Felicitas M. Morhart, Walter Herzog, & Torsten Tomczak

Brand-Specific Leadership: Turning Employees into Brand Champions

This article reports two studies on how managers can elicit brand-building behavior from frontline employees. Study 1 examines the mechanisms by which brand-specific transactional and transformational leadership influence employees' brand-building behavior. The results from a survey of 269 customer-contact employees show that brand-specific transactional leaders influence followers through a process of compliance, leading to an increase in turnover intentions and a decrease in in-role and extra-role brand-building behaviors. In contrast, brand-specific transformational leaders influence followers through a process of internalization, leading to a decrease in turnover intentions and an increase in in-role and extra-role brand-building behaviors. In turn, both processes are mediated by employees' perceptions of autonomy, competence, and relatedness with regard to their work roles as brand representatives. Moreover, the results show that brand-specific transactional leadership moderates the influence of brand-specific transformational leadership in a nonlinear, inverse U-shaped way, so that a medium level of transactional leadership maximizes the positive effects of transformational leadership. Study 2 addresses whether managers can learn brand-specific transformational leadership. A field experiment shows that brand-specific transformational leadership can indeed be learned through management training.

Keywords: corporate branding, transformational leadership, frontline employees, social identity, self-determination, covariance structure analysis, field experiment

I n an era of rapid growth of service firms, both researchers and practitioners have come to acknowledge that employee performance plays a vital role in the success of a service brand. Unlike with product brands, for which consumers' perceptions of a brand derive predominantly from a product's tangible features, customers' perceptions of a service brand depend highly on the behavior of frontline staff (e.g., Hartline, Maxham, and McKee 2000). Thus, the task of getting employees to build and strengthen an organization's brand image (i.e., to act as "brand champions") is a challenge for service firms in many industries. Recent research in the area of internal brand management has stimulated the search for antecedent conditions that are likely to promote brand-supportive behaviors on the part of frontline workers. Among other organizational variables, supervisory behavior has been proposed as a key driving force in this effort (Miles and Mangold 2004; with regard to leaders' role in internal marketing in general, see Wieseke et al. 2009). However, research attempts to substantiate this assumption conceptually and empirically are scarce. In particular, the question of what leaders can actually do to get their followers to act on behalf of the corporate brand is still open.

This research attempts to answer this question. In Study 1, we examine how different leadership styles affect customer-contact personnel's brand-building behavior and how they interact in producing effects. In doing so, we draw on the distinction between two fundamental approaches to employee supervision: transactional leadership (TRL) and transformational leadership (TFL) (Bass 1985). We draw on identity and motivation theories (Ashforth and Mael 1989; Deci and Ryan 1985) to develop our theoretical framework from which we derive our hypotheses about the different working mechanisms of these two leadership styles and their interplay. In Study 2, we address whether managers can learn brand-specific TFL, which we find to be more effective than brand-specific TRL in Study 1. We present and discuss the results of a field experiment on the effects of a brand-specific leadership training intervention.

Study 1

In this study, we explore the psychological mechanisms by which brand-specific transformational and transactional leaders may influence employees' brand-building behaviors. We begin by elaborating on the central constructs of our process model.

Definitions

Employee brand-building behaviors. There is some notable work on the role of frontline employees in shaping customers' experience in the service context (e.g., Bettencourt, Brown, and MacKenzie 2005; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry 1985). The idea of customer-contact personnel's actions determining the image of a service firm in customers' minds also underpins a new concept known as

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"employee brand-building behavior" (Miles and Mangold 2004). However, prior literature on the idea of employees as brand builders is rather vague in terminology, with authors speaking of employees as "brand ambassadors" or "brand maniacs," "brand champions," and "brand evangelists" (VanAuken 2003) who "transform brand vision into brand reality" (Berry 2000, p. 135), without providing a concrete conceptualization that goes beyond employees delivering high service quality. Therefore, we define "employee brand-building behavior" as employees' contribution (both on and off the job) to an organization's customer-oriented branding efforts. To come up with a viable operationalization, we conducted an extensive literature review over a mixed body of knowledge comprising work from services marketing (Heskett, Sasser, and Schlesinger 1997, 2003), relationship marketing (Arnett, German, and Hunt 2003; Bhattacharya and Sen 2003), employee branding (Miles and Mangold 2004), brand communities (Algesheimer, Dholakia, and Herrmann 2005), and organizational citizenship behavior on the part of customer-contact employees (Bettencourt and Brown 2003; Bettencourt, Brown, and MacKenzie 2005; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Ahearne 1998). These works suggest a list of employee brand-building behaviors that can be classified into three categories (according to Motowidlo and Van Scotter 1994) and, as such, serve as key dependent variables throughout Study 1 in the current research.

"Retention" refers to employees' upholding their professional relationship with the corporate brand. A service firm's ability to maintain stability in its customer-contact staff is crucial. Frontline employees humanize a service brand and help customers connect emotionally to it. Long-lasting relationships are likely to spark feelings of closeness, affection, and trust of customers toward brand representatives, all of which pay into a brand's competitive advantage. However, when customers are confronted with ever-changing contact personnel, they have difficulty developing such a relationship with the corporate brand. "In-role brand-building behavior" refers to frontline employees' meeting the standards prescribed by their organizational roles as brand representatives (either written in behavioral codices, manuals, display rules, and so forth, or unwritten). Specifically in the service context, customers' brand experience depends on frontline employees' behavior. Thus, it is crucial that representatives treat customers in a way that is consistent with the brand promise the organization conveys through its public messages. "Extra-role brand-building behavior" refers to employee actions that go beyond the prescribed roles for the good of the corporate brand and are discretionary. In this category, of the most important in terms of branding efforts are participation (on the job) and positive word of mouth (off the job). First, employees who actively participate in brand development (e.g., by internally passing on branding-relevant customer feedback from customer touchpoints) provide a company with high-quality input for its brand management. Second, employees' personal advocacy of the organization's product and service brands outside the job context is a credible form of advertising for actual and potential customers.

Brand-specific TRL and TFL. This study is primarily based on a prominent theoretical perspective in leadership research that contrasts two generic leadership philosophies: TRL and TFL (Bass 1985). While TRL is founded on the idea that leader–follower relationships are based on a series of exchanges or implicit bargains in which followers receive certain valued outcomes on the condition that they act according to their leaders' wishes, TFL implies the alignment of followers' values and priorities with the organization's goals to accomplish higher-order objectives. According to MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Rich (2001), TFL surpasses the impact of TRL on follower outcome variables in that transformational leaders elicit extra-role behaviors in addition to in-role behaviors from followers. In turn, this makes the dichotomy of TFL and TRL a useful approach for our research on the aforementioned categories of brand-building behavior.

Previous research has suggested leader behaviors that are typically associated with TFL and TRL (see Podsakoff et al. 1990). In the current study, consistent with Bass's (1985) original conception, we concentrate on the following leader behaviors as reflecting a TFL style: (1) charisma (or idealized influence), (2) inspirational motivation, (3) intellectual stimulation, and (4) individualized consideration. "Charisma" (idealized influence) is the degree to which the leader behaves in admirable ways that cause followers to identify with him or her. "Inspirational motivation" refers to a leader's ability to create a sense of collective mission among followers by articulating an exciting vision. Through "intellectual stimulation," a leader provides followers with challenging new ideas to stimulate rethinking of old ways of doing things. "Individualized consideration" refers to coaching and mentoring while trying to assist each individual in achieving his or her fullest potential.

In contrast, we consider (1) contingent reward and (2) management-by-exception behaviors as typical manifestations of a TRL style: "Contingent reward" refers to a leader clarifying expectations for followers and offering recognition when goals are achieved. Rewards are contingent on effort expended and performance level achieved. "Management-by-exception" describes a leader monitoring and reprimanding followers for deviances from prescribed performance standards, as well as taking immediate corrective action against poor performance.

In our attempt to understand leadership as an antecedent of the specific outcome of follower brand-building behavior, it is necessary to define a brand-specific version of TFL and TRL (for other domain-specific versions of TFL, see Barling, Loughlin, and Kelloway 2002). We define brand-specific TFL as a leader's approach to motivating his or her followers to act on behalf of the corporate brand by appealing to their values and personal convictions. Brand-specific TFL entails characteristic behaviors such as (1) acting as a role model and authentically "living" the brand values (brand-specific adaptation of charisma/idealized influence), (2) articulating a compelling and differentiating brand vision and arousing personal involvement and pride in the corporate brand (brand-specific adaptation of inspirational motivation), (3) making followers rethink their jobs from the perspective of a brand community member and empowering and helping followers to interpret their corporate brand's promise and its implications for work in their indi-

vidual ways (brand-specific adaptation of intellectual stimulation), and (4) teaching and coaching them to grow into their roles as brand representatives (brand-specific adaptation of individualized consideration).

In contrast, we define brand-specific TRL as a leader's approach to motivating his or her followers to act on behalf of the corporate brand by appealing to a contingency rationale in followers' minds. Brand-specific TRL is manifest in behaviors such as (1) specifying behavioral standards for appropriate exertion of followers' roles as brand representatives and offering rewards when role expectations are met (brand-specific adaptation of contingent reward) and (2) clarifying what constitutes ineffective performance of a brand representative and punishing employees for not being in compliance with these standards. The latter involves closely monitoring employees for deviances, mistakes, and errors and then taking corrective action when they occur (brand-specific adaptation of management-by-exception).

Development of Hypotheses

Here, the primary question of interest is the psychological mechanism by which each of the two brand-specific leadership styles affects employees' brand-building behavior. In the following sections, we formulate our hypotheses separately for the brand-specific TFL process and the brand-specific TRL process. In a next step, we formulate hypotheses about their interactive effects on follower outcomes.

Our conceptual framework integrates several streams of literature—TFL/TRL theory, self-determination theory (SDT), (social) identity theory, and brand-building theorizing. Figure 1 provides an overview of these bodies of knowledge and the central works that give the rationale for the predicted relationships between the constructs in our model.

The crucial concept that ties leadership theory, SDT, identity theories, and brand-building theorizing together in our framework is followers' internalization of a brand-based

FIGURE 1
**Overview of Relevant Theories and Their Connection**
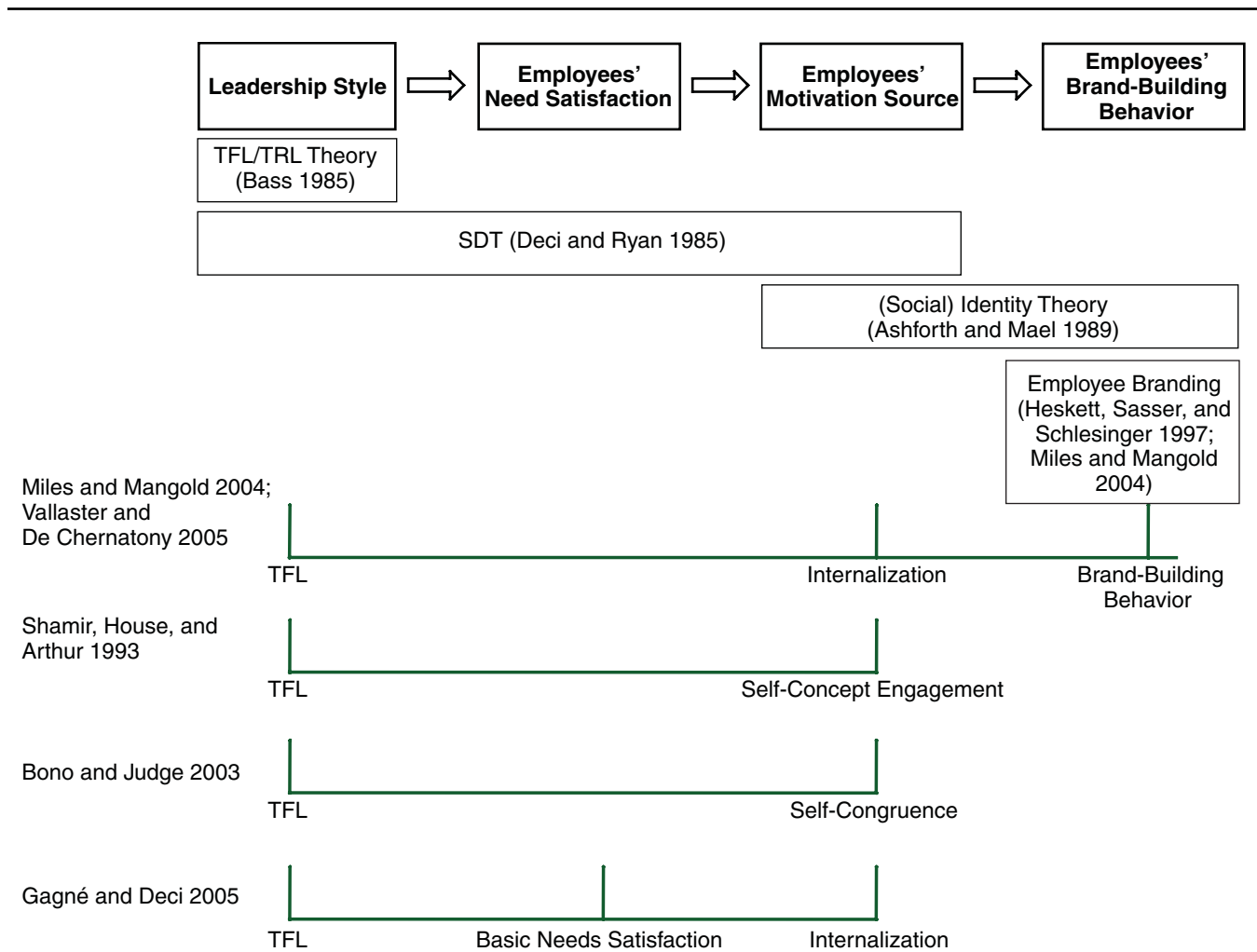
Notes: The upper section shows how the theories used in this work are tied together. The lower section shows the central works that provide the rationale for inclusion of constructs and their relationships in our model.

role identity into their self-concepts. First, we argue that employee brand-building behavior is identity-congruent behavior that follows from a person's self-definition (self-concept) in terms of the corporate brand (link between identity theory and brand building). Second, we argue that followers are likely to internalize such a brand-based role identity when they experience satisfaction of their needs for relatedness, competence, and autonomy in their roles as brand representatives (link between identity theory and SDT). Third, we propose that brand-specific transformational leaders provide a work environment in which followers experience satisfaction of the three needs and thus support followers' adoption of a brand-based role identity (link between leadership theory and SDT). In contrast, we argue that brand-specific transactional leaders thwart followers' need satisfaction and thus hinder followers' integration of a brand-based role identity into their self-concepts. As such, we assume that both brand-specific TRL and brand-specific TFL affect employees' brand-building behavior. However, the mechanisms through which these leadership styles operate differ, resulting in different outcomes (see Figure 2).

Brand-specific transactional leaders are hypothesized to influence followers through a process of compliance, leading to in-role but not extra-role brand-building behaviors and increased turnover intentions (see Figure 2, H_{6a}–H_{10b}); in contrast, brand-specific transformational leaders are assumed to influence followers through a process of internalization, leading to in-role and extra-role brand-building behaviors and decreased turnover intentions (see Figure 2, H_{1a}–H_{5b}). Furthermore, these processes are assumed to be mediated by followers' satisfaction of their basic psychological needs with regard to their work roles (i.e., relatedness, competence, and autonomy). In summary, the causal chain of our analysis takes the form of leadership style → basic need satisfaction → source of motivation → follower brand-building behavior. We now develop our hypotheses in detail.

The brand-specific TFL process. Several authors in the field of internal branding suggest that to encourage brand-supportive behavior, leaders must help employees "internalize" the brand (e.g., Miles and Mangold 2004; Vallaster and De Chernatony 2005). Accordingly, we propose that the

FIGURE 2
Conceptional Model
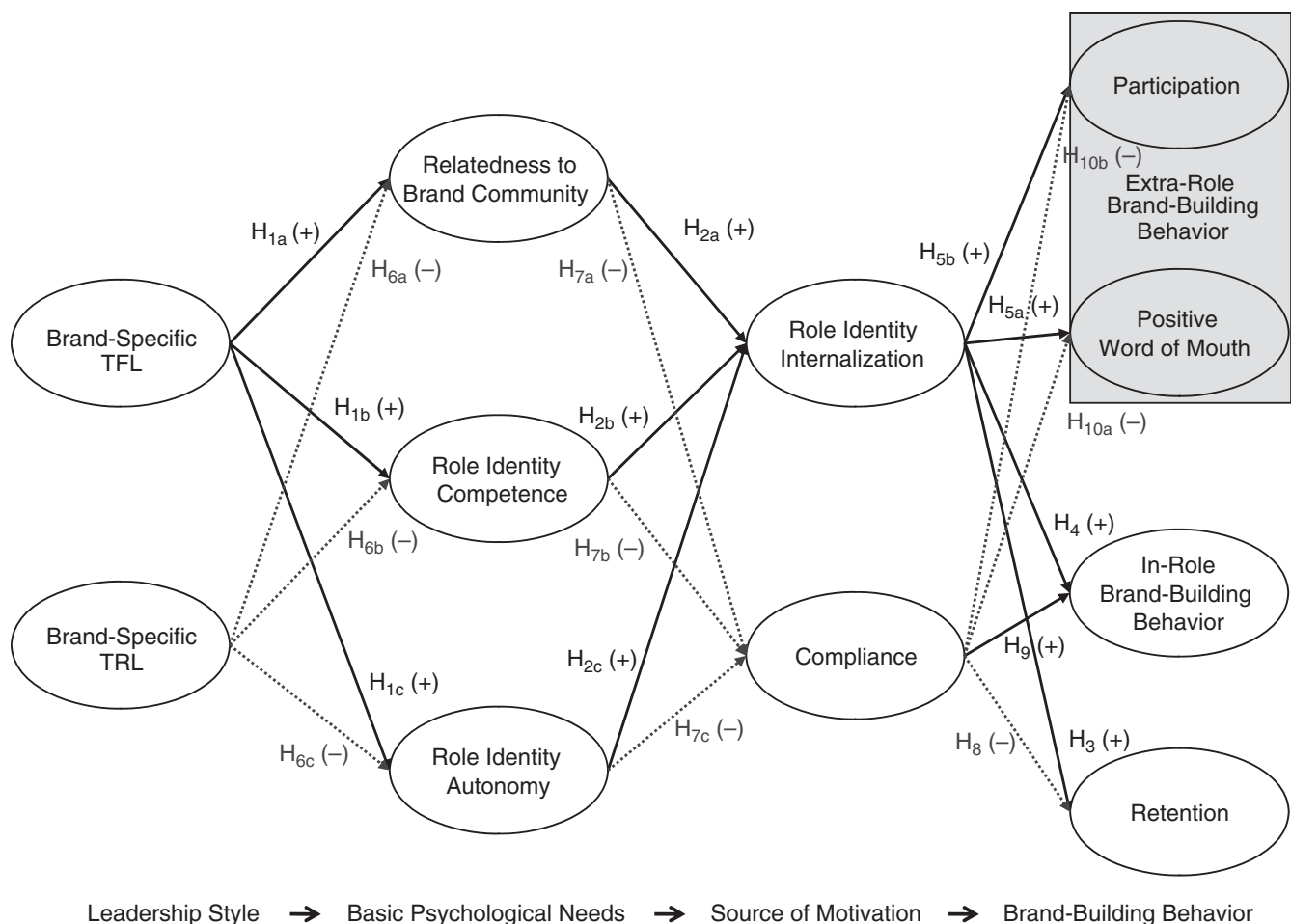
Notes: Solid black arrows depict hypothesized positive relationships; dashed arrows represent hypothesized negative relationships.

central mediator in an effective brand-specific leadership process is employees' internalization (Kelman 1958) of a role identity as brand representative. Specifically, we argue that the influence of an effective brand-specific leader is based on his or her ability to make followers integrate a brand-based role identity into their self-concepts. Drawing on the work of Shamir, House, and Arthur (1993), we assume that internalization of a brand-based role identity, and thus the modification toward a brand-oriented self-concept, occurs when (1) people have come to accept the brand values as their own and thus perceive value congruence between their own and the corporate brand's values and (2) the brand-based role identity is positioned prominently in the salience hierarchy among the various role identities within the person's self-concept. The motivational significance, and thus behavioral relevance of a person's self-concept, is stressed by (social) identity theory. Ashforth and Mael (1989) suggest that people tend to engage in behaviors that are congruent with salient aspects of their identities within their self-concepts and support the institutions embodying those identities (in our case, the corporate brand). Through these identity-congruent behaviors, people validate their self-concept in their behavior, which serves their needs for self-consistency and self-expression (Shamir, House, and Arthur 1993). Identity-congruent behaviors have been shown to become manifest in a multitude of benefits for the focal institution—for example, in the form of lower turnover in employee–employer settings (O'Reilly and Chatman 1986); exhibition of supportive in-role behaviors (e.g., product utilization) in customer–company settings (Ahearne, Bhattacharya, and Gruen 2005); and several functional extra-role behaviors, such as advocacy, financial donations, participation in organizational functions, and proliferation of business-relevant information in various settings of organizational patronage (e.g., Ahearne, Bhattacharya, and Gruen 2005; Arnett, German, and Hunt 2003). Similar consequences are likely to accrue when the salient aspect within employees' self-concept is a corporate brand. This leads us to assume that employees' internalization of their role identity as brand representatives should entail identity-congruent behaviors in the form of retention, in-role brand-building behaviors, and extra-role brand-building behaviors.

To explain how followers internalize their role identity as brand representatives, we draw on another theoretical strand that some authors (Bono and Judge 2003) have brought up (but not further elaborated) in the context of self-concept theorizing—namely, Deci and Ryan's (1985) SDT. In SDT, "internalization" refers to the process through which people transform external motivations into internal motivations, so that externally prompted behaviors become truly self-determined and part of people's self. According to SDT, the optimal functioning of this internalization process depends on the social context. For full internalization to occur, the social context must provide satisfaction of three basic psychological needs: the needs for (1) relatedness, (2) competence, and (3) autonomy. With regard to work settings, TFL is a contextual factor that should allow for employees' satisfaction of their basic psychological needs with regard to their work roles and thus promote employ-

ees' internalization of externally encouraged role behaviors (Gagné and Deci 2005).

Similar effects can be expected from brand-specific TFL. Our foregoing definition implies that brand-specific TFL entails behaviors such as (1) emphasizing followers' membership in the brand community, (2) teaching and coaching followers to enact their brand-based role identity appropriately, and (3) showing concern for subordinates' feelings as individuals and thus allowing choice and freedom in how to interpret and enact their new role identity. As such, brand-specific TFL is likely to create an environment that allows for satisfaction of followers' basic needs for relatedness, competence, and autonomy while enacting their imposed role identity as brand representatives; consequently, this allows for the internalization of this role identity into their self-concepts, which then leads to brand-building behaviors. Formally, our hypotheses regarding the working mechanism of the brand-specific TFL process are as follows:

H_1: A supervisor's brand-specific TFL increases followers' (a) perceived relatedness to other members of the corporate brand community, (b) perceived competence in exerting their brand-based role identity, and (c) perceived autonomy in exerting their brand-based role identity.

H_2: Followers' (a) perceived relatedness to other members of the corporate brand community, (b) perceived competence in exerting their brand-based role identity, and (c) perceived autonomy in exerting their brand-based role identity increases internalization of their brand-based role identity.

H_3: Followers' internalization of a brand-based role identity decreases their intent to terminate their ongoing professional relationship (i.e., employment) with the corporate brand.

H_4: Followers' internalization of a brand-based role identity increases their exhibition of in-role brand-building behaviors.

H_5: Followers' internalization of a brand-based role identity increases their exhibition of extra-role brand-building behaviors in terms of (a) positive word of mouth and (b) participation.

The brand-specific TRL process. MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Rich (2001) argue that TRL is distinct from TFL because of the different processes through which it operates. Because of the give-and-take exchange process inherent in TRL, the underlying influence mechanism of this leadership style is one of instrumental compliance (Kelman 1958) rather than internalization, as it is for TFL. Supporting arguments for this assumption can again be found in SDT. According to SDT, compliance occurs when the social context fails to provide the needed support for internalization to function optimally. With regard to work contexts, this implies that when a manager does not allow for satisfaction of followers' needs for relatedness, competence, and autonomy, followers are not likely to fully "take in" the externally (or leader-) induced values or behavioral standards and will not accept them as their own. Instead, such values and standards are likely to become a mere rule for action enforced by sanctions, so that followers are behaving in a certain way because they feel they "have to" and not because they "want to."

Numerous experimental studies on intrinsic motivation (for a meta-analysis, see Deci, Koestner, and Ryan 1999) indicate several such dysfunctional social-contextual factors that are likely to undermine basic need satisfaction, such as task-contingent rewards, surveillance, and evaluations. Their negative effects have been shown to derive from their tendency to spark feelings of pressure and control. Notably, such contextual factors are characteristic of a TRL style: In the form of management-by-exception and contingent reward behaviors, this leadership style epitomizes the control-by-contingency rationale that has been argued to thwart satisfaction of the basic psychological needs and, as such, does not lead to internalization of externally enforced values and behaviors. First, because TRL involves tight monitoring, evaluation, and contingent reward procedures, this leadership style emphasizes individual-level rather than collective-level aspects of a worker's identity. Thus, it may promote an individualist frame of reference and nurture egocentric tendencies among followers that interfere with the development of a group identity and feelings of relatedness among group members (Lord, Brown, and Freiberg 1999). Second, by closely controlling followers' performance as brand representatives, transactional leaders tend to exert a problem-oriented leadership style, implying his or her disbelief in followers' abilities to exert their work roles adequately. This may undermine followers' feelings of competence because they may become preoccupied with their weaknesses and unsure of their abilities (Felfe and Schyns 2002). Third, by prescribing behavioral standards for adequate performance as brand representative, brand-specific transactional leaders do not try to empower followers. Rather, they ensure that followers behave correctly within a given framework of structures, rules, and standards (Felfe and Schyns 2002; Kark, Shamir, and Chen 2003). Consequently, followers are likely to feel restrained in their autonomy to decide their own way of acting as brand representatives. In SDT, it is argued that social contexts (e.g., managerial behaviors) that do not nurture the three basic needs are likely to impair the internalization process and make it stall at the stage of compliance. Therefore, we infer that TRL should produce an undermining effect on followers' internalization of their imposed role identities, while promoting compliance as the motivational basis for brand-building behaviors. According to Kelman (1958), compliance refers to a person accepting influence because he or she hopes to achieve a favorable reaction from another person or group. The person adopts the induced behavior not because he or she believes in its content but because he or she expects to gain specific rewards or approval and to avoid specific punishments or disapproval by conforming. As such, compliance should drive followers' exertion of in-role behaviors (activities that are prescribed by role requirements and are resorted to for formal performance evaluations). However, when it comes to extra-role behaviors—that is, behaviors that are discretionary, not part of a person's job description, and not explicitly recognized by the formal reward system—compliance does not seem to serve as a sufficient motivational base. Moreover, compliance is positively related to employees' intent to leave the organiza-

tion (Becker 1992). Our corresponding hypotheses read as follows:

H_6: A supervisor's brand-specific TRL decreases followers' (a) perceived relatedness to other members of the corporate brand community, (b) perceived competence in exerting their brand-based role identity, and (c) perceived autonomy in exerting their brand-based role identity.

H_7: A decrease in followers' (a) perceived relatedness to other members of the corporate brand community, (b) perceived competence in exerting their brand-based role identity, and (c) perceived autonomy in exerting their brand-based role identity increases compliance with their brand-based role identity.

H_8: Followers' compliance with a brand-based role identity increases their intent to terminate their ongoing professional relationship (i.e., employment) with the corporate brand.

H_9: Followers' compliance with a brand-based role identity increases their exhibition of in-role brand-building behaviors.

H_{10}: Followers' compliance with a brand-based role identity decreases their exhibition of extra-role brand-building behaviors in terms of (a) positive word of mouth and (b) participation.

Interactive effects of brand-specific TRL and TFL. So far, to understand the different logics of the two leadership processes, we have considered the effects of each leadership style independent of the amount of the other leadership style; that is, we have considered only main effects. However, because brand-specific TFL and TRL might also influence each other's effects, it is important to examine interactions between these two approaches.

Prior research on leadership has not taken a firm stand on the relationship between TFL and TRL effects. In his original model, Bass (1985) argues that TFL builds on TRL in that the latter provides the indispensable basis for effective leadership. In other words, even a highly transformational leader is not assumed to be effective unless he or she also attends to the task-oriented management part of his function (e.g., management-by-exception, contingent reward). However, House (1996) stresses that TRL might also undermine the effectiveness of TFL. Thus, analyzing how brand-specific TRL might moderate the effects of brand-specific TFL on followers' need satisfaction could render more clarity to this debate.

We suggest that brand-specific TRL can function either as "catalyzer" or as "neutralizer" for the positive effects of brand-specific TFL with regard to followers' role-related needs, depending on its amount of usage. This assumption draws from the logic in SDT that contextual factors give an external measure of influence (in this case, brand-specific TFL) its meaning, which in turn modifies its effects on target individuals' need satisfaction (Deci, Koestner, and Ryan 1999). As such, the amount of brand-specific TRL can be interpreted as a contextual factor that shapes the meaning of a manager's brand-specific TFL in followers' eyes and, thus, its effects on their role-related need satisfaction. For example, a brand-oriented manager who engages in transformational behaviors while completely neglecting "hands-on" activities, such as clarifying tasks, setting goals, and defining standards for performance and compensation, may

be viewed by followers as too quixotic, as a "windbag," with the consequence that his or her transformational efforts lose ground. In contrast, when used to the extreme, brand-specific TRL behaviors may undermine the effects of transformational behaviors. Rigid behavioral prescriptions, strict control, and emphasis on "pay-per-performance" as to brand-supporting behaviors contradict a leader's transformational efforts with regard to satisfying followers' needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness in their roles as brand representatives. Thus, too much emphasis on TRL behaviors may cause followers to perceive their supervisor's TFL behaviors as inauthentic and even manipulative, foiling their positive effects on followers' need satisfaction.

As a result, extreme brand-specific TRL behaviors (i.e., either very low or very high) are likely to thwart ("neutralize") the effects of brand-specific TFL on followers' need satisfaction or, in terms of motivation theory, to produce a *crowding-out* effect on followers' need satisfaction and subsequent internalization of their brand-based role identity. In contrast, a medium level of brand-specific TRL is hypothesized to "catalyze" the effects of brand-specific TFL on need satisfaction, producing a *crowding-in* effect on followers' need satisfaction and subsequent role identity internalization. Thus, we suggest that the positive effect of brand-specific TFL on followers' basic need satisfaction varies as a function of brand-specific TRL in that the positive impact of TFL on followers' perceived need satisfaction increases over the range of TRL up to an optimal point on the TRL scale. However, as the level of TRL exceeds this characteristic point, the positive impact of TFL on followers' perceived need satisfaction decreases. The result of this dynamic is an inverse U-shaped moderator effect of brand-specific TRL on the relationship between brand-specific TFL and followers' perceived need satisfaction:

H_{11}: There is a curvilinear (inverse U-shaped) moderator effect of brand-specific TRL on the effect of brand-specific TFL on followers' perceived autonomy, competence, and relatedness, with the effect of brand-specific TFL being strongest at an intermediate level of brand-specific TRL.

Method

Data collection and sample. To test H_1–H_{11}, we conducted an online survey in the business-to-business division of a large telecommunications company. Participants were service employees with regular face-to-face, written, and/or telephone customer contact. We obtained usable questionnaires from 269 of 930 people, for a response rate of 29%. Analyses of company-provided demographic data indicated that respondents were representative (in terms of sex, age, and tenure) of frontline service workers in this company division. We report the measurement scales used in this study along with their psychometric properties in the Appendix.

Measure development and assessment. Whenever possible, we used existing measures of the constructs and adapted them to this study's context. We used 20 items, adapted from the multifactor leadership questionnaire form 5X (MLQ; Avolio and Bass 2004), to assess brand-specific

TFL. The scale measures five dimensions of TFL: intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, idealized influence (attributes), idealized infuence (behavior), and individual consideration. We used homogeneous item parceling, which is recommended for multidimensional constructs by Coffman and MacCallum (2005), to model brand-specific TFL as a single-factor construct with five indicators (one parcel per dimension).[1] We used 8 items, adapted from the MLQ form 8Y (Bass and Avolio 1993), to assess brand-specific TRL. Again, we applied homogeneous item parceling to model it as a single-factor construct with two indicators (one per dimension).[2] To measure role identity competence, role identity autonomy, and relatedness to brand community, we used three items for each construct from the basic-need-satisfaction-at-work scale (Deci et al. 2001) and adapted the wording to fit our context. We modeled role identity internalization as a second-order construct with identity salience and value congruence as first-order factors. We measured the former with three items adapted from Callero's (1985) role identity salience scale and Cheney's (1983) organizational identification questionnaire. We assessed the latter by adapting a measure originally developed by Bergami and Bagozzi (2000). Our measure for compliance was based on two items from Caldwell, Chatman, and O'Reilly's (1990) instrumental commitment scale. For retention, we used three items from Ganesan and Weitz's (1996) turnover intention scale and reverse-coded them. To our knowledge, no scale exists for in-role brand-building behavior, so we developed a new three-item scale. We measured positive word of mouth with a three-item scale from Arnett, German, and Hunt (2003), and for participation, we adapted three items from Bettencourt's (1997) study.

To assess measurement quality, we ran a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) containing all constructs in our model (see Figure 2) using Mplus 4.2 (Muthén and Muthén 2007). To adjust for potential multivariate nonnormality, we used the scaled Satorra–Bentler procedure (Satorra and Bentler 2001) for correcting the maximum likelihood chi-square variate as well as the standard errors of parameter estimates. Moreover, because of a small ratio of sample size to estimated parameters (N:t = 1.7:1), we corrected the scaled Satorra–Bentler chi-square variate using Swain's (1975) multiplier (see Herzog and Boomsma 2009; Herzog, Boomsma, and Reinecke 2007). The overall fit indexes for the CFA met commonly accepted standards ($\chi^2(471)$ = 636.389, p = .000; comparative fit index [CFI] = .958;

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[1]We created each item parcel by averaging four MLQ items that had been used to measure a particular subdimension.

[2]Our approach of using homogeneous item parcels as reflective indicators of brand-specific TFL and TRL is consistent with prior studies (e.g., Bono and Judge 2003). On request of a reviewer, we also examined alternative structural equation approaches—namely, a formative indicator versus a reflective indicator measurement approach and a measurement approach with item parceling versus a measurement approach without item parceling for both leadership styles. We concluded that both conceptual arguments and empirical evidence unequivocally support our original modeling approach (i.e., reflective indicators based on item parcels). The empirical analyses are available on request.

Tucker–Lewis index [TLI] = .950; gamma hat = .965; root mean square error of approximation [RMSEA] = .036; and standardized root mean square residual [SRMR] = .047), which showed that the measurement model provided an acceptable fit to the data. Furthermore, each construct had acceptable psychometric properties (see the Appendix) in terms of Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability (CR), the only exception being role identity autonomy (α = .58, CR = .59). However, given the desire for multiple indicators and our belief that each of the items covered an important facet of the underlying construct, we decided not to drop any items from the scale. Summary statistics, including means, standard deviations, and correlations among the variables under study, appear in Table 1.

Results

The covariance structure model. To test H_1–H_{10}, we estimated the full structural equation model using Mplus 4.2, again applying the scaled Satorra–Bentler procedure and the Swain correction. The resulting overall fit measures indicate that our model is a plausible representation of the structures underlying the empirical data: $\chi^2(498) = 737.114$, p = .000; CFI = .940; TLI = .932; gamma hat = .950; RMSEA = .042; and SRMR = .068.

Of the 20 hypotheses, 16 were supported, with parameter estimates significant at least at the 5% error level and in the expected direction (the fully standardized solution is reported). As H_{1a-c} predicted, brand-specific TFL significantly influences employees' relatedness to the brand community (γ_1 = .38, p < .01), role identity competence (γ_2 = .41, p < .01), and role identity autonomy (γ_3 = .41, p < .01) in a positive direction. As H_{2a-c} predicted, relatedness to the brand community (β_1 = .60, p < .01), role identity competence (β_2 = .28, p < .01), and role identity autonomy (β_3 = .18, p < .01) have a significant, positive impact on role identity internalization. In turn, role identity internalization has a significant, positive effect on employees' retention (β_4 = .42, p < .01), in-role brand-building behavior (β_5 = .45, p < .01), positive word of mouth (β_6 = .68, p < .01), and participation (β_7 = .38, p < .01), in support of H_3, H_4, H_{5a}, and H_{5b}. Taken together, these findings support the proposed sequential pattern of the brand-specific TFL process: TFL → basic need satisfaction → role identity internalization → follower brand-building behavior.

With respect to brand-specific TRL, we predicted a negative effect on followers' basic need satisfaction. We find statistical support for this link with regard to role identity competence (γ_5 = −.15, p < .05) and role identity autonomy (γ_6 = −.19, p < .05) but not with regard to relatedness to the brand community (γ_4 = .11, not significant [n.s.]), thus confirming H_{6b} and H_{6c} but not H_{6a}. Furthermore, we predicted that thwarted need satisfaction leads to followers' compliance. As we expected, the link between role identity competence and compliance is negative and statistically significant (β_9 = −.11, p < .05), as is the link between role identity autonomy and compliance (β_{10} = −.49, p < .01), in support of H_{7b} and H_{7c}. However, we fail to find statistical support for H_{7a}, which suggests a negative link between relatedness to the brand community and compliance (β_8 = −.01, n.s.). However, taken together with the rejection of

H_{6a}, a more coherent picture emerges. Although both role identity competence and role identity autonomy seem to be mediating variables in the brand-specific TRL process, relatedness to the brand community does not seem to contribute significantly to its explanation. We offer the following explanation for this finding: In contrast to TFL, which explicitly appeals to followers' sense of collectivity, TRL, by its monitoring, evaluation, and contingent reward procedures, is a leadership style that concentrates on individual-level aspects of a worker's role identity, with collective-level issues being irrelevant for the leader's attempts of influence. As such, a follower's relationship to the corporate community seems to be virtually unaffected by the TRL behaviors of his or her supervisor.

Our hypotheses regarding the links between followers' compliance and brand-building behaviors also received mixed support. As H_8 and H_{10a} predicted, compliance has a significant, negative effect on retention (β_{11} = −.19, p < .05) and positive word of mouth (β_{13} = −.15, p < .01). However, the negative path from compliance to participation, as H_{10b} predicted, is not significant (β_{14} = −.04, n.s.). Notably, the parameter estimate for the path linking compliance and in-role behavior is significant, but in the reverse direction (β_{12} = −.21, p < .01). This finding suggests that followers whose motivational base for acting as a corporate brand representative is mere compliance are not even likely to live up to prescribed standards. However, our finding may also be due to the way we measured in-role brand-building behavior. Although the items pick followers' conformity to role expectations as a central theme, they may have also touched on the issue of followers' personal responsibility to ensure this conformity, which would be more of a sign of extra-role behavior, which in turn tends to be negatively related to compliance.

In addition, we performed formal tests of mediation to examine the sequential pattern of effects hypothesized in our model. We tested for direct paths from brand-specific TFL and TRL to internalization and compliance and from brand-specific TFL and TRL to employee brand-building behaviors. Because we used the Satorra–Bentler scaled chi-square statistic for our calculations, we followed Satorra and Bentler's (2001) recommended procedure to obtain the appropriate chi-square difference test statistics. Only the model with a direct path from brand-specific TRL to participation led to a significant improvement of model fit ($\chi^2_d(1)$ = 7.58, p = .006) compared with our baseline model (see Figure 2). Thus, we conclude that compliance only partially mediates the effect of brand-specific TRL on participation. Note that the revealed direct path is positive (β_{15} = .20, p < .01). A possible explanation for this is that some followers misinterpret participation as a tool for impression management toward their supervisor. In this case, followers may engage in participation just for the sake of their boss's attention and goodwill. This sort of participation may be elicited particularly by transactional leaders, who emphasize and reward open and visible performance. However, except for this additional finding, our analyses support the hypothesized two-step mediation in the brand-specific TFL and TRL processes (Figure 3 depicts a graphic representation of the results).

TABLE 1
Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Among Study 1 Variables

| Variable	Ma	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Brand-specific TFL	3.61	.77	1.00										
2. Brand-specific TRL	2.73	.84	.61**	1.00									
3. Role identity autonomy	3.25	.75	.22**	.07	1.00								
4. Role identity competence	4.05	.62	.31**	.12	.43**	1.00							
5. Relatedness to corporate brand community	3.78	.65	.43**	.33**	.35**	.40**	1.00						
6. Role identity internalization	3.83	.66	.45**	.32**	.41**	.42**	.75**	1.00					
7. Compliance	1.70	.83	−.30**	−.09	−.45**	−.20**	−.16*	−.38**	1.00				
8. Retention	4.58	.73	.32**	.14*	.29**	.19**	.23**	.57**	−.34**	1.00			
9. In-role brand-building behavior	4.37	.59	.28**	.12	.18*	.53**	.30**	.53**	−.39**	.28**	1.00		
10. Positive word of mouth	4.25	.75	.26**	.17**	.41**	.45**	.49**	.75**	−.39**	.44**	.50**	1.00	
11. Participation	3.60	.88	.20**	.28**	.20*	.37**	.28**	.37**	−.18**	.05	.26**	.35**	1.00

*$p < .05$.
**$p < .01$.
aAll values refer to a five-point scale format.
Notes: Correlations are estimated as part of the CFA.

FIGURE 3
Empirical Model
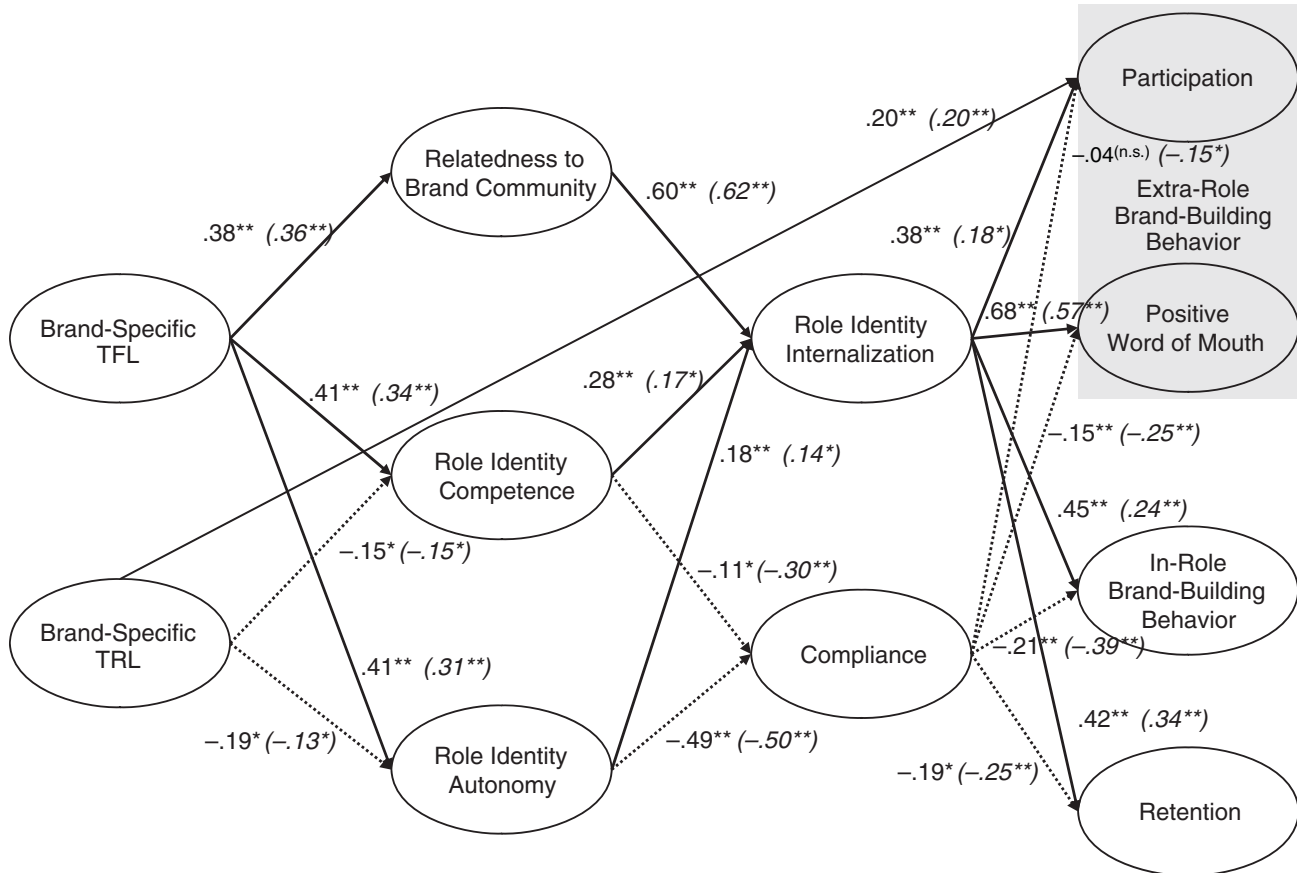
*p < .05.
**p < .01.
Notes: Solid black arrows depict positive relationships; dashed arrows represent negative relationships. Standardized estimates are reported; estimates corrected for common method variance are shown in italics and parentheses. Paths that stayed nonsignificant after common method variance was corrected are trimmed from the model.

The moderated regression analysis. H_{11} predicts that brand-specific TRL moderates the effects of brand-specific TFL on followers' need satisfaction. We tested this hypothesis by estimating the following nonlinear moderated regression equation:

$$Y_i = \beta_{i0} + \beta_{i1}X + \beta_{i2}Z + \beta_{i3}XZ + \beta_{i4}XZ^2 + \varepsilon,$$

where Y represents followers' need satisfaction, X represents brand-specific TFL, and Z represents brand-specific TRL (we obtained variable scores by averaging scale items). We followed Aiken and West's (1991) suggestion to use mean-centered predictor variables. Because we examined three dependent variables—namely, relatedness, competence, and autonomy—we estimated the equation three times (for i: relatedness, competence, autonomy). H_{11} predicts an inverse U-shaped moderator effect of brand-specific TRL on the effect of brand-specific TFL on followers' perceived autonomy, competence, and relatedness. H_{11} is supported if the coefficients β_{i4} for the linear X × quadratic Z interaction term are negative and significant. The

results in Table 2 show for all three equations that the effect of brand-specific TFL on follower outcome variables is significant and positive and that the linear × quadratic interaction effect is significant and negative; thus, H_{11} is supported.

This pattern indicates that the slope reflecting the impact of brand-specific TFL on followers' need satisfaction is not constant across the values of brand-specific TRL. The positive effect of brand-specific TFL becomes larger when brand-specific TRL increases up to an optimal level. However, when brand-specific TRL increases beyond this optimal level, the positive effect of brand-specific TFL becomes smaller (Figure 4 depicts a graphic representation of the results).

One result should not go unmentioned: With the inclusion of the interaction terms, the negative effect of brand-specific TRL on follower outcome variables drops from significance in all three equations. However, this does not contradict our previous findings based on the structural equation model analysis, in which brand-specific TRL had a

TABLE 2
Results of the Moderated Regression Analysis

	Relatedness to Corporate Brand Community	Role Identity Competence	Role Identity Autonomy
Conditional Effects			
Brand-specific TFL (β_{i1})	.40**	.33**	.42**
Brand-specific TRL (β_{i2})	.06	−.03	−.08
Interaction Effects			
Brand-specific TFL × brand-specific TRL (β_{i3})	.16**	.07	.12*
Brand-specific TFL × brand-specific TRL squared (β_{i4})	−.09*	−.10*	−.18**

*$p < .05$.
**$p < .01$.
Notes: Unstandardized coefficients are shown.

significant, negative effect on followers' competence and autonomy perceptions. It is important to recognize that the model examined in the current analysis is no longer additive but rather interactive, with the consequence that the interpretation of "main effects" is now different. Given a significant interaction, beta coefficients of main effects estimate conditional relationships rather than general ones. Then, main effects must be interpreted as the "average effect of a variable across all observed scores of the moderator variable(s) or, equivalently, as the effect of a variable at the average observed score on the moderator variable(s)" (Finney et al. 1984, p. 88). Although we did not make specific predictions about a moderating effect of brand-specific TFL on the effects of brand-specific TRL on follower outcomes, the reciprocal character of interactions (Finney et al. 1984) enables us to meaningfully interpret the interaction the other way around. From our centered equation, it follows that the average effect of brand-specific TRL across all observed values of brand-specific TFL is nonsignificant. In other words, the effect of brand-specific TRL on follower outcomes is nonsignificant at the mean of brand-specific TFL. This finding is a useful piece of information because it indicates that an average level of brand-specific TFL is sufficient to offset the negative effects of brand-specific TRL on followers' need satisfaction.

Discussion

Study 1 clarifies how brand-specific transformational leaders and brand-specific transactional leaders affect followers' brand-building behaviors. While the brand-specific TFL process works through a mechanism of internalization, the brand-specific TRL process works through a mechanism of compliance with the consequence that the former is more effective in leading to desired follower brand-building behaviors than the latter. Moreover, the two approaches are related in a complex way: When used moderately, brand-specific TRL adds to the value of brand-specific TFL in that it strengthens TFL's positive effects on follower outcomes; when used heavily, brand-specific TRL detracts from TFL's value in that it weakens its positive effect. In turn, brand-specific TFL can offset the negative effects of brand-specific TRL. Thus, our first conclusion is that brand-oriented managers should move toward a more TFL style while maintaining a moderate degree of TRL qualities.

Whether and how managers can make this move is the subject of our second study.

Study 2

Study 2 addresses whether managers can learn brand-specific TFL. Therefore, we assessed the effectiveness of an intervention designed to train managers of a financial services company in brand-specific TFL. A persistent belief exists that leadership—specifically TFL—is unteachable (e.g., Barker 1997). However, some evaluations of the effects of (transformational) leadership development programs have been reported, suggesting that (transformational) leadership can indeed be acquired through training and coaching (Barling, Weber, and Kelloway 1996; Deci, Connell, and Ryan 1989; Dvir et al. 2002; Popper, Landau, and Gluskinos 1992). However, data from such studies are often of limited utility because they are grounded in qualitative data or self-reported quantitative data of trained individuals and/or suffer from less rigorous research designs and statistical testing procedures (for a discussion of the problems associated with analysis of [co]variance in experimental research, see Bagozzi and Yi 1989; MacKenzie 2001; Russell et al. 1998). To surmount these shortcomings, we conducted a field experiment using a pretest–posttest control group design and covariance structure modeling for the analysis of other-report (i.e., subordinate-report) data. We hypothesize the following:

H_{12}: Brand-specific TFL can be learned.

To test this hypothesis, we examined whether leaders who received brand-specific TFL training (experimental group) were perceived by their subordinates as exhibiting higher levels of brand-specific TFL than leaders who did not receive training (control group).

Method

Participants and setting. The study took place in a medium-sized financial services company that was in the midst of an organizationwide change effort toward customer orientation, into which our training program was integrated as a central component. The company operates 78 branch offices in ten regions, each of which offers the same products and services. We obtained data for this study
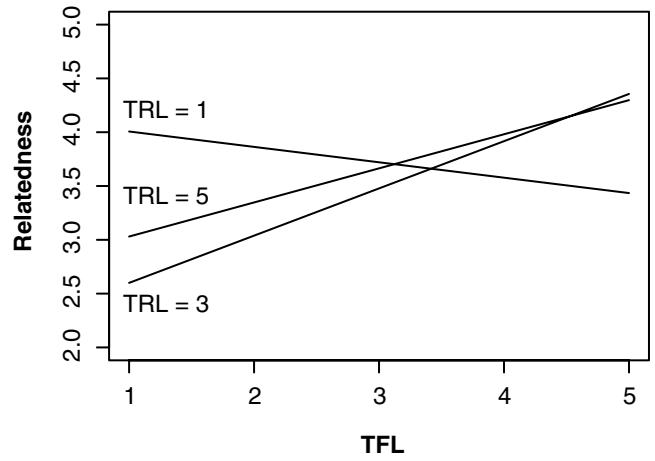
FIGURE 4
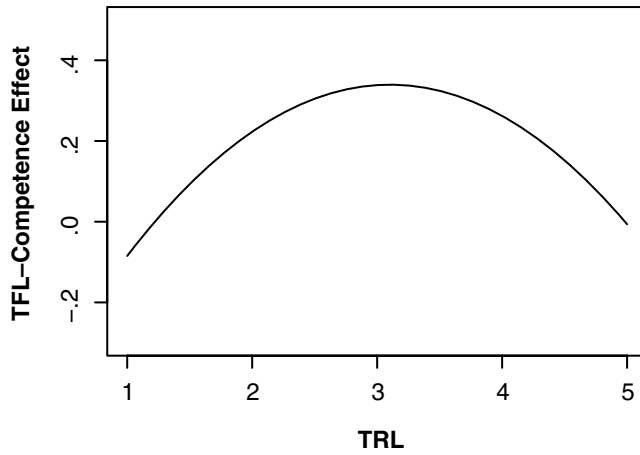**Impact of Brand-Specific TRL on the Effects of Brand-Specific TFL on Follower Needs**

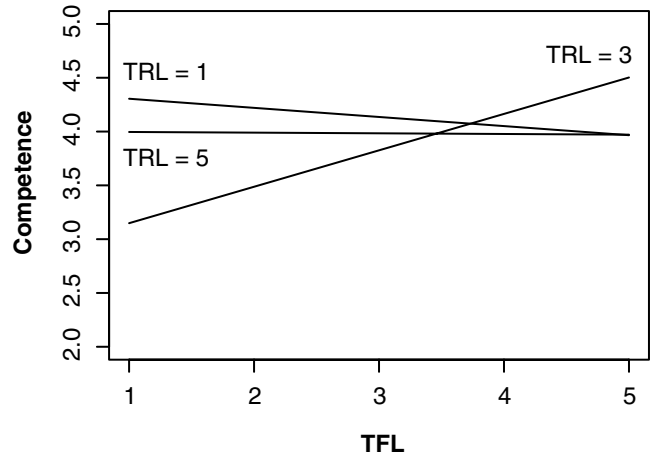**A: TRL's Impact on TFL–Relatedness Slope**
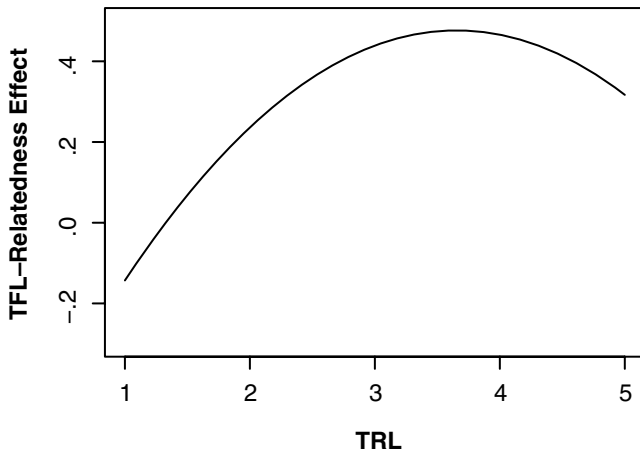
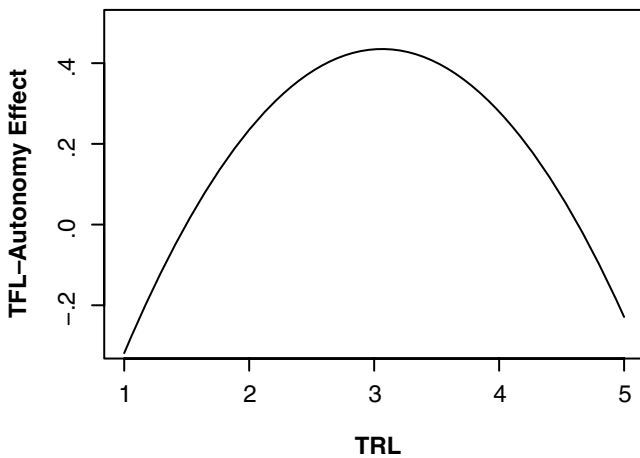**B: TFL–Relatedness Effect for Different TRL Levels**

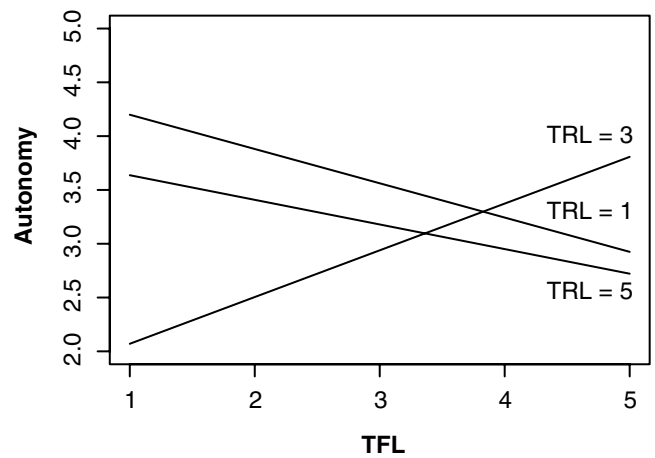**C: TRL's Impact on TFL–Competence Slope**

D: TFL–Competence Effect for Different TRL Levels

E: TRL's Impact on TFL–Autonomy Slope

F: TFL–Autonomy Effect for Different TRL Levels

from managers from the two regions who had been randomly selected to go through the training first; we also collected data from their direct reports and used these other-report data to analyze the intervention effect. We used a delayed-treatment strategy. Specifically, the managers of one of the two regions were randomly assigned to the treatment condition, and the others were placed on a waiting list for the training and thus were assigned to the control condition. Although they were geographically separate from the managers in the control group, managers in the treatment group were asked to refrain from sharing their training experiences with other managers or subordinates. These arrangements were made to prevent threats to validity due to diffusion of the intervention. There were 29 managers in the treatment group (28 men, 1 woman; mean age = 42.5 years) and 31 managers in the control group (28 men, 3 women; mean age = 43.8 years). In addition, of their 302 direct reports, 222 (107 in the treatment group, 115 in the control group) participated by completing all questionnaires, for a response rate of 74%.

We gathered data online at two specific times. Participants completed the brand-specific MLQ one week before the training program commenced (Time 1) and four months after the training program (Time 2). The questionnaires were administered to managers and their subordinates so that both self-report ratings and other-report ratings on managers' brand-specific TFL behavior were available. Each participant was assigned a unique URL to the online questionnaire so that his or her answers from Time 1 and Time 2 could be matched for data analysis.

Questionnaires and intervention. The brand-specific MLQ consisted of the same 28 items that were used in the previous study to assess brand-specific TFL and TRL (we included ratings of TRL to test the training's impact on TFL only and not on active leadership in general).[3] Managers were administered a self-report version, and subordinates received an other-assessment version to rate their supervisors' leadership qualities. Psychometric properties of the two measurement scales are appropriate and are reported in parentheses in the Appendix (subordinate perceptions at Time 1 and Time 2 are reported). We used a hybrid of group-based training sessions and individual counseling in the program.

First, regarding group-based training sessions, a two-day off-site workshop was designed and carried out by the first author and a professional trainer from the affiliated business school who is specialized in TFL trainings. The two-day program comprised five parts: The first part was devoted to explaining to the participants the need for the training and its embedding in the company's strategic marketing efforts and to signaling top management's commitment to it. Accordingly, a member of the company's executive committee handled this part. The purpose of the second part was to familiarize participants with the central concepts of brand-specific TFL and TRL and to discuss their relevance to their own work situations. Beginning with a case

study exercise, this part also included a lecture covering theory, empirical findings and practical examples, small group and plenary discussions and presentations, and video sequences depicting brand-specific transformational behaviors. In the third part, aggregated group-level feedback on the managers' brand-specific leadership style was provided based on the self-report and subordinate questionnaires at Time 1, and gaps were identified in a plenary session. In the fourth part, equipped with the knowledge obtained throughout the previous parts, managers were placed in groups to elaborate leadership principles that would help support their organization's marketing (particularly branding) strategy. Subsequently, each manager worked on his or her own to create an individual leadership vision and to verbalize it in a written statement and then visualize it by means of a personal collage. This part of the training was completed by a small-group exercise in which managers jointly conceived of and discussed concrete actions to implement their leadership visions. The fifth part of the training was devoted to the transfer of the training into the daily job routine; during this part, participants practiced a self-management technique based on the relapse-prevention model (Wexley and Baldwin 1986).

Second, between four and eight weeks after the workshop, participants received personal coaching. In preparation for these individual sessions, each manager was mailed his or her personalized brand-specific MLQ feedback report in advance. Data were presented in a format that participants were familiar with from the initial workshop so that they could work through and interpret the data on their own. The coaching session itself consisted of the first author spending one-and-a-half hours with each manager at his or her work location discussing the strengths, weaknesses, and discrepancies between self-ratings and subordinates' ratings that the manager had identified in his or her report, as well as opportunities for personal development. Each manager defined two to three aspects that he or she wanted to improve, and these were then translated into a concrete personal action plan for the following months. Potential obstacles to the plan's implementation were also identified, and individual coping resources for relapse prevention (e.g., peer-coaching network, diary) were conceived of jointly.

Model Setup

Because of several advantages over traditional methods of experimental data analysis (Bagozzi and Yi 1989; MacKenzie 2001; Russell et al. 1998), we decided to use a covariance structure modeling approach to test H_{12}. Figure 5 depicts the longitudinal covariance structure model, where γ_3 corresponds to H_{12}.

As in the previous study, we used homogeneous item parceling (Coffman and MacCallum 2005) to model brand-specific TFL and brand-specific TRL as single-factor constructs. Thus, there were five measures to operationalize brand-specific TFL at Time 1 and Time 2 and two measures to operationalize brand-specific TRL at Time 1 and Time 2. We used the group code approach to represent group membership; that is, we introduced a dummy variable in which membership in the control group was coded as 0 and membership in the treatment group was coded as 1. Because

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[3]Plus two additional items for the management-by-exception dimension of brand-specific TRL.

FIGURE 5
Latent Variable Model of Experimental Intervention Effects, Controlling for Preintervention Scores
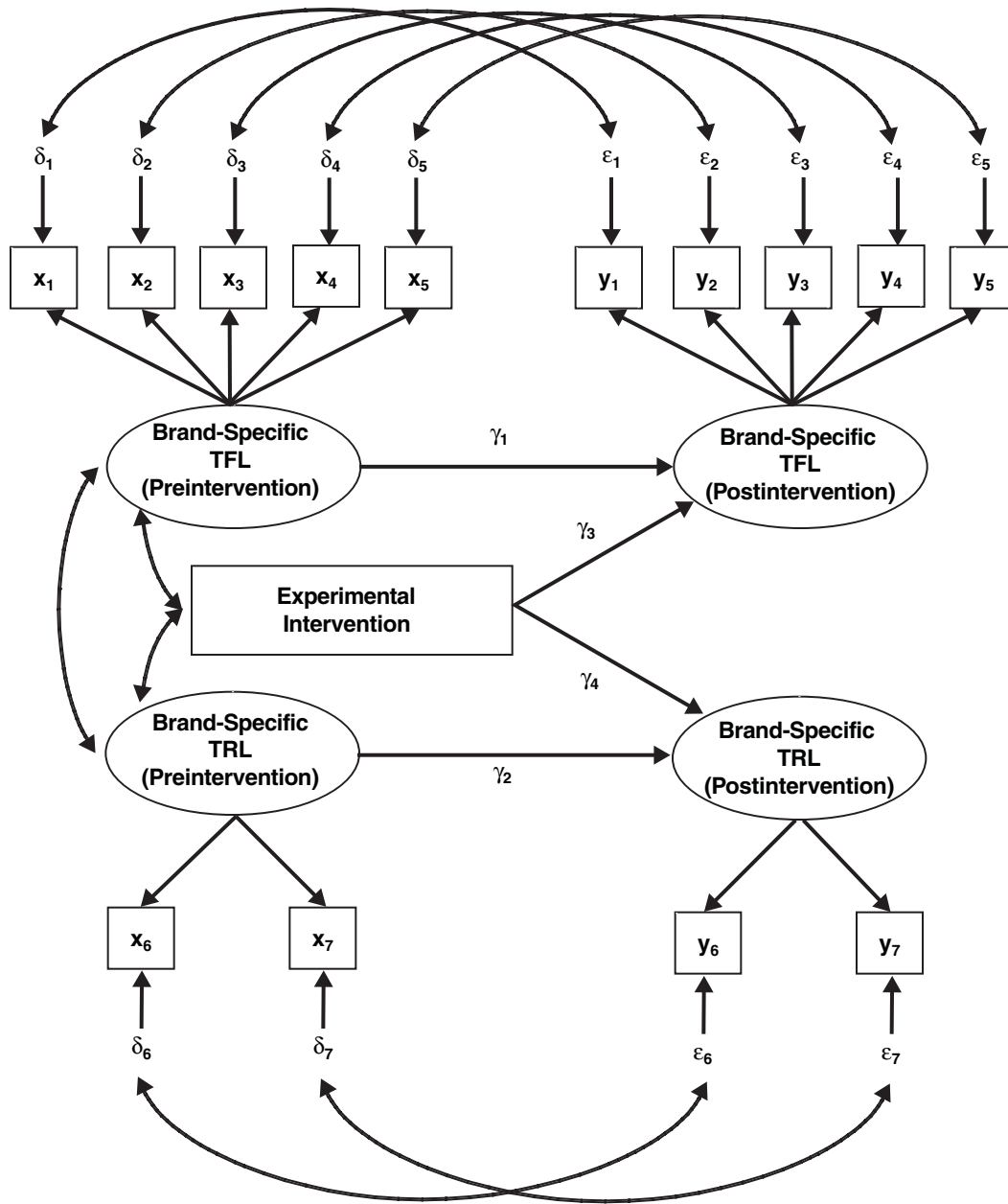
identical measurement instruments were used at Time 1 and Time 2, we allowed for error covariances among identical measures at Time 1 and Time 2 (i.e., seven error covariances were introduced). For example, we allowed the error term of the first item parcel of brand-specific TFL at Time 1, x_1, to covary with the error term of that same variable measured at time 2, y_1 (see Figure 5).

Results

Again, we estimated the hypothesized model using the computer program Mplus 4.2 and applied the scaled Satorra–Bentler procedure and the Swain correction (see Study 1). The overall fit measures indicate that the model

shown in Figure 5 fits the data well: $\chi^2(76) = 79.842$, $p = .359$; CFI = .998; TLI = .997; gamma hat = .998; RMSEA = .015; and SRMR = .035.

The results reveal that our training had its intended effect, and thus the experimental intervention was successful. Note that brand-specific TFL and brand-specific TRL at Time 1 were not significantly correlated with the dummy variable (.065, n.s., and .037, n.s., respectively), as would be expected given random assignment to experimental and control conditions. Inspection of the path coefficients from leadership styles at Time 1 to leadership styles at Time 2 suggests that initial scores on brand-specific TFL significantly predict scores on brand-specific TFL after the inter-

vention ($\gamma_1 = .77$, $p < .01$), accounting for 60% of the variation in the dependent variable. Accordingly, initial scores on brand-specific TRL significantly predict Time 2 scores on brand-specific TRL ($\gamma_2 = .71$, $p < .01$), accounting for 50% of the variation in the dependent variable. These results suggest that both leadership styles are determined to a great extent by people's prior attitudes and habits. The estimated effect of the treatment on brand-specific TFL as measured at Time 2 is positive and significant at the 1% error level ($\gamma_3 = .12$, $p < .01$; $R^2 = .01$), indicating that our training intervention caused an increase in brand-specific TFL. Moreover, as we expected, the intervention effect on brand-specific TRL was not significant ($\gamma_4 = .001$, n.s.), which supports the systematics of the treatment.[4] Note that the training was designed to target participants' brand-specific TFL rather than active leadership in general, which would have resulted in an increase in brand-specific TRL as well.

Discussion

Study 2 assessed the effectiveness of a leadership training intervention as a means to show that brand-specific TFL can be learned. Although our results showed that a great portion of managers' leadership style remains stable over time, there was also a nontrivial increase in managers' brand-specific TFL due to their undergoing the training. More specifically, net of initial levels of brand-specific TFL, the experimental intervention accounted for 1% of the variation in posttreatment brand-specific TFL. However, as we intended, there was no change in brand-specific TRL due to the training. Thus, we conclude that a training and coaching intervention can be effective in systematically changing a manager's leadership style toward more brand-specific TFL, which suggests that brand-specific TFL can indeed be learned.

General Discussion

Findings from Study 1

This research was driven by the question, What can managers do to enhance brand-building behaviors among their followers? To address this question, Study 1 examines how different styles of leadership affect customer-contact personnel's brand-building behavior and how they interact in producing effects. This first study contributes to the literature in three specific ways: with regard to the effectiveness of brand-specific TFL versus brand-specific TRL; with regard to the different motivational mechanisms underlying the two leadership processes and, thus, to our understanding

of why one leadership style is more effective than the other with respect to different outcome categories; and with regard to the interaction of the two leadership styles in influencing followers.

Effects of brand-specific TFL versus TRL. The results of Study 1 indicate that brand-specific TFL is more effective in enhancing brand-building behaviors among followers than brand-specific TRL. This is in line with prior empirical evidence that finds TFL to be superior to TRL with regard to a variety of criterion measures (for a meta-analysis, see Lowe and Kroeck 1996). MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Rich (2001) report similar findings with regard to sales managers and their salespeople. However, we found not only that brand-specific TRL is less functional than brand-specific TFL but also that it can be even dysfunctional regarding its effects on followers' brand-building behaviors. This is an important finding because, in general, TRL is believed to be positively linked to follower performance. According to this logic, TRL serves a motivational function by strengthening both effort–performance expectancies and performance–outcome expectancies in followers (Yammarino, Spangler, and Dubinsky 1998) and therefore is a popular practice in many organizational functions—foremost in sales and customer service functions. Indeed, there is sufficient evidence indicating that TRL can have a positive impact on performance (for reviews, see Atwater et al. 1998; Yammarino, Spangler, and Dubinsky 1998). However, in some studies, authors report (to their own surprise) negative relationships between TRL (in terms of contingent reward and management-by-exception) and performance (Hater and Bass 1988; Yammarino, Spangler, and Dubinsky 1998). Researchers' perplexity in the face of these findings may have derived from their use of different performance measures as outcome variables and their neglect of mediators explaining TRL effects (Howell and Avolio 1993). Therein lies this article's next contribution.

Working mechanisms of brand-specific TFL and TRL. By defining the concept of employee brand-building behavior in terms of retention, in-role brand-building behaviors, and extra-role brand-building behaviors, we specified a set of behaviors that could serve as relevant performance variables in subsequent studies on customer-contact personnel's role in corporate branding, which would make further research more comparable. In addition, our study advances the understanding of the mechanisms through which the two forms of leadership influence employees' brand-building behaviors. We showed that brand-specific TFL works through a process of internalization, which is mediated through followers' satisfaction of their needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness with regard to their roles as brand representatives. In contrast, brand-specific TRL works through a process of compliance, which is mediated through followers' unsatisfied basic psychological needs with regard to their work roles. This finding is particularly appealing because it is grounded in a sound theoretical rationale provided by SDT in combination with (social) identity theory. Eventually, we respond to leadership scholars' explicit call for further research on the mediating factors that explain why transformational leaders in general are

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[4]On request of a reviewer, we also provide information on group means: At Time 2, the managers in the treatment group (M = 3.84, SD = .66) were perceived as more transformational than the managers in the control group (M = 3.61, SD = .67). The Time 1 TFL scores in the treatment group (M = 3.76, SD = .74) are similar to the Time 1 TFL scores in the control group (M = 3.67, SD = .66). The TRL scores are similar for the treatment and the control group at Time 1 (treatment group: M = 2.86, SD = .87; control group: M = 2.82, SD = .80) and Time 2 (treatment group: M = 2.91, SD = .84; control group: M = 2.90, SD = .74).

more effective than transactional leaders, and thus we demystify the notion of the "charismatic leader" (Bass 1999).

The interplay of brand-specific TFL and TRL. Furthermore, our study contributes to the debate on the interplay between the TRL and the TFL approach in influencing followers. Prior research examining the combined effects of TFL and TRL behaviors has done so mostly in terms of an additive model, which has led to the examination of the "augmentation effect" (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Rich 2001; Waldman, Bass, and Yammarino 1990), in which the two forms of leadership act complementarily, with TFL adding to the impact of TRL. However, we detected a curvilinear interaction effect between them, indicating that their relationship is not that straightforward. We found that brand-specific TFL and TRL interact positively or negatively, depending on the level of brand-specific TRL. When used at a low to moderate level, brand-specific TRL "adds" to brand-specific TFL in that it strengthens the latter's positive effects on followers' role experiences. However, when used at higher levels, brand-specific TRL undermines brand-specific TFL's positive effects. By examining the augmentation hypothesis from a dynamic (i.e., multiplicative) perspective, we dissolve the contradiction between its proponents (e.g., Bass 1985; Waldman, Bass, and Yammarino 1990) and its challengers (e.g., House [1996] stresses a detrimental effect of TRL behaviors on the effects of TFL behaviors), showing that both are right depending on the level of TRL.

Findings from Study 2

The utility of brand-specific TFL cannot be gleaned adequately without a demonstration that changing leadership styles is possible. With this goal in mind, we devoted Study 2 to examining whether managers can learn brand-specific TFL through training and coaching. Therefore, we conducted a second study to assess the effectiveness of a brand-specific leadership training. Our experimental data provide evidence that a training and coaching intervention can be effective in changing managers' brand-specific TFL style (as perceived by their subordinates) in the expected direction even within a few months. Thus, our results echo prior results (e.g., Barling, Weber, and Kelloway 1996) suggesting that a TFL style can indeed be learned. An advantage of the current study over prior research is its rigor in study design and data analysis. Because longitudinal data from a treatment versus control group design were analyzed by means of covariance structure analysis, we are able to speak of "causal" effects of the training because the possibility of factors other than the treatment being responsible for the group differences can be ruled out reasonably well. Furthermore, through inclusion of preintervention scores of brand-specific TFL (and TRL), we were able to control for managers' individual scores as they existed a priori to assess the stability of leadership styles (and enhance statistical power to detect the treatment effect). The path coefficient from brand-specific TFL (preintervention) to brand-specific TFL (postintervention) was .77 (denoting the estimated stability of brand-specific TFL), while the path coefficient from the experimental intervention to brand-specific TFL (post-

intervention) was .12. Contrasting these effect sizes, the experimental effect may appear to be somewhat small. However, compared with other studies on the effects of trainings, this pattern seems realistic (e.g., Russell et al. [1998] report an experimental effect of .24 versus an estimated stability of .71). Given that each manager's leadership style has been formed through years of experience and habits, the training was undeniably impactful.

Limitations and Further Research

A limitation of this research is that we obtained all data in the first study from one source (frontline employees). This brings the possibility of common method variance into play. Therefore, we applied a technique that Podsakoff and colleagues (2003, p. 894; "controlling for the effects of a single unmeasured latent method factor") discuss and reestimated the model as shown in Figure 3 with an added "same-source" factor. Even when we included the additional factor, we retained the statistical significance of the hypothesized relationships (one nonsignificant path coefficient [compliance → participation] became significant in the expected direction [$\beta_{14} = -.15$, $p < .05$]). This suggests that the relationships observed in this study were not generated by a methodological artifact (see Figure 3). Moreover, it is unlikely that common method variance would account for the curvilinear interaction effect because respondents would need an "interaction-based theory" in their minds that could systematically bias their responses (Subramaniam and Venkatraman 2001, p. 372).

Our approach of studying moderator effects with a moderated regression analysis may constitute a further limitation of the first study, because it does not account for measurement error. Although several promising latent variable approaches for examining interaction effects have been proposed, they have not yet been conclusively evaluated in the psychometric literature. Thus, we chose moderated regression analysis as the traditional procedure for the sake of convenience in plotting the interaction effects (see Figure 4) and greater transparency for the reader. Moreover, because unaccounted measurement error in a system of equations is likely to hinder the detection of interaction effects (Singh 1998), our estimates are rather conservative. Accordingly, we believe that the interaction effects revealed in this study are not spurious effects.

Several avenues for further research stem from the current research. Future studies could consider additional moderator variables that might modify the impact of brand-specific TFL. For example, brand-specific transformational leaders may find more ready acceptance in a company with a strong brand image than in a "no-name" company. Furthermore, employees might differ significantly in their preference for either external or internal reinforcement (Avolio and Bass 2004). For example, salespeople may be less receptive to a transformational leadership style than other employees (e.g., from the marketing department) because of a "carrot-and-stick" mentality within the sales function. Moreover, although we examined the impact of brand-specific TRL on the effects of brand-specific TFL, we did not explicitly examine the impact of different tangible reward types (e.g., bonuses, incentives, awards) or verbal

reward types (Deci, Koestner, and Ryan 1999; Jaworksi and Kohli 1991), which would be of particular interest in the area of SDT.

Managerial Implications

What can managers do to enhance brand-building behaviors among their followers? This research suggests that managers should make a paradigm shift from a TRL to a TFL philosophy. At first glance, specifying behavioral codices and scripts for employees dealing with customers and then monitoring and rewarding appropriate demeanor might seem to be an easy solution for obtaining adequate performance from employees representing the corporate brand. However, we found that a highly transactional style was counterproductive in terms of followers' motivational condition. Managers would do much better by opening their minds to a TFL approach, which would entail behaviors such as articulating a unifying brand vision, acting as an appropriate role model by living the brand values, giving followers freedom to individually interpret their roles as brand representatives, and providing individualized support by acting as a coach and mentor. This would allow followers to experience the feelings of relatedness, autonomy, and competence in their roles as brand representatives, which would ultimately spill over into the commitment, authenticity, and proactivity that characterize a real brand champion. However, this is not to suggest that brand-specific TFL on its own is a panacea and that managers should refrain completely from TRL. It is difficult to conceive of an effective brand-oriented leader who would not at the same time clarify for employees their roles as representatives of the corporate brand, monitor their performance, and provide adequate compensation. Rather, this would be an important feature of brand-oriented leadership, bringing an otherwise too cloudy TFL style "down to earth." However, used to the extreme, TRL may make employees feel like string puppets dancing for the customer with their supervisors operating them from backstage. In contrast, when used carefully and in a limited way, transactional behaviors are likely to be understood by subordinates as helpful guidance, fair and constructive feedback, and signs of appreciation, thus adding substantial value to a TFL style. We believe that managers will be most successful in turning their crew into brand champions with a combination of a high level of brand-specific TFL and a moderate level of brand-specific TRL.

Admittedly, it is one thing to suggest that a manager should exert more TFL but another matter on how to get there. However, the current study explains the working mechanisms of the brand-specific leadership processes, so managers may now have an idea about the critical leadership qualities they need to show. In turn, this should help them question their old ways of leading people and identify their personal need for improvement. At the same time, this research can help organizations design brand-specific TFL training to support managers in their individual development plans. Ultimately, if firms strive to excel in terms of a workforce made up of brand champions, they must provide an organizational culture in which brand-specific TFL can flourish.

APPENDIX
Psychometric Properties of Measurement Scales

	Standardized Estimate[a]	α[b]	CR[b]		Standardized Estimate[a]	α[b]	CR[b]
Brand-Specific TFL		.96 (.95/.95)	.92 (.91/.91)	•Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished to strengthen our corporate brand.			
Intellectual Stimulation (Parcel)	.80			•Articulates a compelling vision of our corporate brand.			
•Reexamines critical assumptions of our brand promise to question whether they are appropriate.				•Expresses confidence that brand-related goals will be achieved.			
•Seeks differing perspectives when interpreting our corporate brand values.							
•Gets me to look at my job in terms of a branding task.				**Idealized Influence (Attributes) (Parcel)**	.90		
•Suggests a brand promoter's perspective of looking at how to complete assignments.				•Instills pride in me for being associated with our corporate brand.			
				•Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the corporate brand.			
Inspirational Motivation (Parcel)	.87			•Lives our corporate brand in ways that build my respect.			
•Talks optimistically about the future of our corporate brand.				•Displays a sense of power and confidence when talking about our corporate brand.			

	Standardized Estimate[a]	α[b]	CR[b]		Standardized Estimate[a]	α[b]	CR[b]
Idealized Influence (Behaviors) (Parcel)	.87			•Reacts with according sanctions if I do not adhere to our standards for brand-consistent behavior.[c]			
•Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of our corporate brand.							
•Talks about our most important brand values and his/her belief in them.				**Contingent Reward (Parcel)**	.95		
•Considers the moral and ethical consequences of our brand promise.				•Points out what I will receive if I do what is required from a brand representative.			
•Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of our brand mission.				•Tells me what to do to be rewarded for my efforts for brand-consistent behavior.			
Individual Consideration (Parcel)	.76			•Works out agreements with me on what I will receive if I behave in line with our standards for brand-consistent behavior.			
•Spends time teaching and coaching me in brand-related issues.				•Talks about special rewards for exemplary behavior as a brand representative.			
•Treats me as an individual rather than just one of many members of [corporate brand name].				**Role Identity Autonomy**		.58	.59
•Considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from other members of [corporate brand name].				•I feel like I can make a lot of inputs to deciding how to accomplish my role as a brand representative.	.64		
•Helps me to develop my strengths with regard to becoming a good representative of our brand.				•I am free to express my ideas and opinions on how to live my role as a brand representative.	.51		
Brand-Specific TRL		.89 (.92/.92)	.70 (.69/.68)	•There is not much opportunity for me to decide for myself how to live up to my role as a brand representative. (R)	.55		
Management-by-Exception Active (Parcel)	.48			**Role Identity Competence**		.71	.72
•Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from what is expected of me as a representative of our corporate brand.				•People tell me I am good in my role as a brand representative.	.70		
•Keeps careful track of mistakes regarding brand-consistency of my behavior.				•Most days I feel a sense of accomplishment from my role as a brand representative.	.73		
•Monitors my performance as a brand representative for errors needing correction.				•In my role as a brand representative, I often do not feel very capable. (R)	.61		
•Is alert for failure to meet standards for brand-consistent behavior.				**Relatedness to Corporate Brand Community**		.76	.78
•Reprimands me when my performance is not up to standards for brand-consistent behavior.[c]				•I really like the people from [corporate brand name].	.79		

	Standard-ized Estimate[a]	α[b]	CR[b]		Standard-ized Estimate[a]	α[b]	CR[b]
•I get along with people from [corporate brand name].	.75			**In-Role Brand-Building Behavior**		.83	.83
•I consider the people from [corporate brand name] to be my friends.	.66			•In customer-contact sit-uations, I pay attention that my personal appear-ance is in line with our corporate brand's appearance.	.79		
Role Identity Internalization (Second-Order Factor)			.69	•I see that my actions in customer contact are not at odds with our stan-dards for brand-adequate behavior.	.78		
Role Identity Salience (First-Order Factor)	.82	.81	.83	•I adhere to our standards for brand-congruent behavior.	.78		
•For me, working for [cor-porate brand name] means more than just earning my living.	.82			**Positive Word of Mouth**		.88	.89
•Working for [corporate brand name] is an impor-tant part of who I am.	.89			•I "talk up" [corporate brand name] to people I know.	.82		
•I often describe myself to others by saying "I work for [corporate brand name]" or "I am from [corporate brand name]."	.63			•I bring up [corporate brand name] in a positive way in conversations I have with friends and acquaintances.	.89		
Value Congruence	.62			•In social situations, I often speak favorably about [corporate brand name].	.84		
•Please indicate the level of overlap between your and [corporate brand name]'s value system.				**Participation**		.87	.87
Compliance		.73	.74	•I let my supervisor know of ways how we can strengthen our brand image.	.86		
•Unless I am rewarded for it in some way, I see no reason to expend extra effort on behalf of our brand's image.	.67			•I make constructive sug-gestions on how to improve our customers' brand experience.	.92		
•How much I champion our corporate brand is directly linked to how much I am rewarded.	.85			•If I have a useful idea on how to improve our brand's performance, I share it with my supervisor.	.71		
Retention		.86	.87				
•I intend to leave [corpo-rate brand name] within a short period of time. (R)	.83						
•I have decided to quit [corporate brand name]. (R)	.83						
•I am looking at some other employer now. (R)	.84						

[a]All estimates are significant at $p < .01$.
[b]Coefficient alphas are based on individual items, CRs are based on item parcels; numbers in parentheses denote coefficient alphas and CRs for Study 2 at Times 1 and 2, respectively.
[c]Additional item for management-by-exception that was included in Study 2.
Notes: (R) = reverse coded. Study 1: $\chi^2(471) = 636.389$, $p = .000$; CFI = .958; TLI = .950; gamma hat = .965; RMSEA = .036; and SRMR = .047. Study 2 (Time 1): $\chi^2(13) = 22.346$, $p = .050$; CFI = .988; TLI = .980; gamma hat = .988; RMSEA = .057; and SRMR = .030. Study 2 (Time 2): $\chi^2(13) = 19.739$, $p = .102$; CFI = .991; TLI = .985; gamma hat = .991; RMSEA = .048; and SRMR = .022.

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