Leader Advancement Motive, Political Skill, Leader Behavior, and Effectiveness:
A Moderated Mediation Extension of Socioanalytic Theory

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Abstract

We examine socioanalytic theory from a leadership perspective, and extend this research to examine the mediating mechanisms through which leader getting ahead motive and social competence influence leader effectiveness outcomes. A first-stage moderated mediation model was tested and supported, positioning the leader motive to get ahead x political skill interaction as influencing perceived institutional effectiveness and follower satisfaction with one’s leader through leader initiating structure behavior. This research both supports the relevance of socioanalytic theory for predicting leadership outcomes, and extends socioanalytic theory to examine a mediating mechanism through which the interaction of the leader getting ahead motive and social competencies affect relevant performance outcomes. Contributions, strengths and limitations, directions for future research, and practical implications are discussed.

Key words: Socioanalytic theory, leader getting ahead motive, political skill, leader initiating structure behavior, institutional effectiveness, follower satisfaction with leader
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Socioanalytic theory assumes that two basic motives underlie social interaction (Hogan, 1983; 1996). Specifically, people are motivated to (1) gain status, power, and the control of resources, and fear the loss of status and control (get ahead), and (2) feel accepted and supported and fear social isolation (get along). Getting ahead and getting along are universal themes in human affairs (Hogan & Blickle, 2013), and in an ultimate sense, satisfying these needs enhances individual fitness and well-being.

As such, individuals seek roles that allow them to express their desired motives (e.g., (Hogan & Shelton, 1998). An important organizational role that individuals may seek out in efforts to express their desired motives is that of leader (Kaiser, Hogan, & Craig, 2008). Effective leaders foster group cohesion and adaptation in competitive and often hostile environments (Kaiser et al., 2008), and convince followers to (temporarily) set aside self-interest in pursuit of commonly shared goals (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005). Nonetheless, although goals for leaders are well defined, the manner in which leaders achieve their goals varies as much as the motives or values of the leaders themselves. In leadership settings, socioanalytic theory holds that leader motives represent the key to understanding leader motivation and behavior. Specifically, motives determine the interactions individuals are willing to enter, and how they want to play their roles (Hogan & Blickle, 2013).

Unfortunately, little is known about how followers react to leaders’ advancement (i.e., get ahead) motive. In the present study, we focus on this motive (i.e., and control for the getting along motive) because, by their hierarchical positioning, leaders already are in a position to exploit their followers (Van Vugt, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2008), and therefore, their unbridled desire to get ahead may be pursued at the expense of followers’ and/or organizations’ best interests. On the other hand, behaviors and strategies for pursuing leaders’ desire to get along (e.g., cooperation, team player) are likely to be well-received by followers,
but the success of such strategies is unlikely to be as dependent upon leaders’ skillful execution as the behaviors/strategies needed to satisfy their motive to advance.

Moreover, the above discussion implies that leaders must do something to pursue their motive to get ahead. Thus, in keeping with recent process models of leadership effectiveness (DeRue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011), we hypothesize that leaders transmit their desire to get ahead in the form of behaviors concerned with defining and clarifying followers’ tasks, goals, deadlines, and the evaluative standards to which they will be held accountable (i.e., initiating structure behavior). In this manner, leaders are thought to transmit their desires to get ahead into purposive and directive action for their followers. Moreover, grounded in socioanalytic theory, we suggest that those leaders who are politically skilled (i.e., socially competent) will be most effective at structuring followers’ work environments and tasks (i.e., not forcibly), and ultimately will be more effective in terms of followers’ perceptions of institutional effectiveness and followers’ satisfaction with their leader.

Thus, drawing from Hogan’s socioanalytic theory (e.g., Hogan & Shelton, 1998), the present study proposes and tests a moderated mediation model (see Figure 1) that positions the leader motive to get ahead (controlling for the getting along motive) x political skill interaction as influencing perceived institutional effectiveness and follower satisfaction with one’s leader through the mediating mechanism of leader initiating structure behavior (controlling for leader consideration behavior which has been studied along with initiating structure behavior for many years). As such, this investigation contributes to existing theory and research in several ways. First, we investigate socioanalytic theory within the leadership perspective to examine how the interaction of leader motive x social competence affects relevant leadership outcomes (i.e., follower perceptions of institutional effectiveness and follower satisfaction with leader).
Second, the present study makes a unique contribution to socioanalytic theory as we examine how leaders’ motives influence follower- and organization-level outcomes. Therefore, this study fills a gap in our understanding of how leader motive to get ahead is transformed into others’ ratings of (subjective) leadership effectiveness. Finally, we extend socioanalytic theory to examine a mediating mechanism through which the motive to get ahead x political skill interaction influences important workplace outcomes; the specification of such behavioral mediators has not been systematically examined to date.

Specifically, we suggest that leaders engage in structuring behaviors (i.e., initiating structure) in order to translate their motive to get ahead into other-rated performance, and that those leaders who are politically skilled will be most effective at translating their advancement desires into structuring behaviors and ultimately effectiveness. As such, we answer calls for research examining the process by which leader traits influence leader effectiveness through leader behavior (DeRue et al., 2011).

Theoretical Background and Hypothesis Development

Socioanalytic Theory and Work Values

According to socioanalytic theory (Hogan & Shelton, 1998) individuals seek roles that allow them to express their desired motives. Presenting oneself to others is a social game in which participants try to control how they are seen by others (Hogan & Shelton, 1998). Those who are skilled at the game will be able to convince others of their desired image. However, although most people experience such motives, some individuals are better at pursuing and fulfilling them than are others. In this regard, Hogan and Shelton (1998) suggested that individual differences in ability to translate motives into effective social behavior depend on social competence.
Leader advancement motive. Hogan (1983; 1996) defined the motive to get ahead as the intentional effort to achieve status and power. Those with strong motives to get ahead act in socially visible ways, because they value and seek to be perceived as powerful and influential. As such, this advancement motive is best embodied in the work context by work values (Roberts, 2006). Related theory and research concerning the “work values as preferences” paradigm (Berings, De Fruyt, & Bouwen, 2004; Pryor, 1982; Super, 1970) characterizes work values as tendencies to prefer features of the work environment, and as personal characteristics that explain individual differences in vocational or organizational behavior.

For the purposes of this study, the terms “work values” and “motives” are used interchangeably as they both represent personal characteristics that explain individual differences in workplace behavior. Both work values and motives are viewed as characteristic adaptations that are assumed to be more malleable, and they develop through interactions with the specific work context (Berings et al., 2003); nonetheless, at least in part, they have dispositional roots. In support, Roberts’ (2006) hierarchical arrangement of personality and situation maintained that motives were broadly manifest as values, and this conceptualization has received empirical support in recent research (e.g., Blickle et al., 2011b). Therefore, in the present study, we draw from previous research on socioanalytic theory to characterize the leaders’ motive to get ahead as a work value that emphasizes preferences for status and power.

In a leadership context, the motive to get ahead is especially important as leaders who wish to get ahead will seek out responsibility, power, status, recognition, and individual success (Hogan & Holland, 2003). Those who assume leadership positions likely possess a notable desire to get ahead; that is, to a certain degree, individuals who take on leadership roles display competitiveness and seek out responsibility, visibility, recognition, and power (Hogan & Holland, 2003). However, because those low in social competency are not capable
of conveying the proper situationally appropriate image, they tend to reflect a certain awkwardness and general negative impressions.

**Political skill as a social competence.** In order to succeed, people use social competencies to leverage their motives during social interaction (Hogan & Shelton, 1998); as such, social competence translates peoples’ motives into successful social action. Blickle et al. (2011b) recommended assessing context-specific measures of social competence, given that such measures reflect adoptions of individuals’ more general tendencies (e.g., motive to get ahead) to their environments. Most notably, much of the research employing context-specific measures of social competence within the socioanalytic framework has examined political skill, which is defined as “the ability to effectively understand others at work, and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one’s personal and/or organizational objectives” (Ferris et al., 2005, p. 127).

By definition, politically skilled persons are able to understand and influence others during social interaction, and they calibrate their behavior to fit changing contexts. Their astuteness and adaptability allows them to exercise influence (Treadway, Ferris, Duke, Adams, & Thatcher, 2007), and their genuineness and sincerity helps them gain the confidence of others, and to develop networks of contacts they can leverage for additional influence (Ferris et al., 2007). These skills help people to select situationally-appropriate behavior during interactions to actualize their motives or values. Moreover, while other measures of social competence exist, political skill has demonstrated predictive validity (of managerial job performance) over and above many of the more common social competencies, including emotional intelligence, self-monitoring, and leadership self-efficacy (Sedmar, Robins, & Ferris, 2006).

As such, political skill is a valid conceptualization of social competence or effectiveness at work (cf. Ferris, Treadway, Brouer, & Munyon, 2012), and it has been found to help translate individuals’ motives to get ahead into heightened performance (Blickle,
Wendel, & Ferris, 2010). In the following section, we expand socioanalytic theory to examine explicitly what *behaviors/strategies* leaders use to mobilize their motive to get ahead.

**Leader Advancement Motive x Political Skill Interaction on Initiating Structure**

Initiating structure involves actively defining, orienting, and organizing followers towards goal attainment, as well as establishing open channels of communication for followers (Fleishman, 1973). Leaders high on initiating structure help followers focus on the assigned duties that affect performance outcomes (Keller, 2006). Moreover, assigning duties and controlling work quality gives the acting person the appearance of standing above others, and serves to transmit leaders’ desires to get ahead by directing followers to engage in behaviors that ultimately will benefit the leaders (e.g., in terms of team/group performance, recognition, power, etc.).

Whereas we realize that there might be other behaviors that leaders can exhibit to transmit their advancement motives, we hypothesize that initiating structure is an important way for leaders to express their motive to get ahead. In this manner, structuring behaviors should assist leaders in pursuing their desire to get ahead, in that such behaviors aid followers’ understanding of goals and their role in achieving such goals which should contribute to follower performance (and subsequently fuels leaders’ power, influence, recognition, etc.). In other words, the positive effects of structuring behaviors should represent an effective vehicle through which leaders further acquire power, influence, recognition, and responsibility (i.e., get ahead).

Furthermore, according to socioanalytic theory, leaders will be differentially successful in their attempts to transmit their advancement motives into effective social action. Building on this notion, although all leaders forcibly could direct and orient followers towards goal attainment by way of their hierarchical authority, we hypothesize that politically skilled leaders will be able to package, present, and leverage their structuring behavior in a convincing, yet subtle and effective, manner. By definition, politically skilled individuals are
able to enhance their personal and/or organizational objectives by way of their keen understanding of, and influence over, those with whom they interact (i.e., interpersonal influence; Ferris et al., 2005). Moreover, politically skilled leaders are keenly aware of their followers’ needs and desires (i.e., social astuteness), and thus, are better suited to engage in appropriate amounts and types of structuring behaviors that address followers’ needs (Blickle, Kane et al., 2013). Finally, perhaps most important in this context, politically skilled individuals are apparently well-intentioned, genuine, trustworthy, and devoid of ulterior motives (i.e., apparent sincerity; Ferris et al., 2005; Ferris et al., 2007).

Therefore, we hypothesize that political skill will prevent leaders from engaging in structuring behaviors in ways that are perceived by followers as coercive, manipulative, and self-serving. Instead, politically skilled leaders are thought to rely on their personal savvy and adroit influence capabilities to garner followers’ commitment towards specific action plans, and influence followers’ understanding of such directives in ways that followers perceive as high, but not excessive, amounts of structuring behaviors.

Alternatively, leaders low in political skill will be unable to transmit their desires to get ahead into specific directives and role clarification without appearing to be heavy-handed. Without political skill, individuals are unable to adjust and calibrate their behaviors to what is deemed situationally appropriate. Moreover, individuals low in political skill are unable to disguise their motives to get ahead as well-intentioned structuring behaviors; instead, they are likely to be perceived as forceful, bossy, and coercive, rather than engaged in behaviors actually indicative of initiating structure. More specifically, rather than structuring followers’ tasks in such a way as to bring about clarity, clear directions, open communication, and understanding, leaders low in political skill are likely to be seen as imposing directives and role-assignments in a top-down manner, and dictating orders unilaterally. In sum, we suggest that politically skilled leaders should be more sophisticated in transmitting their motive to get ahead into structuring behaviors. More formally, we posit the following:
Hypothesis 1: Political skill will moderate the relationship between leader’s motive to get ahead and followers’ perception of leader’s initiating structure behaviors. Specifically, when political skill is high, increases in leader’s motive to get ahead are related to increases in follower perceptions of leader’s initiating structure behaviors, whereas when political skill is low, increases in leader’s motive to get ahead are not related to follower perceptions of leader’s initiating structure behaviors.

Leader Initiating Structure Effects on Followers’ Work Outcomes

Initiating structure (along with consideration) is one of the fundamental dimensions of leadership behavior (Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004), and was considered among one of the most robust concepts of leadership (Fleishman, 1995) until falling out of favor as a result of the renewed interest in the trait-paradigm of leadership in the 1990s (Barling, Christie, & Hoption, 2011). However, recent meta-analytic evidence in support of the predictive validity of initiating structure (and consideration\(^1\); Judge et al., 2004) stimulated newfound interest in this perspective.

Specifically, meta-analytic research (Judge et al., 2004) found that initiating structure predicted organizational effectiveness criteria, such as group-organization performance (\(\rho = .30\)), follower job satisfaction (\(\rho = .22\)), leader job performance (\(\rho = .24\)), and leader effectiveness (\(\rho = .30\)). Therefore, consistent with these findings, we hypothesize that followers should be more satisfied with leaders who they perceive as engaged in proper amounts and types of structuring behaviors. Moreover, because leaders are considered agents of their employing organization (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986), followers should perceive the institutions employing these politically skilled leaders to be more effective as well. More formally, we posit the following:

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\(^1\) In the present study, leader consideration behavior is included as a control, given the debatable and often inconsistent relationship it has shown with initiating structure. Judge et al. (2004) hypothesized and found mixed results regarding the significance of the relationship between these two variables, so conservatively, we controlled for consideration behavior in this study.
Hypothesis 2: Followers’ perceptions of leaders’ initiating structure behaviors will be positively related to followers’ (a) perceived institutional effectiveness and (b) satisfaction with their leader.

A Socioanalytic Moderated Mediation Leadership Perspective

Evidence abounds in support of socioanalytic theory’s advancement motive; that is, that motives to get ahead engender performance to the extent that an individual demonstrates social competence (e.g., Hogan & Blickle, 2013). Nonetheless, little is known about the mechanisms through which individuals translate their motives into effective social action. DeRue and colleagues (2011) developed, tested, and found meta-analytic support for a model of leader effectiveness in which leader behaviors (e.g., initiating structure) mediated the relationship between leader traits and both subjective and objective measures of leader effectiveness. Therefore, we extend socioanalytic theory by hypothesizing that followers’ perceptions of leaders’ initiating structure behaviors will mediate the relationship between leaders’ motives to get ahead and leaders’ subjective effectiveness (i.e., as operationalized here as followers’ satisfaction with their leader and ratings of institutional effectiveness).

Moreover, grounded in socioanalytic theory, we hypothesize that political skill will enable leaders to more successfully transmit their motive to get ahead into structuring behaviors, which in turn are hypothesized to positively affect followers’ ratings of leader effectiveness. Collectively, this implies that political skill enables leaders to properly mobilize their desires to get ahead via well-calibrated structuring behaviors, which, in turn, should result in followers’ ratings of subjective leader effectiveness. Thus, we posit the following:

Hypothesis 3: Followers’ perceptions of leader’s initiating structure behaviors will mediate the leader motive to get ahead x leader political skill interaction effect on (3a)

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2 According to DeRue et al (2011), leader effectiveness can be categorized by level of analysis (e.g., individual, organization), content (e.g., affective/relational, overall), and target of evaluation (e.g., leader, group). According to this classification, we examine follower satisfaction (i.e., an individual affective conceptualization of leader effectiveness) as well as follower ratings of institutional effectiveness (i.e., an overall organizational-level conceptualization of leader effectiveness).
followers’ perceptions of institutional effectiveness and (3b) followers’ satisfaction with their leader. For leaders high in political skill, increases in leader motive to get ahead will be indirectly related to increases in (3a) perceived institutional effectiveness and (3b) followers’ satisfaction with their leader through followers’ perceptions of leader’s initiating structure behaviors. For leaders low in political skill, increases in leader motive to get ahead will not be indirectly associated with increases in (3a) perceived institutional effectiveness nor (3b) followers’ satisfaction with their leader through followers’ perceptions of leader initiating structure behaviors.

Method

Participants and Procedure

In order to collect a large leader sample with similar professional backgrounds and organizational settings, we selected school headmasters (i.e., leaders) and teachers (i.e., followers) in Germany to represent leaders and followers in this study. This approach has a long tradition in industrial and organizational psychology. Additionally, recent educational reforms in Europe have highlighted the role of leadership in schools (e.g., StEG, 2010). We surveyed headmasters in two federal states in the western part of Germany. Our invitation e-mail included general information about the study and a personal link to the online leader questionnaire which contained a randomly generated identification code. In order to create a multi-rater group for each leader, we asked the headmasters to nominate at least three members of their teaching staff to assess their leadership effectiveness. Headmasters who accepted this invitation sent us the e-mail addresses of at least three of their teachers.

Subsequently, we sent an invitation-e-mail to the nominated teachers containing general information about the survey, and a leader-identification coded link to the subordinate online questionnaire. If headmasters requested paper questionnaires for their teachers, we provided them with leader-identification coded paper/pencil versions of the teacher questionnaires and prepaid, preaddressed return envelopes. The leader-identification codes
allowed the research team to match the follower/teacher questionnaires with the respective leader/headmaster questionnaire. The response rate among headmasters was 12.62%.

The sample comprised 1881 subordinates and 510 leaders (49.4% female). On average, headmasters were rated by 3.7 teaching staff members with 13.3% of the headmasters rated by one rater and 86.7% rated by two or more raters. All headmasters held a Master’s degree, averaged 53 years of age ($SD = 7.64$), and 28 years ($SD = 9.07$) of vocational experience. Each headmaster supervised an average of 42 teaching staff members ($SD = 36.67$) and 528 students ($SD = 710.19$).

**Measures**

**Leader motive to get ahead.** In previous research, work values have been suggested (Roberts, 2006) and successfully used (Blickle et al., 2011b) to assess the motives of getting ahead and getting along in the workplace. Specifically, according to Roberts’ (2006) hierarchical arrangement of personality and situational constructs from broad to narrow, values are best characterized as broad manifestations of motives. Thus, in keeping with previous conceptualizations and operationalizations (e.g., Blickle et al., 2010; 2011b), we used the German version (Seifert & Bergmann, 1983) of the Work Value Inventory (Super, 1970) to measure individual differences in motives to get ahead. Specifically, we used the Prestige scale to measure getting ahead ($\alpha = .77$), which includes items such as: At work, it is very important/unimportant to me “to gain reputation in my job,” and “attain a respected position.” Possible responses ranged from *completely unimportant* (1) to *very important* (5).

**Leader political skill.** We assessed social skill/competence with the German version (Blickle et al., 2008; Lvina et al., 2012) of the Political Skill Inventory (PSI; Ferris et al., 2005; $\alpha = .87$). The PSI contains 18 items, each captured on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = low to 7 = high. Sample items include “I spend a lot of time at work developing connections with others” and “It is easy for me to develop good rapport with most people.”
Follower reports of leader initiating structure. Teachers (i.e., followers) were asked to describe their headmasters’ (i.e., leaders’) leadership behavior. The *Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire* (i.e., *LBDQ*, Stogdill, 1963; third-person singular conjugation; Heinitz, 2006) served to capture followers’ perceptions of the frequency with which their leaders engaged in structuring behaviors ($\alpha = .91$). Followers rated the frequency that the leaders displayed certain structuring behaviors on a 5-point scale (1 = never to 5 = always). Sample items include “Letting subordinates know what is expected of them” and “Assigning team members to particular tasks.”

Follower perceived institutional effectiveness. Due to the nature of the school setting, the objective performance of a teaching staff is difficult to capture. Therefore, we adopted a context-specific measurement approach with multiple rater sources. Specifically, we developed a scale based on the quality guidelines set and monitored by the Ministry of Education, Science, Youth, and Culture of the Federal State Rhineland-Palatine (Wetzstein, Suchanek, & Paul, 2009) to capture the institutional effectiveness of a school as perceived by staff members. In Germany, teachers must work in several different schools during their vocational training before being assigned to one school, allowing them to compare the institutional effectiveness in their current school with effectiveness in other schools.

The 6-item scale employed for the purpose of this study ($\alpha = .90$) included the following items: How well does the workgroup (teaching staff), which is guided by this person (the headmaster), perform in the following activities: “Meeting demands faced by the workgroup”, “Accomplishing group tasks,” “Efficiency of team meetings,” “Implementation of guidelines set by the leader,” “Quality of the overall workgroup performance,” and “Overall quality of the school.” Possible responses ranged from 1 to 5 where 1 indicated “much worse than comparable workgroups,” 3 indicated “as good as comparable workgroups,” and 5 indicated “much better than comparable workgroups.”
**Follower satisfaction with leader.** We measured followers’ satisfaction with their leader with a composite score based on the following 3 items (Weymann & Koll, 2001; \(\alpha = .95\)): How satisfied are you personally with “your current direct supervisor,” “the leadership of your direct supervisor,” and “the manner of appearance of your direct supervisor?” Possible responses ranged from very unsatisfied (1) to very satisfied (5).

**Control variables.** To more rigorously test the study hypotheses, we controlled for several variables that are potentially relevant to the substantive variables of interest. Recent research has shown that leaders’ gender (Taylor & Hood, 2011) and years of vocational experience (Zacher, Rosing, Henning, & Frese, 2011) influence leadership outcomes; thus, we included them as controls. In addition, we utilized the number of teachers within a school to control for organizational size (Vaccaro, Jansen, Van Den Bosch, & Volberda, 2012).

Additionally, we controlled for leaders’ motive to get along given previous research establishing the interactive effects of political skill and narrow conceptualizations of the motive to get along on performance (e.g., Meurs, Perrewé, & Ferris, 2011). Thus, in keeping with Roberts’ (2006) classification of values as “a broad manifestation of motives” (p. 13), we measured leader motive to get along utilizing the German version (Seifert & Bergmann, 1983) of the *Work Value Inventory* (Super, 1970). Specifically, we used the *Good Relations with Associates, Good Relations with Subordinates,* and *Good Relations with Supervisors* scales to measure getting along. Possible responses ranged from 1 = unimportant to 5 = very important. In line with Blickle et al. (2011b), we aggregated these scales based on the *Work Value Inventory* to form a measure of the leader motive to get along \((\alpha = .79)\).

Finally, we controlled for followers’ perceptions of leader consideration behavior, because such behaviors have been linked to follower satisfaction and institutional effectiveness in past research, and also has shown inconsistent relationships with initiating structure (Judge et al., 2004). Accordingly, utilizing the *LBDQ* (third-person singular conjugation; Heinitz, 2006), followers were asked to indicate the extent to which their leaders
demonstrated consideration behaviors ($\alpha = .76$). The followers rated the frequency that the leaders displayed certain behaviors on a 5-Point scale (1 = never to 5 = always). Sample items include “Finding time to listen to subordinates” and “Backing up the team members in their actions.”

**Data Analyses**

**Preliminary examination of data.** Given the fact that leaders nominated the followers who assessed group performance and provided satisfaction scores, we tested for the presence of a selection bias by examining the distribution of the institutional effectiveness and follower satisfaction with leader variables. If there was a selection bias, the distributions would be strongly skewed (expected negative skew). The results were as follows: Institutional effectiveness, *Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) Z*-test $= .92, p < .37$, skewness $= -.281$, kurtosis $= -.06$; follower satisfaction with leader, *KS Z*-test $= 2.41, p < .01$, skewness $= -.870$, kurtosis $= .46$; zero values of skewness and kurtosis represent perfectly normal distributions, skewness $> \pm 3$ and kurtosis $> \pm 7$ indicate non-normal distributions (cf. Curran, West, & Finch 1996).

In sum, these findings do not support a selection bias for the institutional effectiveness variable. With the follower satisfaction with leader variable, the *Kolmogorov-Smirnov*-test indicated non-normality; however skewness and kurtosis did not deviate from normal distribution. As two of three indicators of normality do not indicate a selection bias, the follower satisfaction with leader variable was deemed acceptable. In addition, we determined that there was no difference in responses between online and paper-pencil surveys.

**Justification for aggregation of follower ratings.** In the next step, we computed intraclass correlations (ICC(1); Shrout & Fleiss, 1979) to justify the aggregation of individual rater scores for the outcome and control variables. The *ICC(1)* provides an estimate of the amount of agreement between followers (i.e., teachers) regarding institutional effectiveness evaluations and ratings of follower satisfaction with the leader. To this end, the *ICC(1)*
compares the between rater-group variance with the overall variance of a target variable (e.g., institutional effectiveness). An \( ICC(1) \) of above .10 is commonly accepted as sufficiently high to allow the aggregation of rater scores (Bliese, 2000), whereas \( ICC(1) \) values below .10 would seem to indicate that followers’ ratings of their leader were completely independent of their affiliation with their leader. In the present study, we found statistical justification to aggregate rater scores across leaders to obtain an average score for follower satisfaction with the leader (\( ICC(1) = .28 \)), institutional effectiveness (\( ICC(1) = .23 \)), follower consideration (\( ICC(1) = .35 \)), and follower initiating structure (\( ICC(1) = .32 \)).

In addition to intraclass correlations, interrater agreement (IRA) indicates interchangeability or the absolute consensus between raters (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). The most popular estimate of interrater agreement is \( r_{WG(J)} \) (James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1993). As IRA estimates approach 1, the more one individual’s ratings of a target are thought to be interchangeable with other individuals’ ratings of the same target (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). In the present study, IRA for follower satisfaction with the leader (\( r_{WG} = .68 \)), institutional effectiveness (\( r_{WG} = .79 \)), follower reports of consideration (\( r_{WG} = .89 \)), and follower reports of initiating structure (\( r_{WG} = .91 \)) were all high. As such, we felt confident that teachers’ ratings of the same headmaster were so similar (i.e., interchangeable) that they could be aggregated to form a single rating.

Taken together, both the \( ICC(1) \) and IRA values lend strong support for our decision to aggregate teachers’ ratings of the same headmaster into one overall aggregate rating (e.g., of satisfaction with the leader, perceived institutional effectiveness). In other words, this is to say that we have strong empirical support that each of the teachers (i.e., followers) working for a specific headmaster (i.e., leader) have highly similar levels of satisfaction with their leader and perceptions of institutional effectiveness, and for the most part, perceive their leader to engage in roughly the same amount of consideration and structuring behaviors. Thus, this provides another indication of the reliability of our measures.
**Evaluation of hypothesized relationships.** In order to test the hypothesized model (Figure 1), we conducted structural equations modeling analyses with manifest variables and maximum likelihood estimation using Mplus 7 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2012). We built a first-stage moderated mediation model (Edwards & Lambert, 2007), where only the path from the predictor (i.e., leader motive to get ahead) to the mediator (i.e., follower reported initiating structure) was moderated (i.e., by political skill), but not the paths from follower-reported initiating structure to both outcome variables (i.e., institutional effectiveness and follower satisfaction with leader).

Additionally, we modeled a path from leader motive to get ahead to both institutional effectiveness and follower satisfaction with leader. The control variables were estimated on both the mediator and outcome variables and the correlation between both outcome variables was allowed. Next, following Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes (2007), we computed the conditional indirect effect of leader motive to get ahead on both institutional effectiveness and follower satisfaction with leader via follower-reported initiating structure at different values of the moderator political skill (i.e., one standard deviation above and below the mean; Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). The 99% confidence intervals of the resulting conditional indirect effects were obtained utilizing 5000 bootstrap samples.

**Results**

**Pattern of Correlations**

The means, standard deviations, correlations, and reliability estimates of all variables appear in Table 1. Consistent with Judge et al. (2004), we found a positive correlation between the LBDQ measures of follower reports of initiating structure and consideration. \((r = .24, p < .01)\). Admittedly, the criterion of interest, followers’ satisfaction with their leader and perceived institutional effectiveness were highly correlated \((r = .55, p < .01)\). This is not surprising given that both of these criteria reflect leadership effectiveness outcomes, albeit follower satisfaction represents an individual affective conceptualization and perceptions of
institutional effectiveness represents an overall organizational-level conceptualization of leader effectiveness (DeRue et al., 2011).

Leader political skill was moderately correlated with leader motive to get ahead \((r = .29, p < .01)\), leader motive to get along \((r = .14, p < .01)\), and weakly correlated with follower-rated consideration \((r = .09, p < .01)\) and follower-rated initiating structure \((r = .15, p < .01)\). Also, leader political skill was significantly correlated with followers' satisfaction with their leader \((r = .13, p < .01)\) and institutional effectiveness \((r = .18, p < .01)\), the latter of which validates prior research examining the effects of political skill on team performance (i.e., Ahearn, Ferris, Hochwarter, Douglas, & Ammeter, 2004). Both follower ratings of leader consideration \((r = .43, p < .01)\) and initiating structure \((r = .45, p < .01)\) behaviors were positively and significantly correlated with institutional effectiveness. Additionally, followers' satisfaction with their leader was more strongly related to follower ratings of leader consideration \((r = .76, p < .01)\) than with follower ratings of leader initiating structure behaviors \((r = .32, p < .05)\). This pattern mirrors the findings by Judge et al. (2004), thereby supporting the inclusion of consideration as an important control.

Interestingly, leader political skill was not significantly related to leader gender \((r = -.03, \text{ns})\) nor leader experience (i.e., years of vocational experience, \(r = .02, \text{ns}\)). Thus, these findings support the notion that political skill is not a gender-specific set of competencies; this is refreshing given the growing body of literature that establishes political skill as an essential workplace competency that predicts performance (Blickle et al., 2011a) and career success (Todd, Harris, Harris, & Wheeler, 2009). Rather curious was the nonsignificant relationship between gender and motive to get ahead \((r = .03)\), but the significant correlation between gender and the motive to get along \((r = -.17, p < .01)\), indicating that female followers perceived heightened levels of leader motive to get along but did not perceive their leaders to demonstrate heightened levels of motive to get ahead relative to their male peers. Also, female respondents tended to perceive their leaders to use more structuring behaviors \((r = -.19,
Taken together, these correlational results tend to suggest that follower gender influences how leader behaviors and motives are received; specifically, females appear more likely to perceive leaders as motivated to get along (i.e., communion striving) but also may be more sensitive to leaders’ attempts to structure the task environment.

Tests of Hypotheses

Results from the structural equations modeling analyses are shown in Table 2. The fit indices of our model were satisfactory ($\chi^2/df$ ratio = 1.73, $p = .139$; RMSEA = .038; CFI = .996; SRMR = .010) suggesting the data fit the model very well. Moreover, the results (Table 2, left column) indicate a significant and positive interaction of leader motive to get ahead x leader political skill on follower reports of leader initiating structure behavior ($B = .07, SE = .03, p < .05$). We plotted the interaction effect following Cohen et al. (2003) at low levels (i.e. 1 standard deviation below the mean) and at high levels (i.e. 1 standard deviation above the mean) of leader political skill. As can be seen in Figure 2, increases in leader motive to get ahead yielded higher values in follower-rated leader initiating structure behavior when leaders were high in political skill ($b = .08, p < .05$). When leaders were low in political skill, there was no change in followers’ reports of leader initiating structure behavior as leader motive to get ahead increased ($b = .00, p > .05$). These results confirm Hypothesis 1.

Hypotheses 2a and 2b argued that follower reports of leader initiating structure behavior would be positively related to both follower-reported perceived institutional effectiveness and follower satisfaction with leader, respectively. The results (Table 2, middle column) indicate that follower reports of leader initiating structure behavior were positively related to perceived institutional effectiveness ($B = .48, p < .01$), thus providing support for Hypothesis 2a. Moreover, results (Table 2, right column) indicate that follower reports of
leader initiating structure behavior were positively related to follower satisfaction with leader ($B = .27, p < .01$), providing support for Hypothesis 2b.

In order to test the moderated mediation hypotheses (i.e., Hypotheses 3a and 3b), we computed the conditional indirect effect at one standard deviation above and below the mean of leader political skill. The conditional indirect effect for high political skill on perceived institutional effectiveness was $0.04 (SE = 0.02, CI_{99\%} based on 5000 bootstrap samples = [0.005, 0.082])$, whereas the conditional indirect effect for low political skill on perceived institutional effectiveness was $0.00 (SE = 0.02, CI_{99\%} based on 5000 bootstrap samples = [-0.042; 0.042])$. These results provide support for Hypothesis 3a. On the other hand, the conditional indirect effect for high political skill on followers’ satisfaction with their leader was $0.02 (SE = 0.01, 99\% Confidence interval based on 5000 bootstrap samples = [0.003; 0.051])$, whereas for low political skill the conditional indirect effect on followers’ satisfaction with their leader was $0.00 (SE = 0.01, 99\% Confidence interval based on 5000 bootstrap samples = [-0.024; 0.023])$. Thus, these results provide support for Hypothesis 3b.

**Discussion**

We employed a socioanalytic theory of leadership to examine the interactive effects of leaders’ motive to get ahead with leaders’ context-specific social competence (i.e., political skill) on two types of leader effectiveness (i.e., institutional effectiveness, follower satisfaction) through leaders’ structuring behaviors. We argued that leaders would engage in structuring behaviors as a means to deploy their own motive to get ahead, and such structuring behavior would enable followers to more fully understand their role in goal accomplishment. In turn, followers who had clearly defined roles, tasks, and open lines of communication were argued to be more satisfied with their leader (and perhaps ultimately demonstrate higher performance), which was argued to ultimately assist leaders fulfill their motive to get ahead (e.g., via increased recognition, power, influence, etc.). Supporting our hypotheses, we found that politically skilled leaders who were motivated to get ahead were
perceived by followers to engage in heightened amounts of structuring behaviors, and as a result, followers indicated heightened levels of overall institutional effectiveness and satisfaction with their leader.

**Contributions to Theory and Research**

This study contributes to the literature in a number of ways. First, the primary contribution of this study relates to its support, further specification, and extension of socioanalytic theory. Specifically, we found support for the motive x competence interaction, reinforcing the notion that the successful pursuit of one’s motives differs as a function of individual differences in social competence (Hogan & Shelton, 1998). In addition, while socioanalytic theory is often used to explain an individual’s job performance, we examine socioanalytic theory within a leadership context, contributing to its further specification. Finally, this research serves also to extend socioanalytic theory to examine one specific mechanism by which leaders translate their motive to get ahead and social competence into effectiveness outcomes.

As such, this study contributes to the literature in that we respond to recent calls for research examining the mechanisms through which leader traits influence leader effectiveness (DeRue et al., 2011). Recent attempts to integrate findings from trait and behavioral leadership research advocate for the importance of studying actual leader behavior as the lynchpin between leader traits/characteristics and leadership outcomes (DeRue et al., 2011). In the present study, we found support for initiating structure behavior as a mediator of the advancement motive x competence interaction (which are arguably both traits/characteristics according to DeRue and colleagues [2011] broad definition) on leader effectiveness outcomes, which lends support for DeRue et al.’s appeal for integration.

Additionally, this investigation makes a unique contribution to socioanalytic theory in that we examine the effect of a specific leader motive (to get ahead) on follower-reported outcomes. Although previous research has examined the positive effects of motives x social
competence on self-benefitting outcomes (e.g., individuals’ job performance; Blickle et al., 2010), we studied the motive x social competence interaction effects on other-benefitting outcomes (i.e., followers’ satisfaction, institutional effectiveness). Because the most critical social interaction in organizations arguably is that which occurs between leaders and their followers, it is extremely important and informative to examine how leader motives influence follower-held perceptions of leaders’ behavior and effectiveness.

Moreover, to our knowledge this is one of the only studies to examine follower and organization-level outcomes within the socioanalytic framework, and thus makes a unique contribution to the body of research employing socioanalytic theory. Finally, this research adds to the growing body of literature that has established the benefits that accrue to those high (i.e., versus low) in political skill (e.g., Blickle et al., 2011a), as well as those who engage in interactions with politically skilled leaders (e.g., Ahearn et al., 2004). As such, this research confirms that political skill is a valuable social competency that operates on self and others to enhance individuals’ general well-being at work.

**Strengths and Limitations**

The strengths and limitations of the present research warrant mention. The strengths include the collection of data from multiple sources, thereby excluding the likelihood of common source bias. The study also uses a sample drawn from homogeneous circumstances (i.e., leadership in schools), which holds a number of potential context effects constant (e.g., educational background, career parameters, professional culture). Next, the study used employed adults and functioning leaders as opposed to college students in experimental simulations. Further, every measure used in the study had strong psychometric properties and extensive validation. Finally, an added strength of this study is that we tested for potential distortion issues, and found no evidence of a selection bias in the sampling process.

As with any study, there are always limitations. First, the cross-sectional design of the study did not allow us to draw causal inferences; nonetheless, we relied heavily on theory and
past research to support the specification of the model. Additionally, the response rate of 12.6% might be a concern in terms of sample representativeness; nevertheless, despite the low response rate, the sample (i.e., drawn from a homogenous population) was nonetheless substantial in size (i.e., 519 leaders with 1890 followers). Additionally, the generalizability of the findings is limited to leadership in schools and comparable cultural contexts. Although Germany and the United States share fundamental cultural and organizational features (for a review, see Erez, 2011), the generalizability of socioanalytic assumptions about leadership remains to be demonstrated across cultural as well as occupational boundaries.

Further, we wish to note that the high correlation between our criteria of interest ($r = .55$, $p < .01$) could be seen as potential limitation of our study. Nonetheless, given that followers’ satisfaction with their leader and perceptions of institutional effectiveness are both measures of leadership effectiveness (DeRue et al., 2011), we would expect them to be highly correlated. Nonetheless, in keeping with DeRue et al.’s conceptualization of leader effectiveness, both of our outcome variables tap a different content area (i.e., affective/relational vs. overall) and target of analysis (i.e., leader vs. organization) of leader effectiveness. Therefore, we feel that their relatedness is expected and warranted, and the magnitude of the relationship is not so high as to indicate construct redundancy.

A final potential limitation we should mention concerns the extent to which self-reports of political skill might be biased. One empirical indication of this would be the extent to which self-reports of individuals’ political skill are significantly correlated with other reports of political skill (e.g., from supervisors or peers). Self-reports of political skill have been found to be strongly related to both supervisor assessments (Semadar, 2004) and co-worker assessments of political skill (Liu, 2006). More recently, utilizing a three-study triadic research design, Blickle et al. (2011a) found significant correlations between self-assessments of political skill with two other raters’ assessments of political skill. Moreover, Blickle et al (2011a) found that others’ ratings of an individual’s political skill predicted job performance
and vice versa, leading the authors to conclude that other- and self-reported political skill operate similarly. Taken together, evidence from several studies appears to warrant the use of self-reported political skill in the present investigation.

Practical Implications

The amount of variance in institutional effectiveness scores and follower job satisfaction explained by the interaction term ($\Delta R^2 = .01; \Delta R^2 = .02$, respectively) is small, and this limits the practical implications of our findings. However, given the number of complex behavioral and cognitive micro-processes involved in leader-follower interactions (e.g., Barret, Vessey, & Muford, 2011), it is remarkable to find theoretically grounded and significant links between the most distal model parameters in the macro-process linking leader characteristics with outcomes at the institutional level.

Nonetheless, our results contain some practical relevance. Leader motive to get ahead and political skill interact to affect the perceptions and attitudes of followers. These findings suggest that it is possible to evaluate leadership potential before people are hired or promoted. This can improve person-position fit and enhance leadership performance, save the opportunity costs of bad hires, and potentially enhance organizational effectiveness.

Furthermore, because political skill can be enhanced with developmental experiences (Ferris et al., 2005), training or mentoring programs can be used to improve the leadership performance of current leaders (Ferris et al., 2008).

Directions for Future Research

There are a number of fruitful avenues for future research. First and foremost, future research should continue to examine the mechanisms through which leaders transmit the interactive effects of various social competencies and motives, both to get ahead and to get along, into leadership effectiveness outcomes. A natural outgrowth of this study could involve the placement of various leader behaviors (e.g., structuring, empowerment, transformational leadership behaviors) in competitive prediction with one another to determine whether certain
leader behaviors more fully explain the relationship between the motive x competence interaction and leadership effectiveness outcomes.

Another interesting avenue for future research is to utilize socioanalytic theory in the leadership context to examine the role of the leader motive x leader political skill interaction in the process of leader emergence. Because the current research used established leader personnel, it was not possible to study leader emergence. Future research should examine the impact of leaders’ motives on leader emergence (i.e., as well as other outcomes such as direct measures of leadership effectiveness) in a longitudinal design in order to evaluate the assertions presented in this paper.

Based on this study’s findings, we would expect that individuals with a strong desire to get ahead would emerge as leaders only should they possess the requisite social competencies (e.g., political skill) needed to transmit their motives into effective social action; nonetheless the mechanisms through which motives and competence interact to predict emergence are less straightforward. Similarly, future research should examine the motive to get along x social competence interaction in relation to leader emergence, as the tools of “today’s leaders” have become increasingly relational in nature (e.g., Eagly & Carli, 2003). Future research should explore these possibilities and others.

Conclusion

We found that the motive to get ahead interacts with political skill to enhance leader effectiveness through leaders’ demonstration of initiating structure behavior. As such, this research provides empirical evidence for the relevance of the basic tenets of the socioanalytic framework, and extensions of it, for predicting leadership outcomes. Hopefully this will inspire more research examining the mechanisms through which leader traits indirectly influence leader effectiveness, as well as fuel additional research examining the explanatory power of socioanalytic theory in predicting various leadership outcomes.
References


(2nd ed. pp. 1–32). Konsortium der Studie zur Entwicklung von Ganztagsschulen (StEG).


Zacher, H., Rosing, K., Henning, T., & Frese, M. (2011). Establishing the next generation at work: Leader generativity as a moderator of the relationships between leader age, leader-
### Table 1

**Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Reliabilities of All Variables**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Leader Gender</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Years of Vocational Experience</td>
<td>28.18</td>
<td>9.07</td>
<td>.22**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Number of Teachers</td>
<td>42.08</td>
<td>36.67</td>
<td>.30**</td>
<td>.20**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Leader Motive to Get Along</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>-.17**</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>-.21**</td>
<td>(.79)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Follower Reports of Consideration Behavior</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>-.10*</td>
<td>-.13**</td>
<td>-.19**</td>
<td>.20**</td>
<td>(.76)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Leader Motive to Get Ahead</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>(.77)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Leader Political Skill</td>
<td>5.42</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.14**</td>
<td>.09*</td>
<td>.29**</td>
<td>(.87)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Follower Reports of Initiating Structure Behavior</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>-.19**</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.24**</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.15**</td>
<td>(.91)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Perceived Institutional Effectiveness</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>-.10*</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.09*</td>
<td>.43**</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.18*</td>
<td>.45**</td>
<td>(.90)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>10. Follower Satisfaction with Leader</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>.13**</td>
<td>.76**</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.13*</td>
<td>.32**</td>
<td>.55**</td>
<td>(.95)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. N = 510 leaders (with 1881 follower-raters); Cronbach’s alphas are included on the diagonal in the parentheses; Gender (1 = female; 2 = male)*

*p < .05, **p < .01
Table 2

Results for Leader Motive to Get Ahead, Political Skill, and Follower Reports of Initiating Structure on Perceived Institutional Effectiveness and Follower Satisfaction with Leader

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictors</th>
<th>Follower Reports of Initiating Structure</th>
<th>Perceived Institutional Effectiveness</th>
<th>Follower Satisfaction with Leader</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>SE</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader Gender</td>
<td>-.17**</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of Vocational Experience</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Teachers</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader Motive to Get Along</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Follower Reports of Consideration</td>
<td>.21**</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.41**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader Motive to Get Ahead</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader Political Skill (PSI)</td>
<td>.07*</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader Motive to Get Ahead x PSI</td>
<td>.07*</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N = 510 leaders; Unstandardized coefficients and standard errors are reported; *p < .05, **p < .01.
Figure 1. A first-stage moderated mediation model of leader motive, political skill, behavior and effectiveness.
Figure 2. Interaction of leader motive to get ahead and leader political skill on follower reports of initiating structure leader behavior

Note. N = 510; Leader political skill (PSI); regression slope for high Leader political skill: * p < .05.