothesis 1) and independently affect followers' respect for their current leaders (Hypotheses 3+4). To test Hypothesis 5, we split the sample at the mean of the congruence score (i.e. reverse Euclidian distance) of followers' ideal and counter-ideal leader values and recalculated the regression analyses within the two subsamples.

Results

Table 1 provides descriptives and scale intercorrelations. Note that when we speak of congruence, we refer to the opposite of the Euclidian distance displayed in the tables. As shown in Table 1, the overall scores for ideal and current leader values are positively associated ($r = .55, p < .01$). While this relationship is significant and substantial, it is not surprising and can be subject to the confirmatory bias phenomenon, in which peoples' perceptions of an object (e.g., their current leader) are similar to their expectations and knowledge structures (e.g., ideal leader) (e.g., Snyder & Cantor, 1979; Snyder & Swann, 1978a, 1978b). Moreover, the overall scores for ideal and counter-ideal leader values correlate

negatively ($r = -.35, p < .01$), as expected. Importantly, the amount of shared variation is only 12%, which leaves room for unique contributions with respect to our main hypotheses (cf. Van Quaquebeke et al., 2010). Hypothesis 1 is thus supported.

To test whether the congruence scores (between the ideal and current leader values as well as between the counter-ideal and current leader values) exhibit independent effects, we used a two-step multiple regression analysis and analyzed the effects on participants' respect for their leaders while simultaneously entering the leader's match of ideal values and the leader's match of counter-ideal values. Table 2 shows that both predictors remain significant when simultaneously entered into the regression equation. In addition, the R^2 change between step 1 and step 2 is significant for respect for leader, suggesting that the addition of a leader's match of counter-ideal leader values explains a unique amount of variance beyond a leader's match of ideal leader values (cf. Van Quaquebeke et al., 2010). Thus, Hypotheses 2, 3, and 4 are also supported.

To assess whether the obtained effects can be explained by content overlap between ideal and counter-ideal values, we split our sample and divided the participants into those whose ideal and counter-ideal values showed minor differences in content and those whose ideal and counter-ideal values showed major differences in content, as described in the above 'analysis' section ($n_1 = 62; n_2 = 69$). Next, we calculated the previous regression analyses again but separately for each subsample. For the subsample where the Euclidean distance between ideal and counter-ideal values is low (i.e. high congruence), Table 3 shows that only the leader's match of ideal values remains significant when both predictors are simultaneously entered into the regression equation. In addition, the R^2 change between step 1 and step 2 appears not to be significant, suggesting that the addition of a leader's match of counter-ideal leader values does not explain a unique amount of variance beyond his or her match of ideal leader values. By contrast, both predictors remain significant when simultaneously entered into the regression equation for the subsample where the Euclidean distance between ideal

and counter-ideal values is high (i.e. low congruence). In addition, the R^2 change between step 1 and step 2 is significant, suggesting that the addition of a leader's match of counter-ideal leader values explains a unique amount of variance beyond his or her match of ideal leader values when participants' ideal and counter-ideal values include substantially different contents. Thus, Hypothesis 5 is also supported.

Study 2

The purpose of Study 2 is twofold: first, we want to replicate the findings of Study 1 in an independent sample. Second, we want to show that the effects not only hold for followers' respect for their leaders but also for followers' identification with their leaders (Mael & Ashforth, 1992; van Dick, Wagner, Stellmacher, & Christ, 2004).

Method

Participants

Once again, to obtain a heterogeneous sample, we recruited participants via the panel community of sozioland.de. When recruiting, however, we ensured that different panel members were addressed than for the first study, meaning that across studies none of the respondents overlapped. A total of 136 participants completed the survey. All of the participants indicated that they currently reported to a specific leader. Again, a slight majority of the sample was female (54%). Average participant age was 37.58 years ($SD = 10.44$). Almost 29% of participants had a university or college degree, and around 69% had completed professional degrees or other vocational training. Total work experience (i.e. time in employment after completion of first degree) averaged 16 years ($SD = 10.13$) with an average of five personally experienced leaders ($SD = 3.47$), of whom an average of 24% were female. Overall, participants were employed in more than 20 different industries. All in all, and despite completely different respondents, it can be gathered that the sample's demographics are very similar to the first sample's demographics.

Measures

To assess the degree to which participants perceived their leaders to match their ideal and counter-ideal leader values, we used the same independent measures as described in Study 1. This time, however, we applied the traditional six-point answering scale developed by Schwartz and colleagues (2001).

Participants' vertical respect for their leaders was measured with the same scale as in Study 1 (Van Quaquebeke & Brodbeck, 2008; Van Quaquebeke et al., in press). Participants' identification with their leaders was measured using Mael and Ashforth's (1992) six-item organizational identification scale adapted to the current leader as the target of identification (cf. van Dick et al., 2004). The scale reflects the sense of unity that subordinates feel with their leaders. For example: "When someone criticizes my leader, it feels like a personal insult," or "When I talk about my leader, I usually say 'we' rather than 'he or she'." Responses were given on a 5-point scale with endpoints "disagree" and "agree" respectively.

Analyses

As in Study 1, we assigned the 21 items of each version of the PVQ to the related four higher order value types. To assess the leaders' congruence on ideal and counter-ideal leader values, we computed the Euclidian distance scores within each value type and then summed them up.

To test Hypotheses 1 through 4, we conducted a two-step multiple regression analysis. To test Hypothesis 5, we again split the sample at the overall mean of the congruence score between ideal leader- and counter-ideal values.

Results

Table 4 presents descriptives and scale intercorrelations. Again, the overall scores for ideal and current leader values are positively associated ($r = .47, p < .01$). Moreover, the overall scores for ideal and counter-ideal leader values correlate negatively ($r = -.34, p < .01$). Again, these relationships leave room for unique contributions with respect to our main hypotheses (cf. Van Quaquebeke et al., 2010).

Table 5 shows that for both outcomes, both predictors remain significant when simultaneously entered into the regression equation. In addition, the R^2 change between step 1 and step 2 is significant for both outcomes, suggesting that the addition of a leader's match of counter-ideal leader values explains a unique amount of variance beyond the match of ideal leader values. Thus, our Hypotheses 1 to 4 were again supported, replicating the results from Study 1.

Again, to assess whether the obtained effects can be explained by content overlap between ideal and counter-ideal values, we split our sample and divided the participants into those whose ideal and counter-ideal leader values showed minor differences in content and those whose ideals and counter-ideal leader values showed major differences in content ($n_1 = 70$; $n_2 = 66$). Next, we calculated the previous regression analyses again but separately for each subsample. For the subsample where congruence between ideal and counter-ideal values is high, Table 6 shows that only the leader's match of ideal values (for respect for leaders) and the leader's match of counter-ideal values (for identification with leaders) remain significant separately but not together, when both predictors are simultaneously entered into the regression equation. By contrast, both predictors remain significant when simultaneously entered into the regression equation for the subsample with little congruence between ideal and counter-ideal values. In addition, the R^2 change between step 1 and step 2 is significant for both outcomes, suggesting that the addition of a leader's match of counter-ideal leader values explains a unique amount of variance beyond the match of ideal leader values when participants' ideal and counter-ideal values comprise substantially different contents. Thus, Hypothesis 5 is also supported.

General Discussion

The two studies presented here continue Van Quaquebeke and colleagues' (2010) initial research on the effects of ideal and counter-ideal leader values on followers' responses towards their leaders. We showed that both positive and negative value orientations exhibit

largely independent affects on followers' responses to their leaders. An important extension to previous research is that we found these effects to be stronger the more the contents of followers' ideal and counter-ideal leader values differed from each other. Moreover, while previous research has focused on a rather simple conceptualization of ideal and counter-ideal values, we employed an elaborated value assessment instrument along different value dimensions. In that sense, our studies confirm the theoretical reasoning that ideal and counter-ideal leader values are not just situated on opposing poles of the same value type, but that counter-ideal leader values comprise a non-redundant layer in relation to ideal leader values (see Van Quaquebeke et al., 2010).

For future studies, it seems worthwhile to further explore potential moderators that cause ideal and counter-ideal values to affect attitudes and behavior. Indeed, although value systems are seen as coherent and stable, contextual cues may increase the accessibility or importance of one or the other value layer (Maio et al., 2003). Thus, it might be important to gain insights into the specific contexts that activate and provide salience to either ideal or counter-ideal values (cf. Brewer, 1991; Sorrentino, Seligman, & Battista, 2007). For example, perhaps ideal values influence people more in situations that involve approaching a desirable end state, whereas counter-ideal values might exert more influence in contexts involving avoidance of undesirable outcomes. Although this suggestion seems intuitive, further research is needed to explore the potential influence of contextual moderators on the effects of both value orientations.

In summary, the notion of two value orientations, ideal and counter-ideal values, as independent forces deepens our understanding of the content and functioning of value systems. The exploration of their antecedents, consequences, and interrelation appears to be a promising area for further study.

Limitations

The present research is, of course, not without limitations. Although we were able to directly compare the content of participants' ideal and counter-ideal leader values on a predetermined dimensional value space, the relationship between both value types was not completely non-redundant (see Van Quaquebeke et al., 2010). While the shared variance does not necessarily indicate that both value orientations are related on a content level, i.e., exact opposite poles on one dimension, the intercorrelation does suggest that their representation in practice is not completely independent. While we did not predict that both value orientations would be completely independent in content, their intercorrelation nevertheless raises an array of research questions regarding when ideal and counter-ideal values are related and when not.

Another potential shortcoming pertains to the common source nature of our data (see Podsakoff, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Lee, 2003). While it should be noted that any common source bias should have worked against finding an independent significant effect of ideal and counter-ideal leader values and thus made it more difficult to find support for our hypotheses, future research may extend our hypotheses to external source data. Indeed, particularly rates of employee turnover or leaders' ratings of followers' efforts would be variables of high concern for the applied context. While we do not expect a different pattern, it would nevertheless be interesting to investigate the effect sizes of leaders' matches of ideal and counter-ideal values for such outcomes.

Practical implications

The notion that ideal and counter-ideal values have distinct impact on followers' responses toward their surroundings has important implications for organizational practice. Our findings suggest that organizations and leaders alike should address both value orientations to portray a more complex picture that employees can use to assess where they stand and potentially bond more strongly than they would on the basis of ideal values alone (Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown, Zimmermann, & Johnson, 2005; Meglino & Ravlin, 1998; Verquer, Beehr, & Wagner, 2003). Naturally, there is the possibility that followers share the

organization's assessment of ideal values but not the organization's assessment of counter-ideal values. Such "non-fit" might spur a discussion on what one does and does not want to stand for, or, in the worst case, even lead to employee turnover (cf. Sims & Kroeck, 1994). The latter could be regarded as a healthy screening process whereby only people who fully identify with the organization or the leader will stay. However, in most cases, discussion should suffice. We believe there is potential in promoting such discussions of what organizations and leaders do not want to stand for (cf. Murphy, 1988) - especially because this seems to be a blind spot in today's organizational vision and mission statements.

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Tables

Table 1: *Descriptive statistics and correlations for Study 1 (N = 131)*

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>
1. Ideal leader	4.85	0.54	(.72)	-	-	-	-	-	-
2. Counter-ideal leader	3.43	0.75	-.35**	(.80)	-	-	-	-	-
3. Actual leader	4.57	0.63	.53**	-.13	(.70)	-	-	-	-
4. (Ideal leader – Actual leader) ²	8.96	12.05	-.11	.04	-.39**	(-)	-	-	-
5. (Counter-ideal leader – Actual leader) ²	20.70	16.88	.33**	-.54**	.46**	-.34**	(-)	-	-
6. (Ideal leader – Counter-ideal leader) ²	30.57	17.65	.40**	-.58**	.19*	.20*	.73**	(-)	-
7. Respect for leader	3.26	0.96	.03	-.09	.41**	-.68**	.43**	-.03	(.89)

Note. Cronbach's alphas are indicated in parentheses.

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

Table 2: Results of multiple regression analysis of respect for leader on squared differences between ideal leader and actual leader, and counter-ideal leader and actual leader in Study 1 ($N = 131$)

Respect for leader	B	$SE B$	β	
Step 1				
(Ideal leader – Actual leader) ²	-0.66	0.06	-.68**	
ΔR^2				.46
ΔF				111.60**
Step 2				
(Ideal leader – Actual leader) ²	-0.58	0.06	-.61**	
(Counter-ideal leader – Actual leader) ²	0.22	0.06	.23**	
ΔR^2				.05
ΔF				11.69**

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

Table 3: Results of multiple regression analysis of respect for leader on squared differences between ideal leader and actual leader, and counter-ideal leader and actual leader after sample split in Study 1 ($N = 131$)

Respect for leader	Subsample 1 ($n_1 = 62$)			Subsample 2 ($n_2 = 69$)		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Step 1						
(Ideal leader – Actual leader) ²	-0.50	0.09	-.60**	-0.79	0.09	-.74**
ΔR^2			.36			.55
ΔF			33.30**			80.88**
Step 2						
(Ideal leader – Actual leader) ²	-0.46	0.09	-.56**	-0.63	0.11	-.59**
(Counter-ideal leader – Actual leader) ²	0.13	0.09	.16	0.27	0.11	.25*
ΔR^2			.02			.04
ΔF			2.12			6.44*

Note. Sample split on mean of (Ideal leader – Counter-ideal leader)²

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

Table 4: *Descriptive statistics and correlations for Study 2 (N = 136)*

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>8</i>
1. Ideal leader	4.09	0.51	(.73)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2. Counter-ideal leader	3.00	0.61	-.33**	(.75)	-	-	-	-	-	-
3. Actual leader	3.97	0.61	.47**	-.07	(.75)	-	-	-	-	-
4. (Ideal leader – Actual leader) ²	6.23	9.82	.03	.02	-.42**	(-)	-	-	-	-
5. (Counter-ideal leader – Actual leader) ²	16.45	12.27	.35**	-.43**	.50**	-.31**	(-)	-	-	-
6. (Ideal leader – Counter-ideal leader) ²	22.17	13.36	.37**	-.37**	.05	.45**	.55**	(-)	-	-
7. Respect for leader	3.36	0.99	.18*	-.05	.44**	-.50**	.59**	.08	(.90)	-
8. Identification with leader	2.63	0.80	.22**	-.03	.40**	-.35**	.42**	.02	.56**	(.78)

Note. Cronbach's alphas are indicated in parentheses.

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

Table 5: Results of multiple regression analysis of respect for and identification with leader on squared differences between ideal leader and actual leader, and counter-ideal leader and actual leader in Study 2 ($N = 136$)

Respect for leader	B	$SE B$	β	
Step 1				
(Ideal leader – Actual leader) ²	-0.50	0.07	-.50**	
ΔR^2				.25
ΔF				45.57**
Step 2				
(Ideal leader – Actual leader) ²	-0.35	0.07	-.35**	
(Counter-ideal leader – Actual leader) ²	0.48	0.07	.48**	
ΔR^2				.21
ΔF				52.20**
<hr/>				
Identification with leader				
Step 1				
(Ideal leader – Actual leader) ²	-0.30	0.07	-.36**	
ΔR^2				.13
ΔF				20.51**
Step 2				
(Ideal leader – Actual leader) ²	-0.21	0.06	-.26**	
(Counter-ideal leader – Actual leader) ²	0.28	0.06	.34**	
ΔR^2				.11
ΔF				.65**

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

Table 6: Results of multiple regression analysis of respect for and identification with leader on squared differences between ideal leader and actual leader, and counter-ideal leader and actual leader after sample split in Study 2 ($N = 136$)

Respect for leader	Subsample 1 ($n_1 = 70$)			Subsample 2 ($n_2 = 66$)		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Step 1						
(Ideal leader – Actual leader) ²	-0.27	0.11	-.29*	-0.76	0.10	-.70**
ΔR^2			.09			.50
ΔF			6.38*			63.83**
Step 2						
(Ideal leader – Actual leader) ²	-0.25	0.10	-.27**	-0.44	0.11	-.41**
(Counter-ideal leader – Actual leader) ²	0.39	0.10	.43**	0.48	0.11	.45**
ΔR^2			.18			.11
ΔF			16.85**			18.43**
<hr/>						
Identification with leader						
Step 1						
(Ideal leader – Actual leader) ²	-0.41	0.09	-.06	-0.48	0.10	-.53**
ΔR^2			.00			.28
ΔF			0.22			25.30**
Step 2						
(Ideal leader – Actual leader) ²	-0.03	0.09	-.05	-0.24	0.12	-.27*
(Counter-ideal leader – Actual leader) ²	0.17	0.09	.24*	0.36	0.12	.40**
ΔR^2			.06			.09
ΔF			4.04*			9.24**

Note. Note. Sample split on mean of (Ideal leader – Counter-ideal leader)²

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

Manuskript 3

Graf, M. M.*, Schuh, S. C.*, Van Quaquebeke, N., & van Dick, R. (*in press*). The relationship between leaders' group oriented values and follower identification with and endorsement of leaders: The moderating role of leaders' group membership.

Journal of Business Ethics. doi: 10.1007/s10551-011-0997-4.

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**The relationship between leaders' group oriented values and follower identification with
and endorsement of leaders: The moderating role of leaders' group membership**

Author Note: The first two authors contributed equally to this research.

Abstract

In this article, we hypothesize that leaders who display group oriented values (i.e., values that focus on the welfare of the group rather than on the self-interest of the leader) will be evaluated more positively by their followers than leaders who do not display group oriented values. Importantly, we expected these effects to be more pronounced for leaders who are ingroup members (i.e., stemming from the same social group as their followers) than for leaders who are outgroup members (i.e., leaders stemming from a different social group than their followers). We tested our hypotheses in two studies. Results of a field study ($N = 95$) showed the expected relationship between leaders' group oriented values and followers' identification with their leaders. A scenario study ($N = 137$) replicated the results and extended it to followers' endorsement of their leaders. Overall, these findings suggest that displaying group oriented values pays off more for ingroup than for outgroup leaders

Keywords: Leader group orientedness; group oriented values; leader group membership; identification with the leader; endorsement of the leader

The relationship between leaders' group oriented values and follower identification with and endorsement of leaders: The moderating role of leaders' group membership

Several studies have demonstrated the importance of leader group orientedness for followers' perceptions of and responses to their leaders (e.g., Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Platow & van Knippenberg, 2001; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993; van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005). Leaders who think and act in a group oriented manner are trusted that they consider the welfare of the group and not just their own personal interests (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005). This, in turn, has a positive impact on followers' perception of their leader, the willingness to follow his or her requests, and followers' motivation to act on behalf of the group (Hogg, 2001; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003).

In the present study, we aim to integrate this rationale with the literature on group membership. We focus on leaders' underlying value orientation as an indicator for his or her level of group orientedness and expect that leaders who display group oriented values are judged more positively than leaders who do not display these values. Additionally, there is consistent evidence that people perceive ingroup members more positively than outgroup members (e.g., Macy & Skvoretz, 1998; Yamagishi & Kiyonari, 2000). People expect of ingroup members that they take the group's interests to heart and, therefore, tend to perceive them more positively than outgroup members (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005). Based on this notion, we hypothesize that ingroup leaders receive more favorable evaluations from their followers than outgroup leaders. Most importantly, we predict that both effects will interact such that the effect of leaders' group oriented values will be stronger for ingroup leaders than for outgroup leaders. The social identity model of leadership (Hogg, 2001; Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003) suggests that followers trust ingroup leaders to behave in a group oriented way whereas they are more doubtful about outgroup leaders' level of group

orientedness (Ullrich, Christ, & van Dick, 2009; van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005). These expectations should have a profound effect on followers' evaluations of their leaders' group oriented values because there is a strong human tendency to perceive and behave consistent with one's expectations (Nickerson, 1998; Snyder & Swann, 1978). This suggests that the display of group oriented values by an ingroup leader should have a stronger effect on followers' evaluations than the display of group oriented values by an outgroup leader.

We believe that examining these hypotheses can make an important contribution to the understanding of values in the leadership process. Group oriented values are a central aspect of individuals' value systems and have a profound impact on people's attitudes and behaviors (Schwartz, 2005, 2006). With the present research we strive to unravel one important boundary condition for the effects of leaders' group oriented values on their followers. Additionally, this study may help to solve essential practical problems. Interim managers, project leaders, or leaders in newly merged organization are all examples for outgroup members leading groups. Against this background, it seems important to examine how the group membership of a leader may affect followers and their perceptions of leaders' group orientedness. Also, it seems worthwhile to investigate whether ingroup leaders can rely on their ingroup membership for follower endorsement or whether they too have to communicate their group orientedness. To this end, we conducted two studies, a survey study and a scenario experiment, both of which involved samples of employees from a broad range of organizational contexts.

Leader group orientedness and follower perceptions and responses

In the past decades, researchers have demonstrated that the leader's focus on the collective is essential for followers' responses to their leaders. These studies show that leadership evaluations depend on whether the leader involves group members in taking decisions (i.e., is procedurally fair; de Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2002; Tyler & Blader,

2000, 2003); whether he or she shows identification with the group (i.e., perceives a strong bond to the group and dedication to its goals; Ashforth & Mael, 1989; van Dick & Schuh, 2010); and whether he or she is willing to engage in self-sacrificing behavior (i.e., to abandon or postpone personal interests or welfare the group; Choi & Mai-Dalton, 1999; de Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2004; van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005). The common characteristic of these behaviors is that they focus on the welfare of the group rather than on individualistically centered outcomes. Hence, as van Knippenberg and Hogg (2003) pointed out, they demonstrate a leader's level of group orientedness. Prior research has shown that these behaviors relate to favorable leadership perceptions including leader endorsement (i.e., the degree to which a person is regarded as the right person to lead a group) and identification with the leader (i.e., the degree to which followers perceive an overlap between their own and their leader's identity; Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003; Shamir, Zakay, Breinin, & Popper, 1998; Ullrich et al., 2009; van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005).

One of the central explanations for these effects is that leaders' group orientedness builds trust among followers (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005). Group oriented behavior signals that the leader takes the group's interest to heart. It demonstrates that the leader is willing to neglect personal interests and to incur personal costs to serve the common goal and mission (Shamir et al., 1993). This behavior fosters the conviction among followers that this leader is reliable and likely to act in a group oriented way in the future (van Lange et al., 1997). Hence, it should result in favorable perceptions of the leader (Hogg, 2001; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990; van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005). As van Knippenberg and Hogg (2003, p. 252) aptly stated: "Leaders who are trusted to have the group's best interest at heart will be liked more and endorsed more strongly than others who are perceived to be less group oriented." Additionally, group oriented behavior also signals the leaders' regard for the group and its members (de Cremer & van Knippenberg,

2004). Showing dedication to the collective communicates that the leader sees the collective and its goals as valuable. This demonstration of esteem should have a positive effect on followers' liking for their leader and result in favorable leadership perceptions (Hogg & Abrams, 1988; Rodin, 1978).

In most studies, leaders' level of group orientedness has been conceptualized as their display of group oriented attitudes and behaviors (e.g., van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005). However, instead of analyzing a leader's degree of group orientedness as the display of behaviors such as self-sacrifice, we conceptualized it as an underlying value orientation. Values are central elements of people's cognitive networks of attitudes (Rokeach, 1973; Rosenberg, 1960, 1968). Whereas attitudes and behaviors can easily be influenced and changed, value orientations are more stable and coherent and, therefore, might speak stronger about a leader's true sense of group orientedness (e.g., Maio, Roese, Seligman, & Katz, 1996). As Lord and Brown (2001) pointed out, value orientations have powerful effects on behavior and should thus be used to evaluate and explain behavioral reactions. Moreover, in their connectionist model of leadership, Lord and Brown (2001) propose that group oriented values may directly relate to a focus on the collective and group oriented behaviors.

In summary, research has shown that leader group orientedness and group oriented behaviors are associated with factors that positively influence followers' perceptions and evaluations of their leaders. However, there are no studies that conceptualize a leader's degree of group orientedness as an underlying value orientation. That is surprising given that values are recognized to be among the most important predictors of attitudes and behavior in all areas of life, including work contexts (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003; Graf, Van Quaquebeke, & van Dick, 2011; Hemingway & Maclagan, 2004; Maio & Olson, 1995; Meglino & Ravlin, 1998). Therefore, we aim to test the hypothesis that leaders who display group oriented values will receive higher ratings of leader identification and endorsement than leaders who do not

display group oriented values. Furthermore, and as we will line out in the following section, we assume that the influence of a leader's group orientedness depends on his or her group membership, i.e., if he or she is considered to be a member of the ingroup (i.e., internal leader) or a member of the outgroup (i.e., external leader). Previous research suggests that ingroup members are judged more positively than outgroup members (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). Therefore, we expect that ingroup leaders will benefit more strongly (i.e., receive more favorable follower evaluations) from displaying group oriented values than outgroup leaders.

Hypothesis 1a: Followers identify with group oriented leaders more strongly than with non-group oriented leaders.

Hypothesis 1b: Followers endorse group oriented leaders more strongly than non-group oriented leaders.

Leader group membership and follower perceptions and responses

Leadership evaluations through followers are contingent on a host of personal, situational, and organizational characteristics (see Yukl, 2010). When it comes to the influence of a leader's group membership, it is typically assumed that leaders who are members of an ingroup are perceived more favorably than leaders who are members of an outgroup. This assumption is consistent with research on intergroup behaviors that shows, for example, that ingroup members trust members of their group more than outgroup members (e.g., Macy & Skvoretz, 1998; Yamagishi & Kiyonari, 2000) and expect members of the outgroup to discriminate against ingroup members (e.g., Schopler & Insko, 1992; Vanbeselaere, 1993; Vivian & Berkowitz, 1992). According to Brewer (1979, 1999), the general preference for ingroups over outgroups stems from the notion that people can expect to be treated more favorably by ingroup members than by outgroup members. Moreover, shared experiences and cooperation with outgroups threaten the basis for processes of social

identification: According to the social identity approach, ingroups seek not only for differentiation from outgroups but for positive distinctiveness (Tajfel & Turner, 1986; Turner, 1975), striving for intergroup comparisons that favor their group over other groups. Thus, ingroups value those characteristics with respect to which they see themselves as different from and better than outgroups (see Brewer, 1999). As a consequences of these processes, followers are likely to identify with and endorse a leader more if he or she belongs to the ingroup rather than if he or she is an outgroup member.

Hypothesis 2a: Followers identify with ingroup leaders more strongly than outgroup leaders.

Hypothesis 2b: Followers endorse ingroup leaders more strongly than outgroup leaders.

The interaction of leader group membership and group orientedness on follower perceptions and response

Group membership has a strong impact on human behavior (Tajfel & Turner, 1986; Turner, 1975). Members of an ingroup are more likely to behave in a group oriented way than members of an outgroup (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). As a result, followers tend to expect that leader group orientedness and leader group membership go together (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005). They trust an ingroup leader to behave in a group oriented way while they are more doubtful whether an outgroup leader will take the group's interests to heart.

Prior research has shown that expectations affect the perception and interpretation of other people's behavior (Fiske & Taylor, 2007). There is a strong human tendency to confirm one's expectations. According to the confirmation bias, people tend to recognize and recall information in a way that is consistent with their expectations (Snyder & Swann, 1978). Moreover, they are likely to neglect information that does not fit their expectations

(Nickerson, 1998). Because followers expect group orientedness of ingroup leaders, it is likely that they will notice and recall the display of group oriented values of these leaders. In contrast, subordinates are less likely to expect outgroup leaders to take the group's interest to heart. As a result, the display of group oriented values of an ingroup leader should have a positive effect on followers' leadership perceptions while outgroup leaders' group orientedness is more likely to go unnoticed and should thus have a weaker effect on followers' evaluations.

This reasoning coincides with predictions of the outgroup homogeneity model (Park & Rothbart, 1982; Quattrone & Jones, 1980). This model suggests that individuals perceive outgroup members more homogeneously than ingroup members (Simon, 1992). Consequently, individuals' perceptions of outgroup leaders' behavior should be more uniform than their perceptions of ingroup leaders. Group oriented values of an outgroup leader should, therefore, have a weaker effect on leadership perceptions than group oriented values of an ingroup leader. Based on this reasoning, we expect that leader group oriented values and leader group membership interact such that group oriented ingroup leaders will be more positively perceived than group oriented outgroup leaders. Accordingly, we put forward the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3a: The effect of leader group orientedness on leader identification is stronger for ingroup leaders than for outgroup leaders.

Hypothesis 3a: The effect of leader group orientedness on leader endorsement is stronger for ingroup leaders than for outgroup leaders.

Study 1

Method

Participants and design

Respondents were 95 German employees (60% male; Mean age = 40.35 years, $SD = 9.75$). Questionnaires were handed out to four hundred potential respondents (response rate = 23.8%), together with an addressed and pre-stamped envelope. All respondents were employed (average tenure $M = 15.57$ years, $SD = 10.60$) and reported directly to a leader.

Measures

Participants were asked to complete a questionnaire, which was introduced as part of a larger study on the influences of values on leaders' and followers' perceptions and behaviors. They were asked to think of their leader and that they were to answer the following questions accordingly.

Leaders' level of group oriented values was measured with the Portrait Values Questionnaire (PVQ; Schwartz, 2005, 2006; Schwartz, Melech, Lehmann, Burgess, & Harris, 2001). The PVQ is based on Schwartz's (1992, 1994) influential circumplex model, which distinguishes two fundamental motivational dimensions of the human value systems: Openness to change versus conservation referring to independence in thought and action and readiness for new experience versus self-restriction and resistance to change and self-enhancement versus self-transcendence which refers to pursuit of self-interests versus concern for the welfare and interests of others (Roccas & Brewer, 2002; Schwartz, 2009). As Rohan (2000) stated, this second dimension "relates to the conflict between concern for the consequences of own and others' actions for the self and concern for the consequences of own and others' actions in the social context" (p. 260). Individuals who score high on these values demonstrate concern and care for those with whom they have frequent contact and displaying acceptance, tolerance, and concern for others (Schwartz, 2009; Schwartz & Bardi, 2001). Individuals who score high in these values tend to readily identify with social groups (Roccas, 2003). Additionally, these individuals seek justice and equality and want to be helpful and

loyal against others (Roccas, 2003). Hence, they strive to behave in a group oriented (as opposed to a self-focused) way.

The PVQ measures self-transcendence values with five items. For each item, participants were asked to what extent the person described in each portrait resembled their leader. In line with Schwartz (1992, 1994) recommendation we created the standard index for self-transcendence by averaging participants' scores on these five items. Sample items are: "It is important to this person to be loyal to people. He or she wants to devote him- or herself to people around him or her" and "It is important to this person to listen to people who are different from him or her. Even when he or she disagrees with them, he or she still wants to understand them". All items were rated on a 6-point response scale with the endpoints 1 = "strongly disagree" to 6 = "strongly agree". Cronbach's alpha revealed a good internal consistency of the scale ($\alpha = .88$, $M = 3.57$, $SD = 1.21$).

The leader's degree of group membership was measured by using two items: "My leader is more a member of our workgroup rather than a member of the management team" and "My leader is a member of the team". Again, answers were given on a six-point response scale with endpoints "fully disagree", and "fully agree", respectively. Cronbach's alpha revealed good internal consistency ($\alpha = .86$, $M = 3.15$, $SD = 1.48$).

Identification with the leader was assessed with Ullrich, Nimmerfroh, and van Dick's (2010) three item short-form of Mael and Ashforth's (1992) identification measure. This scale had been developed based on a survey of 3215 participants and provides a reliable and economical measure of identification (Ullrich et al., 2010; van Dick et al., 2011). Sample items are: "When I talk about my leader, I usually say "we" rather than "he or she" and "My leader's successes are my successes". Participants responded on a six-point answering scale with endpoints "fully disagree", and "fully agree", respectively. Cronbach's alpha revealed good internal consistency ($\alpha = .78$, $M = 2.49$, $SD = 1.14$).

Results

Means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations for the study variables are displayed in Table 1. To test our hypotheses, we conducted hierarchical regression analyses. Leader group orientedness and leader group membership were each centered (Aiken & West, 1991), and the interaction term as well as the main effects were based on these centered scores. In Step 1, we entered leader group orientedness and leader group membership into the model. In Step 2, the interaction term was added.

Table 2 shows the regression results. The main effects of leader group orientedness ($\beta = .51, p < .001$) and leader group membership ($\beta = .33, p < .01$) were significant and supported Hypotheses 1a and 2a. The interaction, which was the main focus of the study, was also significant ($\beta = .18, p < .05$) and thus supported Hypothesis 3a. As expected, both leader group orientedness and leader group membership were positively related to identification with the leader (see Figure 1). To further analyze the interaction, we conducted simple slopes analyses (Aiken & West, 1991). In line with our hypothesis the relationship between leader group orientedness and identification with the leader was stronger for ingroup leaders ($\beta = .60, p < .01$) than for the outgroup leaders ($\beta = .29, p < .05$). Taken together, these results suggest that the effect of leader group oriented values were contingent on the leader's group membership and that the positive effect was increased when the leader was perceived as an ingroup member.

Discussion

The results of provide initial support for the proposed relationships: identification with the leader was strongest when the leader was evaluated as group oriented *and* perceived as a member of the ingroup. However, Study 1 is a survey study that is correlational in nature, relied on mere perceptions and ratings of leader behavior, and assessed all variables in a single questionnaire. It might thus be, that causality actually follows a reversed pattern and

that employees who more strongly identify with their leaders, perceive his or her group oriented values different from those who are less identified. Therefore, Study 2 aimed to replicate the findings by manipulating both leader group orientedness and leader group membership in a scenario setting with random assignment of participants to the conditions. The advantage of a scenario setting is that it yields results with high internal validity and produces responses similar to real world settings (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005). Moreover, to extend the findings of Study 1, leader endorsement was added as another dependent measure.

Study 2

Method

Participants and design

A total of one 137 German employees (67% female; average age $M = 33.30$ years, $SD = 7.19$) voluntarily participated in the online scenario study and were entered into a 100 EUR gift certificate lottery. The design was a 2 (leader group membership: ingroup vs. outgroup) x 2 (leader group orientedness: high vs. low) mixed-factorial design. All participants completed the scenarios for the leader group membership ingroup and outgroup conditions. Thus, the effect of leader group membership was analyzed as a within-subjects factor.

Procedure

For this study, participants' point of reference was solely formed by the experimentally controlled information they received about the group, its members and the leader. Thus, we ensured that they were not influenced by different lengths of the instruction or different connotations of the categorization criterion. Participants were told that the study would examine the influences of personal values. They were randomly assigned to one of the

conditions and were asked to imagine that they were member of a team, then a team leader was be portrayed, and they were to answer the following questions accordingly.

In the *ingroup leader* condition, participants were told that their team was led by an internal leader. In the *outgroup leader* condition, participants were informed that their team was led by an external leader.

In order to achieve a strong and concise manipulation for leaders' level of group orientedness, we adopted two items of the PVQ to manipulate leaders' group orientedness. This decision was based on two studies, which we had conducted prior to the present research. In these studies ($N_1 = 136$ and $N_2 = 131$) we had asked participants to imagine an ideal leader. Then they filled in the PVQ. The two items in the present study were the items that in each of the two studies had consistently been regarded as the most important self-transcendence values. These items are: "It is important to this person to be loyal to people. He or she wants to devote himself to people around him" and "It is important to this person to listen to people who are different from him or her. Even when he or she disagrees with them, he or she still wants to understand them". In the *high leader group oriented values* condition, the leaders were described as follows: "It is important to the internal/external leader to be loyal to his or her followers. He or she wants to devote him- or herself to them. In addition, it is important to the leader to listen to his or her followers' opinions. Even when he or she disagrees with them, he or she still wants to understand them". In the *low leader group oriented values* condition, the leaders were described as follows: "It is *not* important to the internal/external leader to be loyal to his or her followers. He or she *does not* want to devote him- or herself to them. In addition, it is *not* important to the leader to listen to his or her followers' opinions. Even when he or she disagrees with them, he or she still *does not* want to understand them".¹

Manipulation checks

The leader group membership manipulation was checked with the item: “My leader is a member of the team”. The leader group orientedness value manipulation was checked with item: “My leader identifies with the team”.

Dependent variables

Participants’ identification with the leader was assessed as described in Study 1. Cronbach’s alphas revealed acceptable internal consistencies (ingroup: $\alpha = .82$, $M = 2.58$, $SD = 0.99$; outgroup: $\alpha = .69$, $M = 1.56$, $SD = 0.67$). Leader endorsement was measured with three items from Ullrich et al. (2009): “He / she should definitely be my leader again”, “He / she is the right person to be my leader” and “I would definitely vote for him / her if a vote for leader was pending”. Participants responded on five-point answering scales with endpoints “fully disagree”, and “fully agree”, respectively. Cronbach’s alphas revealed good internal consistencies (ingroup: $\alpha = .96$, $M = 2.85$, $SD = 1.29$; outgroup: $\alpha = .93$, $M = 1.81$, $SD = 0.89$).

Results

Descriptive statistics and intercorrelations for the dependent variables

Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics and intercorrelations for the dependent variables of Study 2. The correlations between the dependent variables show that ingroup and outgroup identification and endorsement correlated between $r = .23$, $p < .01$, and $r = .55$, $p < .01$. These correlations indicate that the variables under inquiry can be perceived as related but not identical. In addition, we conducted a confirmatory factor analysis, which confirmed that a two-factor solution ingroup identification and endorsement showed an adequate fit with the data ($\chi^2 (8) = 18.20$; CFI = .99; NNFI = .97; RMSEA = .10; SRMR = .07) and a significantly better fit than a one-factor solution ($\chi^2 (9) = 133.02$; CFI = .82; NNFI = .71; RMSEA = .32; SRMR = .15; $\Delta\chi^2 (1) = 114.82$, $p < .001$). Likewise, a two-factor solution outgroup identification and endorsement showed an acceptable fit with the data ($\chi^2 (8) = 14.79$; CFI = .98; NNFI = .97; RMSEA = .08; SRMR = .07) and fitted the data better than a

one-factor solution ($\chi^2(9) = 78.84$; CFI = .84, NNFI = .73; RMSEA = .24; SRMR = .12; $\Delta\chi^2(1) = 64.05$, $p < .001$). These analyses support the proposed two-factor solution for identification and endorsement.

Manipulation check

The manipulation check for group membership showed that the leader in the ingroup condition was perceived to be more strongly a member of the team ($M = 4.20$) than the leader in the outgroup condition ($M = 1.97$, $F(1, 136) = 458.91$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .77$). This indicates that the manipulation of leader group membership was successful. The manipulation check for leaders' group orientedness revealed that the leader in the high group orientedness condition was perceived to be more group oriented ($M = 4.66$) than the leader in the low group orientedness condition ($M = 1.31$, $F(1, 136) = 3.80$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .03$). This indicates that the manipulation of leader group orientedness was also successful.

Identification with leader

To test our hypotheses, we conducted a 2 x 2 ANOVA. Results revealed a significant main effect of group oriented values (i.e., the between factor), $F(1, 135) = 38.73$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .22$, showing that participants identified stronger with the group oriented leader ($M = 3.03$ vs. 2.08, $SD = .89$ vs. .85) than with the self-oriented leader ($M = 1.72$ vs. 1.38, $SD = .77$ vs. .49). Hypothesis 1a is thus supported. Moreover, a significant main effect of leader group membership (i.e., the within factor) was found, $F(1, 135) = 150.86$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .53$, showing that participants identified stronger with the ingroup leader than with the outgroup leader ($M = 2.58$ vs. 1.56, $SD = .99$ vs. .67). Thus, Hypothesis 2a is also supported. Finally, the interaction effect between leader group oriented values and leader group membership also showed, $F(1, 135) = 14.36$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .10$ (see Figure 2): in the ingroup leader conditions, the difference between the high group oriented values leader ($M = 3.03$, $SD = .89$) and the low group oriented values leader ($M = 2.08$, $SD = .85$) was significantly more pronounced, $F(1,$

135) = 40.66, $p < .01$, than in the outgroup leader conditions ($M = 1.72$, $SD = .77$ and $M = 1.38$, $SD = .49$), $F(1, 135) = 8.99$, $p < .01$. Thus, Hypothesis 3a is also supported.

Endorsement of the leader

A 2 x 2 ANOVA on the endorsement score revealed a significant main effect of leader group oriented values, $F(1, 135) = 183.07$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .58$, showing that participants endorsed the group oriented leader more ($M = 3.75$ vs. 1.85 , $SD = .94$ vs. $.78$) than the self-oriented leader ($M = 2.25$ vs. 1.33 , $SD = .88$ vs. $.60$). Hypothesis 1b is thus supported. Moreover, a significant main effect of leader group membership was found, $F(1, 135) = 118.52$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .47$, showing that participants endorsed the ingroup leader more than the outgroup leader ($M = 2.85$ vs. 1.81 , $SD = 1.29$ vs. $.89$). Thus, Hypothesis 2b is also supported. Finally, the interaction effect between leader group oriented values and leader group membership showed, $F(1, 135) = 28.07$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .17$ (see Figure 3): in the ingroup leader conditions, the difference between the high group oriented values leader ($M = 3.75$, $SD = .94$) and the low group oriented values leader ($M = 1.85$, $SD = .78$) was significantly more pronounced, $F(1, 135) = 165.02$, $p < .01$, than in the outgroup leader conditions ($M = 2.25$, $SD = .88$ and $M = 1.33$, $SD = .60$), $F(1, 135) = 49.92$, $p < .01$. Thus, Hypothesis 3b is also supported.

General discussion

Study 2 replicated our first study and extended its findings to followers' endorsement of their leader. In addition, an important aspect of Study 2 is that it allowed us to establish causality in the proposed effects. Taken together, both studies supported the prediction that group oriented values influence followers' perceptions of their leaders. The leader's display of group oriented values resulted in positive perceptions of and responses to him or her. While these effects may be seen as similar to findings in previous studies (see Choi & Mai-Dalton, 1999; de Cremer, 2002; de Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2004; van Knippenberg & van

Knippenberg, 2005; Yorges, Weiss, & Strickland, 1999), the present studies extend prior research by providing first evidence for a leader's underlying value orientation as an indicator for group orientedness.

Moreover, both studies supported the hypothesis that leader group membership affects identification with and endorsement of a leader. Ingroup leaders were perceived and evaluated more positively than outgroup leaders. These effects are in line with predictions from the social identity analysis of leadership. Previous research has shown that outgroup leaders are generally perceived and evaluated more negatively than ingroup leaders (Duck & Fielding, 1999, 2003; Jetten, Duck, Terry, & O'Brien, 2002). In addition, our results indicate that outgroup leaders who behave group oriented are still less likely to be identified with and endorsed than ingroup leaders who do not behave group oriented.

The central finding of the present studies concerns the interaction of leader group orientedness and leader group membership. Consistently across the two studies, both factors interacted in predicting leadership evaluations. The results show that ingroup leaders benefitted more strongly from displaying group oriented values than outgroup leaders. Hence, leaders' group membership seems to be an important boundary condition for the positive effects of leaders' group orientedness. This finding nicely complements prior work on leader group orientedness that focused on the moderating role of a leader's prototypicality (e.g., Ullrich et al., 2009; van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005). These studies found that highly prototypical leaders (i.e., leaders who are similar to the other team members; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003) benefit less from being group oriented than less prototypical leaders. At first glance, these findings may seem to stand in contradiction to the results of the present study. However, there are marked differences between these studies and the present research. Most importantly, both types of prototypical leaders (i.e., highly and lowly ones) were generally operationalized as *ingroup leaders* whereas the present study examined the

difference between *ingroup and outgroup* leaders. For an ingroup leader the doubt in his or her group orientedness (based on his or her level of prototypicality) may be relatively low - he or she is still a member of the ingroup. However, strong distrust in a leader (i.e., in an outgroup leader) may not be compensated by the display of group oriented actions. These leaders may have to become a formal member of the team to receive followers' trust and to benefit from the display of group oriented actions (e.g., by giving up the status of an interim manager and becoming part of the organization).

Practical implications

The findings of the present studies also have important practical implications. A better understanding of the function of a leader's group orientedness in interaction with his or her group membership may enable organizations to put the right leaders in the right place. Our results suggest that outgroup leaders do not benefit as much as ingroup leaders when being perceived and evaluated as group oriented. However, organizations typically operate in complex contexts where group boundaries might be less clear, such as in cases where teams are lead by interim managers or in situations of organizational mergers, where leaders of the separated premerger organizations become leaders of the merged organization. In addition, leaders do not often emerge on the basis of their group orientedness or group membership but are selected by the management board. However, groups may not identify and endorse with the selected leaders. Our results clearly suggest that it may be useful to select those leaders who are already part of the group and behave group oriented. We acknowledge the fact that it might not always be possible to appoint leaders based on our findings. Nevertheless, organizations should recognize that internal and group oriented leaders are perceived and evaluated more positively and thus considered to be more effective.

Limitations and directions for future research

The present studies are not without limitations. A first concern may relate to the potential influence of common method variance. In Study 1, we used a single source design and relied on participants' perceptions and reactions. Thus, the main effects of leader group orientedness and leader group membership may be overestimated. However, it is important to note that common method bias cannot account for the obtained interactions. The influence of common method variance rather leads to an underestimation of the effect sizes of the interaction and decrease its statistical power, because the main effects would be inflated (see Evans, 1985; McClelland & Judd, 1993; Morris, Sherman, & Mansfield, 1986; Zedeck, 1971). Additionally we obtained experimental evidence for the proposed main effects and interactions in Study 2, which also argues against common method bias as explanation for our findings.

A second limitation of our studies is that we exclusively measured followers' responses to their leader. Even though leader endorsement and identification with the leader are key concepts in leadership research as they are strongly associated with employee's motivation to follow their leaders (e.g., to behave as group oriented as he or she did), they capture follower perceptions rather than actual follower behavior (e.g., group oriented behavior like civic virtue; Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997). Therefore, we want to encourage future research to try to replicate the present findings using direct or other-rated indicators on follower behavior.

Another promising avenue for future research may be to examine the integrative effects of leaders' group membership and leaders' group prototypicality. For instance, outgroup leaders (analogous to ingroup leaders) should differ with respect to their prototypicality. Some outgroup leaders may be more prototypical for *their* group than others. This may affect followers' reaction to these leaders as they might be seen as even more alien

to their follower's group. Consequently, this may also influence followers' reactions to their display of group oriented values.

Conclusion

Group oriented values are a central aspect of human value systems and strongly affect people's perceptions and behaviors. The present study provides evidence for their impact in a leadership context. We believe that both, the investigation of leaders' group oriented values and the differentiation between ingroup and outgroup leaders can be fruitful directions for future research. They may not only enhance our understanding of leadership influence but also contribute to our understanding as to when and how values matter in the process.

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Table 1: Means, Standard deviations and intercorrelations for variables of Study 1 ($N = 95$)

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>
1. Leader Group Orientedness	3.57	1.21	(.88)	-	-
2. Leader Group Membership	3.15	1.48	.55**	(.86)	-
3. Identification with Leader	2.47	1.14	.59**	.55**	(.78)

Notes. Cronbach's alphas are in parentheses.

** $p < .01$.

Table 2: Results of hierarchical regression analysis of identification with leader on leader group orientedness and leader group membership, Study 1 ($N = 95$)

	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1		.42 ^{***}	.42 ^{***}
Leader Group Orientedness (LGO)	.47 ^{***}		
Leader Group Membership (LGM)	.37 ^{**}		
Step 2		.44 ^{***}	.02 [*]
Leader Group Orientedness (LGO)	.51 ^{***}		
Leader Group Membership (LGM)	.33 ^{**}		
LGO x LGM	.18 [*]		

Notes. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 3: *Descriptive statistics and intercorrelations for dependent variables of Study 2 (N = 137)*

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>
1. <i>ingroup</i> Identification with Leader	2.58	0.99	(.82)	-	-	-
2. <i>outgroup</i> Identification with Leader	1.56	0.67	.33**	(.69)	-	-
3. <i>ingroup</i> Endorsement of Leader	2.85	1.29	.55**	.23**	(.96)	-
4. <i>outgroup</i> Endorsement of Leader	1.81	0.89	.16	.41**	.45**	(.93)

Notes. Cronbach's alphas in parentheses.

** $p < .01$.

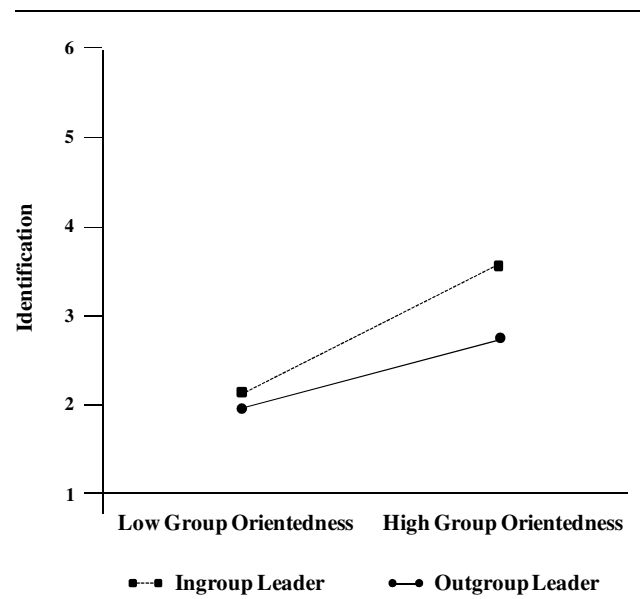


Figure 1: The relationship between leader group orientedness and identification with leader as a function of leader group membership.

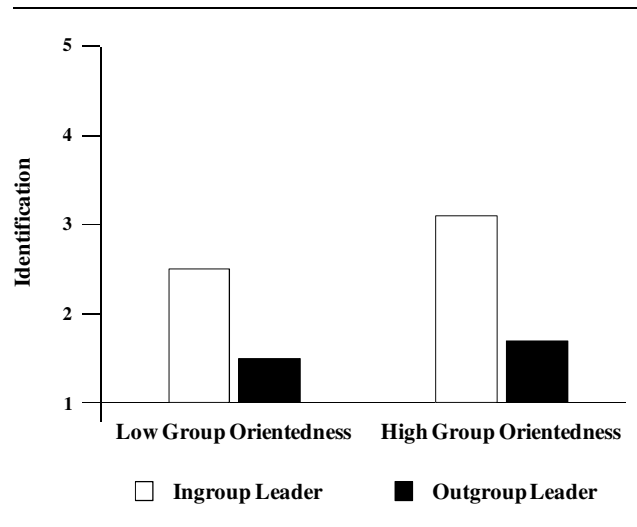


Figure 2: The relationship between leader group orientedness and identification with leader as a function of leader group membership.

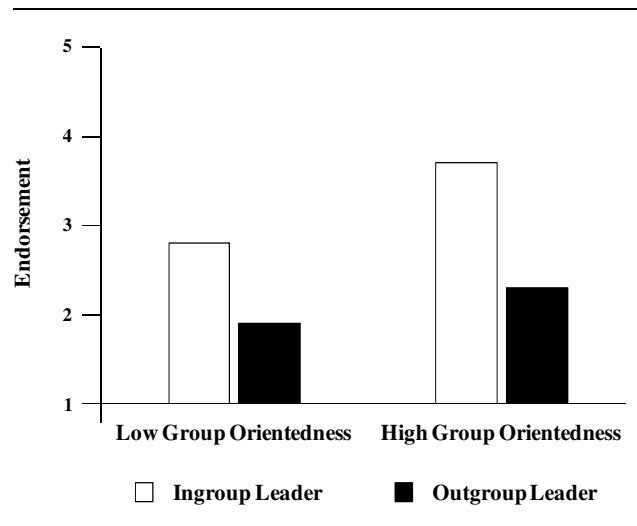


Figure 3: The relationship between leader group orientedness and endorsement of leader as a function of leader group membership.

Footnotes

1) To ensure consistency between the two studies of the present research, we recalculated our analysis in Study 1. To this end, we used a measure of leader group oriented values based exclusively on the two items used in Study 2. We found the same pattern of results as reported above. More specifically, we found that leader group orientedness ($\beta = .39, p < .01$) and leader group membership ($\beta = .33, p < .01$) predicted identification with the leader, supporting Hypotheses 1a and 1b. Additionally, we found a significant effect of the expected interaction between leader group orientedness and leader group membership ($\beta = .19, p < .05$), which provided support for Hypothesis 3a. Simple slopes analysis showed that the relationship between leader group orientedness and identification with the leader was stronger for ingroup leaders ($\beta = .61, p < .01$) than for outgroup leaders ($\beta = .24, p < .05$). Taken together, this pattern of results is fully consistent with the results reported above and speaks for the robustness of the hypothesized effect.

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A. Anhang

A.1 Erklärung

A.1 Erklärung

Hiermit erkläre ich, mich bisher keiner Doktorprüfung unterzogen zu haben.

Darüber hinaus erkläre ich an Eides statt, dass ich die vorgelegte Dissertation: *„Der Einfluss von Werten und Unwerten auf das Erleben und Verhalten von Führungskräften und Mitarbeitern“* selbständig angefertigt und mich keinen anderen Hilfsmitteln als den in ihr angegebenen bedient habe, insbesondere, dass alle Entlehnungen aus anderen Schriften mit Angabe der betreffenden Schrift gekennzeichnet sind.

Des Weiteren erkläre ich, keine Hilfe einer kommerziellen Promotionsvermittlung in Anspruch genommen zu haben.

Hamburg, den 03. November 2011

Matthias Michael Graf