TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP, PERCEIVED SUPPORT, ORGANIZATIONAL

COMMITMENT, AND UNION CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR:

THE EFFECT OF CULTURAL DIVERSITY

BY:

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Leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth.

(James MacGregor Burns, 1978)

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ABSTRACT

A substantial body of scholarly literature exists demonstrating the elevation of positive

citizenship behavior in the presence of transformational leaders. A smaller but no less

significant amount of research has suggested that union citizenship behavior, a specific form of

organizational citizenship behavior, is elevated in the presence of transformational leadership

and enhances member commitment and perceptions of support. Utilizing an international sample

comprised of unionized airline pilots, this study sought to explore the relationship between

transformational leadership, discretionary citizenship behaviors, perceived organizational

support, organizational commitment, and the effect stated cultural affinity has on these factors.

The results of this study indicate that while a transformational leadership style may incidentally

elevate follower commitment and perceived support, it was not found to be a positive predictor

of union citizenship behavior. Further, the results suggest that organizational commitment and

perceived support are more positively related to perceptions of leadership than leadership style

itself. Therefore, union members may engage in constructive union citizenship behaviors

irrespective of leadership style, provided commitment and positive perceptions of leader and

organizational support exist. The results of this research also demonstrated that cultural affinity

did not greatly influence perceptions of leadership or levels of perceived support, organizational

commitment, or engagement in union citizenship behaviors.

Keywords: *Transformational leadership, perceived support, organizational commitment, union*
citizenship behavior, culture

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Background of the Problem

In the past 30 years, investigations into the antecedents of leadership and the impact on organizational outcomes have been substantial, especially with regard to transformational and transactional leadership theory (Dhammika, Ahmad, & Sam, 2013; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Stordeur, D'hoore, & Vandernberghe, 2001). The myriad of associated factors that have been evaluated alongside the theory of transformational and transactional leadership have been as extensive as the nature of the organizations in which it has been studied (Dhammika et al. 2013; Kovjanic, Schuh, Jonas, Quaquebeke, & Van Dick, 2012). The effect of these interrelated leadership styles on follower outcomes such as satisfaction (Yin Ho, Gun Fie, Ching, & Ooi, 2009), organizational commitment (Emery & Barker, 2007), participation (Barling, Fullagar, & Kelloway, 1992; Metochi, 2002), performance (Howell & Avolio, 1993; Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999), and citizenship behavior (Nguni, Sleegers, & Denessen, 2006; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990), as well as organizational change (Bogaa & Ensaria, 2009; Carter, Armenakis, Field, & Mossholder, 2012; Eisenbach, Watson, & Pillai, 1999) are all well established in leadership literature. Although a few studies have also considered the effects of transformational leadership on organized labor and subsequent degrees of organizational commitment and citizenship behavior, the breadth of these studies remains limited (Fullagar, Clark, Gallagher, & Gordon, 1994; Fullagar, McCoy, & Shull, 1992; Kelloway & Barling, 1993; Skarlicki & Latham, 1997). Within the scope of globalization, because the spread of capital is dictated by production and distribution of goods and services, labor is central to this process (Britwum & Martens, 2008; Munck, 2010). Moreover, the role of the knowledge worker will

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impact this process and may also be represented by collective bargaining agreements (Jelavic &

Ogilvie, 2010; Kleinman & Vallas, 2001; Kohen, 2006). Therefore, a heightened understanding

of the nature of union leadership, and the style of leadership capable of stimulating the highest

levels of quality, safety, output, and thus revenue, should be understood. The purpose of this

study is to assess labor leaders' and followers' perceptions of transformational behavior on union

member commitment, satisfaction, perceived support, and extra-role behaviors. Given the nature

of a globalized labor market, this study also considers the influence of culture and cultural

heritage as potentially mediating or moderating the process of leadership and citizenship

behavior.

Problem Statement

Labor unions are utilitarian organizations utilizing exchange mechanisms for delivering

wages, benefits, job security, and grievance resolutions through collective bargaining agreements

(Barling, Fullagar, & Kelloway, 1992; Kelloway & Barling, 1993). Unions are also normative

organizations, woven from the fabric of shared moral commitment and the joint pursuit of

meaningful goals, typically grounded to the necessity of voluntary participation, e.g., voting in

union elections, attending union meetings, reading union communications, serving on union

committees, running for union office, and utilizing the grievance process (Kelloway & Barling,

1993; Sayles & Strauss, 1953; Schein, 1980; Spinrad, 1960). Yet, outside of high-stress

situations—e.g., corporate bankruptcy, furlough, concessionary or gainful contract ratification

periods—union attitudinal studies routinely comment on the fundamentally low participation rate

of union members as actors in the normative aspect of the organization (Fullagar, Gallagher,

Clark, & Carroll, 2004; Gallagher & Strauss, 1991; Godard, 2009; Gordon, Philpot, Burt,

Thompson, & Spiller, 1980; Kelloway, Catano, & Southwell, 1992; Nicholson, Ursell, &

Lubbock, 1981; Twigg, Fuller, & Hester, 2008). Although the observations of this phenomenon go back over 50 years (Olson, 1971; Perline & Lorenz, 1970; Spinrad, 1960), contemporary research has demonstrated an elevation in union member participation when union leaders exhibit transformational traits and encourage an analogous environment (Aryee & Chay, 2001; Fullagar et al., 2004; Skarlicki & Latham, 1996; Snape & Redman, 2004; Twigg et al., 2008).

Transformational leaders exhibit behaviors that stimulate and establish genuine bonds between leaders and followers, allowing these bonds in turn to promote extra-role behaviors (Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005). Research has demonstrated a link between transformational leadership and organizational citizenship behavior and, to a limited degree, union citizenship behavior (Skarlicki & Latham, 1996, 1997; Snape & Redman, 2004; Twigg et al., 2008). Because unions archetypally suffer from low levels of member participation, and because volunteerism and member engagement are central to a union's survival, it is important for organized labor to understand how leadership style impacts nonobligatory actions that promote organizational effectiveness. By adapting and combining established metrics by Bass, Avolio, and Jung (1995); Kelloway et al. (1992); Shore, Tetrick, Sinclair, and Newton (1994); and Skarlicki and Latham (1997), a composite quantitative survey was established in order to assess the level of transformational and transactional leadership and gauge the resultant effect on perceptions of organizational support and the presence of union commitment and positive union citizenship behaviors. Also, through modification of a heritage assessment tool developed by Spector (2013) and utilizing an international sample, an opportunity was shaped to evaluate the impact of culture on the perceptions of organizational leadership, commitment, and support. Understanding these relationships provides an opportunity for recommending best practices and procedures for training union leaders, promoting extra-role behaviors, improving organizing

capability, and enhancing member fulfillment within organized labor groups domestically and globally.

Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

This study is an inquiry based in a sociological paradigm. It is an exploration of principles, rules, and social awareness valid within a particular community. As a theoretical investigation, this study does not seek a specific solution to a particular problem; rather it evaluates the foundational relationships and system of ideas capable of suggesting causality as well as resolutions to situations considered to be within the norm (Chambliss & Schutt, 2010). To this end, Allan (2006) proposed that sociological theory comprises testable propositions about society, relying on objective scientific methodology and the avoidance of subjective judgments. It is within this paradigm and evaluating strictures that this study was encapsulated.

In order to explore and adapt the key constructs most conductive to securing a high level of member commitment and satisfaction in an organized labor environment, the conceptual framework guiding this examination of leadership and extra-role behaviors was informed by the seminal work of Bass (1985); Bass and Avolio (1990); Burns (1978); Meyer and Allen (1991, 1997); Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990); Skarlicki and Latham (1996, 1997); and Smith, Organ, and Near (1983). The role of culture in this study was principally guided by the work of Hofstede (1991), revised by Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov (2010) on cultural dimensions; along with House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, and Gupta (2004) as lead authors of Project GLOBE, assessing cultural influences on leadership and organizations.

Gathering data from a unionized and culturally diverse airline pilot group, this study measured union leader perceptions of individual leadership style and compared the aggregate self-report to the perceptions held by the membership at large. The study also assessed

participant estimation of (union) organizational support, commitment to the union and

satisfaction with the union, subsequently comparing those results to perceptions of leadership

style and level of membership participation.

Nature of the Study

The explanatory sequential quantitative design method included two phases of data

collection and a third data assessment phase (as presented in Figure 1). Embedded within these

phases were three studies, evaluating leader performance, member perceptions, and cultural

influence on levels of commitment, perceived support, and citizenship behaviors. The first and

second phases of the study in general focused on quantitative data collection utilizing established

scales for leadership and organizational support, commitment, and behavior. Data collection was

broken into two sets of quantitative surveys with one administered to the sample group's

leadership core and the second to the membership group. Following the quantitative stage, the

third phase focused on not only comparing the data to established scales, but comparing survey

responses relating to culture and cultural heritage to expectations drawn from the work of

Hofstede, GLOBE, and the World Values Survey. Although emphasis was placed on established

research metrics and the facilitation of empirical evidence regarding the relationship between

leadership style and member commitment and perceived support, the consideration of the

cultural aspect provide an additional opportunity to encourage discourse over the antecedents,

predictors, and influential factors driving leader behaviors, including the role that culture may

play in this process.

Phase 1 – Leadership Group (Study 1)		Phase 2 – Membership Group (Study 2)		Phase 3 – Assessment (Study 3)
Quantitative data collection: leadership (rater and self-rate), and union commitment, support, and citizenship behavior, culture / heritage scales	→	Quantitative data collection: leadership (rater) and union commitment, support, and citizenship behavior, culture / heritage scales	→	Data assessment, cultural influence evaluation; interpretation and write-up

Figure 1. Three phases of quantitative design method, in three phases with three embedded studies.

Scope of the Research

The proposed study uniquely adds to the body of research in transformational leadership, the nature of perceived support, organizational and union citizenship behavior, and the influence culture may have on the discernments of these constructs. It supplements the understanding of the role that leadership style plays in impacting membership motivation and organizing capability as well as certain constructive behaviors electively exhibited by organization members. Utilizing a quantitative approach, discretionary citizenship behaviors, member satisfaction, organizational commitment, and perceived organizational support were evaluated to determine if a connection exists between these factors and the presence of transformational leaders.

This study also adds to the labor literature through evaluation of leadership style of union leaders from a single pilot group within a professional pilot union, based on the perception of its union members. While the overarching goal of this study is to examine the effect of leadership style on the commitment, satisfaction, and perceived organizational support of union members,

the prominent feature of the proposed study is the inclusion of culture and cultural heritage as a variable in these outcomes. Although the international sample for this study comprises Canadian professional pilots, many of these individuals are non–Canadian born, are first-generation Canadian, or maintain a close connection with other than direct Canadian cultural roots. Additionally, the added cultural aspect of Québécois ("Quebec-like"), referring to the distinct cultural association or identification with French heritage in Canada, as well as Acadian and First Nations culture, may serve alongside these and other cultural factors as a cultural heritage variable impacting perceptions of leadership, commitment, satisfaction, and perceived support. The intent of evaluating these parameters is to provide insight into best practices and procedures for leading, organizing, and motivating volunteers and members in international labor organizations.

Practical contributions. By identifying key factors in member activity and leadership, organized labor groups as well as social researchers will have the opportunity to expand their understanding of union citizen behaviors and the role of union commitment, union satisfaction, perceived organizational support, and transformational leadership. The insight gained from this study will be able to be applied to improving leadership techniques, training volunteers, advancing the effectiveness of organizing and activating union membership in order to increase success during collective bargaining cycles, and expanding political activism in order to shape government policies affecting applicable industries. Moreover, the influence cultural heritage has on these factors will also provide an opportunity to broaden understanding of how to lead in the global milieu.

Significance of the Research

While a number of studies have examined the effects of transformational leadership on

organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), fewer have specifically considered transformational leadership and union citizenship behavior (UCB). Although the original study by Skarlicki and Latham (1996) on transformational leadership and citizenship behavior utilized a white-collar union, the majority of research in this area has commonly focused on blue-collar occupations, that is, industrial trade unions. While some studies have reported on teachers' and nurses' unions, it has been suggested for other studies to more broadly explore the white-collar sector in order to determine if blue-collar findings may be generalized to nonindustrial trade associations (Hammer et al., 2009; Hastings, 1996; Kezar & Eckel, 2002; Tomey, 2009). In 2010, Adegboyega recommended investigating whether the antecedents and mediators of UCB differ across cultures as well as any differences between organized labor groups working for public versus privately held companies. The research undertaken for this dissertation endeavored to answer these calls and add incrementally to the body of knowledge in these areas by investigating leadership and organizational behaviors in a white-collar union, and the cultural impact on perceptions of leadership style and organizational participation by utilizing an international sample.

Some researchers have indicated that union members are only committed to the union based on factors of instrumentality, while others have stipulated that dedication by the union leader to member welfare is paramount; still others suggesting a combination of both are necessary to securing union member commitment (Aryee & Chay, 2001; Hammer et al., 2009; Metochi, 2002; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). This study also advances this discussion by providing an additional perspective in determining if transformational behaviors in union leaders can serve as a predictor for higher levels of union member commitment and satisfaction, perceived organizational support, and the subsequent effect on the presence of

UCBs. The results of this study, along with others like it, may serve as the basis for establishing best practices and procedures for the evolution of effective leadership not only in the resurfacing labor movement in the United States and Western Europe, but also for the burgeoning unions in developing areas of the world. This outcome in turn may influence and broaden social and economic expansion for many people within these emerging markets and directly serve to increase their quality of life.

Assumptions

Forthwith, several assumptions materialize:

- Scholars and practitioners desire to advance the understanding of transformational leadership in organized labor settings.

- The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass and Avolio, 2004) represents a valid means for measuring leadership type.

- The Union Commitment Scale (Kelloway et al. 1992), Perceived Organizational Support Scale (Shore et al., 1994), and Union Citizenship Behavior Scale (Skarlicki & Latham, 1997) represent valid means for measuring union commitment and satisfaction, perceived organizational support, and union citizenship behaviors.

- The Heritage Assessment Tool (Spector, 2013) is a meaningful way to weigh cultural affinity.

- The sample will represent willing participants.

- Participants will offer honest reflection.

- The use of self-report data and the influence of common method bias will be minimized by appropriate statistical methods including confirmatory factor analysis.

Definition of Terms

Air Line Pilots Association, International: The Air Line Pilots Association, International (ALPA), is the largest airline pilot union in the world and represents more than 50,000 pilots at 33 U.S. and Canadian airlines. Founded in 1931, the Association is chartered by the AFL-CIO and the Canadian Labor Congress. Known internationally as US-ALPA, it is a member of the International Federation of Air Line Pilots' Associations. Also referred to as the Association.

Culture: The "collective programming of the mind" distinguishing the members of one group from another and the "set of distinctive spiritual, material, intellectual and emotional features of society . . . ways of living together, value systems, traditions and beliefs" resulting from shared experiences and conveyed through age generations (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 516; United Nations, 2009).

Heritage: The breadth of inherited traditions, practices, monuments, objects, and culture, including current activities, connotations, and conduct as a result of this inherited influence (University of Massachusetts, n.d.).

Knowledge Worker: Employees with extensive education and experience and are recognized as individuals who "think for a living," including occupations such as doctors, nurses, lawyers, teachers, financial analysts, pilots, and information technology professionals (Cooper, 2006, p. 59).

Leadership: "The ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organization" (House et al., 1999, p. 184).

Local Executive Council (LEC): Union leaders elected by peer vote within a geographically based employee group, to serve as officer representatives for that local employee group as either the LEC chairman or vice chairman for a designated period of time.

Master Executive Council (MEC): Composed of all local council officers for a particular pilot group, as well a designated number of executive officers presiding over the MEC, including an MEC chairman, vice chairman, secretary, and treasurer, all of whom are elected by the MEC members.

Organizational Commitment: The bond resulting from a member's confidence and approval of the organization's goals and values along with the desire for organizational affiliation (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974).

Perceived Organizational Support: The opinion a member forms relating to an organization's assessed value of that individual's participation and concern for his/her well-being. The greater the perceived support of the organization for the member, the greater the socio-emotional investment a member makes in the organization, resulting in increased felt obligation, affective commitment to the organization, and an increase in in-role and extra-role behaviors (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa,1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Pilot Group: Aggregate "line pilots" represented by a Master Executive Council (MEC) to ALPA, their airline's management, and the industry at large. ALPA, through the MEC, is the official bargaining unit for the pilot group.

Professional Culture: An occupational group providing specific services based on specialized skills and knowledge resulting in the generation of common experiences, beliefs, motives, values, meanings, and identities of the collective membership (Lumpé, 2008).

Union Citizenship Behavior: A specific form of organizational citizenship behavior, which are discretionary union member actions that provide a benefit to the union and its membership including helping behavior, volunteering, and promoting the union's interest (Skarlicki & Latham, 1997).

Union Commitment: The degree of trust and fealty internalized by union members for their union, including felt obligation and inclination to work for the union (Gordon et al., 1980).

Union Instrumentality: The extent to which employee union members perceive the effectiveness of the union as instrumental in achieving desired outcomes—e.g., higher wages, benefits, and work rules—in contract negotiations, as well as success in enforcement and the settling of grievances against the employer for violations of the collective bargaining agreement, that is, the contract (Hammer et al., 2009)

Union Satisfaction: Although associated with union instrumentality in terms of union success in securing collective bargaining goals (Kochan, Katz, & Mower, 1984), union member satisfaction is more closely associated with perceived administrative democracy (Leicht, 1989), the cooperative nature of the union (Sayles & Strauss, 1953), and a member's sense of overall performance in terms of what the union should be focusing on versus what the union is actually focusing on (Gallagher & Strauss, 1991).

White- /Blue-Collar: White-collar workers are those who self-identify as professionals or managers. Blue-collar workers are those who self-identify as assistants and clerical workers, technicians and repair workers, artists and entertainers, service workers, laborers, salespersons, operators, skilled trade workers, assemblers, or former military (non-officer) (Kaiser Family Foundation, n.d.).

Summary

The labor movement is a broad term for the collective organizing of working people, structured for representing the interests of workers and the working class to improve their working environment and treatment by employers and governments through collective bargaining and political activism. However, in order to capitalize on the strength of the unity

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from which union leverage is singularly rooted, workers must be dedicated and contented with the goals of the union and the leaders elected to pursue those objectives on behalf of the collective. Satisfied, highly committed members are more likely to support and participate in the union process than those less devoted and fulfilled by union activism. This study sought to appraise the impact of union leadership style, specifically the bearing of transformational leadership on union commitment and satisfaction, perceived support, and impact of culture and cultural heritage on the promotion of extra-role behaviors.

This chapter provided an introduction to the research along with study assumptions and pertinent definitions. The purpose and significance of the study were stated along with the scope and practical contributions with the actual methodology and results appearing in chapters 3 and 4, respectively. A review of the applicable literature providing a basis for this research is contained within the following chapter.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

Since antiquity, philosophers and academics have attempted to define and explain the nature and essence of leadership. More recently evolving out of the industrial revolution, the emergence of big business, and two world wars, the heart of leadership research and theory initially focused on trait-centered models depicting powerful and influential individuals possessing elusive, almost mythical personalities. As time marched on and society progressed, so did the nature of leadership theory and the manner in which leaders and potential leaders were viewed. Contemporary researchers continue to analyze what leadership means and how leaders are developed and influenced by the organizations and environments in which they operate.

Just as academic attention to the nature of leadership grew out of the industrial revolution, so, too, did interest in workers' organizing to bargain collectively with employers and governments for better working conditions, wages, and benefits. At the close of World War II, more than 12 million workers in the United States belonged to unions, and collective bargaining had become a fixture throughout the industrialized world (Dulles & Dubofsky, 2010; Zieger & Gall, 2002). By 1955, organized labor represented one-third of the nonagricultural workforce in the United States, yet union density and coverage have declined significantly since the late 1970s (Goldfield 1987; Zieger & Gall, 2002). In 2013, the U.S. Department of Labor reported the union membership rate - the percent of wage and salary workers who are union members - at 11.3 percent. This is equal to 16 million workers including union members (14.5 million), and non-union workers whose jobs are covered under a collective bargaining agreement (1.5 million). In 1983, the first year in which comparable union membership data are available, the reported union membership rate was 20.1 percent (U.S. Department of Labor, 2008). Although it

occurred slightly later, workers in other industrialized nations within the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) region have also witnessed a striking reduction in the presence and effectiveness of collective bargaining coverage (Bronfenbrenner, Friedman, Hurd, Oswald, & Seeber, 1998; Cregan, 2005; Godard, 2009). Significant effort has been exerted to reverse this decline, including the study of transformational union leadership and its effects on member commitment, but union density and union member participation have remained stagnant (Freeman, 2004; Freeman and Rogers, 2002; Fullagar et al., 2004; Godard, 2009; Kelloway & Barling, 1993; Metochi, 2002).

Transformational leadership is an approach that seeks to motivate, promote positive change, and recognize value within followers. Through "trust, admiration, loyalty, and respect toward the leader," followers are encouraged to suspend self-interest and low-order needs in order to achieve task-oriented goals for the advancement of the organization (Yukl, 2010, p. 275). Formulated by James Burns (1978) while researching political leaders, transformational leadership focuses on encouraging others to assist and watch over each other as well as the organization. By modifying expectations and values, follower perceptions are altered and positive organizational change is possible. The foundation of the leader-follower relationship in transformational leadership is not based upon a specific or established exchange. Rather, the leader's persona and a set of behaviors, coupled with compelling goals and the articulation of an inspirational vision, enable the individual as well as the organization to change.

Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs)—first introduced by Bateman and Organ (1983) and similar in concept to Katz and Kahn's (1978) description of extra-role behaviors—are a particular category of individual actions that are beneficial to the organization yet are not mandated or necessarily recognized or rewarded. According to Organ (1988), OCB is typified

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by "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization" (p. 4). OCBs are often described as actions that go "beyond the basic requirements of the job," including task innovation, helping others, volunteerism, and other pro-social conduct. (Lambert, 2006, p. 503). Lee and Allen (2002) posited that "OCBs are employee behaviors that, although not critical to the task or job, serve to facilitate organizational functioning" (p. 132). As noted by Wang et al. (2005), transformational leaders utilize behaviors that stimulate and establish genuine bonds between leaders and followers and allow those bonds in turn to promote organizational citizenship behavior. Tsai, Chen, and Cheng (2005) noted an increase in employee reports of buoyant dispositions in the presence of transformational leadership, while Charbonneau, Barling, and Kelloway (2001), Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996), Pillai, Schriesheim, and Williams (1999), and Pillai and Williams (2004) found increased feelings among followers of self-worth, motivation, workplace satisfaction, and willingness to positively engage in extra-role behavior when in a transformational environment.

This chapter concisely reviews the literature pertinent to unionism, with an emphasis on airline labor and the piloting profession, along with leadership and the role it plays in impacting membership motivation and commitment, in addition to certain constructive behaviors electively exhibited by union members. Specific to this endeavor is reviewing transformational leadership and its stated potential for possessing greater effectiveness in motivating followers to higher levels of participation and productivity. Through scholarly literature, discretionary citizenship behaviors and organizational commitment are reviewed and a connection established, demonstrating the elevation of positive citizenship behavior in the presence of transformational leaders. Furthermore, the link between a transformational environment and union member

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satisfaction and commitment is shown as a possible predictor of union citizenship behavior, a specific form of organizational citizenship behavior, in order to assess participation and personal commitment to a member's union.

Trade Unions

Trade unions have been described as a group of workers collectively negotiating pay rates, benefits, and working conditions with their employer (Webb & Webb, 1894). The concept behind labor unions can be traced back to the medieval trade guilds of Europe and the Middle East. These guilds were structured to provide trade members with selective admission to craft training, development, and employment in career progression from apprentice to master, as well as the opportunity to exert some control over member livelihood and a minimum standard of compensation for work completed. In the eighteenth century, the shift from agrarian societies to a factory- and production-based culture in the wake of the blossoming industrial revolution led to clashes between workers and management of legendary proportions. Although most countries initially outlawed organized labor and fought to keep them illegal, the paltry wages and abhorrent working conditions in factories and mines led to strikes, riots, and ultimately widespread legalization of trade unions (Milner, 2009).

Although unions in the United States can be traced back to the trade guilds of the colonial period, the widespread and enduring formation of labor unions began shortly after the close of the Civil War as a result of the social and economic effects of the burgeoning industrial revolution (Holley, Jennings, & Wolters, 2012). While relatively short-lived, the Knights of Labor emerged as the country's first national labor union wielding significant influence, through the late 1880s, ultimately imploding due to fragile organization, poor leadership, weak goal development, and employer and government antagonism (Kemmerer & Wickersham, 1950).

The Knights did, however, provide a blueprint for other coalitions of employees, paving the way

for groups such as the American Federation of Labor and the Congress of Industrial

Organizations, surviving to this day as the AFL-CIO.

During the 1930s, American labor unions achieved significant quality-of-life

enhancements through government policies that included the National Labor Relations Act of

1935 (commonly referred to as the Wagner Act), providing the right of unions to organize. Also,

the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 implemented child labor regulations and minimum wage

and overtime stipulations and adopted the 8-hour workday and 40-hour workweek (U.S.

Department of Labor, n.d.). Additionally, the continued political activism of organized labor

shepherded other substantial changes such as health care and retirement benefits, including

Medicare and Social Security, along with other important legislation such as the Equal Pay Act

of 1963, the Voting Rights Act of 1965, and the Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970

(Dray, 2011; Dulles & Dubofsky, 2010).

Beginning earlier than in the United States but in an analogous pattern, the rise of unions

in Europe and Australia began during the industrial revolution as countries began transitioning

from agrarian to industrial-based economies (Silver, 2003). The goals of organized labor in

these countries closely mirrored those in the United States, including ending child labor,

increasing safety in the workplace, enjoying the right to organize, and negotiating with

employers for pay and benefits. Although illegal during its rise to prominence during mid-

1900s, the modern labor movement has become an integral aspect of national politics in Europe,

especially in the United Kingdom and Australia, where influential political platforms are often

represented by labor or workers' parties (Silver, 2003). However, drift does occur in all pluralist

democratic structures, forcing attentive groups, especially entities of government regulation, to

adapt to the fluctuating nature of regulatory bodies and policy thought or lose influence

(LaPalombara, 2003). Particularly in the wake of broadening corporate influence and

complexity on the global stage, if labor unions desire to continue being effective in positively

influencing the governmental policy-making process, methods of organizing and organization

along with leading the organization should be consistently evaluated and refined (Golden &

Pontusson, 1992; LaPalombara, 2003).

The Labor Movement in Canada

Comparable to those in Europe and the United States, early unions in Canada developed

along a similar line, initially retaining an especially close relationship with the United Kingdom

due chiefly to colonialism (Mitchell & Stearns, 1971). However, given stronger geographical

links to U.S. unions, the Canadian labor movement found itself increasingly tied to the North

American labor movement, and less to that of the United Kingdom or Europe. While nearly all

Canadian unions were based in Canadian cities or provinces prior to the 1860s, by the close of

the century Canadian unionism uniquely found its members joining labor groups headquartered

in another country, and with increasing frequency within the United States (Mitchell & Stearns,

1971; Dulles & Dubofsky, 2010). In fact, the first of what would be designated as *international*

unions was the International Typographical Union, established in 1852 in the United States as

the National Typographical Union and later changing its name to the International Typographical

Union in 1869 after organizing members in Canada (Dulles & Dubofsky, 2010).

Over time, American and Canadian economies have become highly amalgamated, and

although there has been a divergence over the last few decades, organized labor in Canada has,

from a historical perspective, been overshadowed by parent unions based in the United States

(Godard, 2009). Additionally, the fundamental structure of Canadian labor law is modeled on

the U.S. Wagner Act. But whereas Canadian union membership rates have remained steady at about 31 percent of the nonagricultural workforce, U.S. density has dwindled to less than half of that (Uppal, 2011; Woods, 1973). In effectively all jurisdictions, though, Canadian labor law affords more robust protections for workers, public and private, and is likely a contributing factor to greater union density than that of the United States (Adams 1993; Godard, 2009; Woods, 1973). Moreover, national and provincial pro-union statutes are typically attributed to Canada's social democratic political environment, decentralized federalism, and system of parliamentary government, coupled with Canadian labor law operating more faithfully to the founding intent of the Wagner Act through the manner in which it disaffirms employer opposition to unionization (Lipset & Meltz, 1998; Logan, 2002). Furthermore, a recent Supreme Court of Canada ruling (*Health Services and Support Bargaining Association v. British Columbia, 2007 SCC 27*) avowed collective bargaining as an elemental privilege under the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms. This is in contravention to some recent U.S. legislative efforts, especially at the state level, attempting to politically design out collective bargaining and unionization (Dray, 2011; Yates, 2009).

Nonetheless, Canadian unions may be heading toward some of the challenges faced south of the border over the last several decades (Godard, 2003). Despite being twice that of the United States, sliding levels of Canadian union density pooled with escalating employer desire to move to nonunion jurisdictions, and weak labor markets may be eroding the social and political power of organized labor (Noonan, 2013; Thorpe, 2012). Unions in Canada are also facing organizing challenges in the form of government obstructions, as evidenced by the Supreme Court of Canada's April 2011 decision against the United Food and Commercial Workers'

attempt to unionize farm workers, notwithstanding the stipulated fundamental right to collectively bargain (Makin, 2011).

Unionism and Globalization

Held, McGrew, Goldblatt, and Perraton (1999, p. 16) postulated that globalization is "a process (or set of processes) which embodies a transformation in the spatial organization of social relations and transactions—assessed in terms of their extensity, intensity, velocity, and impact—generating transcontinental or interregional flows and networks of activity, interaction, and the exercise of power." In a more strictly economic sense, globalization denotes the unrestrained movement of capital globally, assimilating national economies into an integrated system of manufacture and circulation (Jenkins, 2004). From the social interaction standpoint, trade unions, a historically prominent feature in equalizing social conditions, possess an opportunity to extensively increase their influence through worldwide contact with workers in broadly diverse sectors. Yet the concern over transfer of jobs and overseas capital investment has resulted in unions some sectors maneuvering for protectionism and resisting this shift in paradigm (Scheve & Slaughter, 2007).

The inclination of labor unions, especially in the West, to be skeptical at best and fearful at worst of free trade and capital markets liberalization is chiefly the result of unease revolving around workers of trading partner countries not receiving the same or similar rights, that is, work rules and wages, as those enjoyed by home workers (Aloi, Leite-Monteiro, & Lloyd-Braga, 2007; Griswold, 2010). And workers from home and trading partner countries tend to infer that they are being excluded from the gains of international economic synergies (Aloi et al., 2007). By contrast, supporters of market liberalization often suggest that unions are simply posturing to protect their members from foreign competition based on gains secured from workers of less

regulated countries (Aloi et al., 2007; Scheve & Slaughter, 2007). Although proponents of globalization signal improvements in standard of living, better access to goods and services, decreasing market prices, improved access to credit and capital, and more rapid dissemination of technological innovation, there is nonetheless an increasing disquiet that the benefits of economic globalization are only truly amassing to a minority group (Goldberg & Pavcnik 2007; OECD, 2007). Adding to the concern over diminishing participation in unionism in general, the effects of globalization and the concomitant increase in labor demand curve elasticity are also contributing to the decline in union density and coverage, especially for lower-skilled vocations, and highlighting wage disparities between higher-skilled workers in home versus trading partner nations (Griswold, 2010; Jansen, 2000).

Globalization is a complex and multivariate process requiring labor unions to develop intricate and well-coordinated strategies to meet its challenges. By cultivating creative solutions to the challenges of globalization through international framework agreements, interaction with transnational corporations, and organizations such as the International Labor Organization, labor unions have become a party to the international social dialogue and are beginning the process of influencing global policies (Schmidt, 2007). According to Paul Moist, president of the Canadian Union of Public Employees, and Elaine Bernard, executive director of the Labor and Worklife Program at Harvard Law School, it is more effective for unions to establish cross-border alliances and begin uniting for fair global development rather than competing for jobs as multinational corporations attempt to reduce salaries or reposition operations to another country, leaving behind devastating unemployment rates and shattered communities (Mendleson, 2012).

Unionism and the Airline Industry

Following World War I, the utilitarian nature of the airplane was realized, and the ready availability of surplus military aircraft ushered in a new era of materiel, products, people, and mail delivery (Wells & Chadbourne, 2003). Industrialists eager to capitalize upon this new mode of transportation quickly set up distribution routes, bid for government, commercial, and private-carriage contracts, and sought to hire the relatively few pilots available for these services. As small and often remote flying services developed into large, widespread operations, territory and routes became the battle lines between companies, and distinct labor groups began to form. With the onset of the Great Depression, air service managers began forcing pilots to fly longer for less pay, often under unsafe conditions. In 1931 a small group of American pilots banded together to protect their livelihoods and collectively insist upon air operational safety by forming the Air Line Pilots Association (ALPA) (Hopkins, 1982). Shortly thereafter, British and Canadian pilots followed their American counterparts' example, and in 1937 the Canadian Air Line Pilots Association (CALPA) and the British Airline Pilots' Association (BALPA) were established (Smith & MacLaren, 1970). From that point forward, airlines became and remain heavily unionized (Johnson, 2002).

Organized labor in the United States, including pilots and other airline workers, initially concentrated only on matters primarily associated with employment and work environment, focusing especially on safety in the workplace. However, because of the intrinsic interest in the safe and efficient conduct of flight, unions began turning their attention in the 1960s to areas formerly considered the dominion of management, such as operations and production processes (Perline & Poynter, 1988). The idea of managerial right has become one of the most divisive issues between labor and management as employees struggle to wield influence over organizational decision making while management resists labor involvement in this process

(Perline & Poynter, 1990). Torrence (1959, p. iii) states, "When we refer to management rights, we are talking about management's right to determine hours of work and the right to make all other decisions which are normally and traditionally the sole responsibility of management.". Although many workers and union representatives recognize management's role in managing, they commonly view it as a function it is paid to do with an associated responsibility to the employee group, not merely a right to rule (Storey, 1983).

The turbulence following the Airline Deregulation Act of 1978, coupled with provisions in the Railway Labor Act of 1926 (amended in 1936 to include airlines), induced significant detriment to the health of U.S. air carriers as well as increased hostility between management and labor (Smith and Cox, n.d.). This situation would repeat itself abroad and also have destabilizing effects in foreign carriers as many governments sought to deregulate their own transportation industries. Bamber, Gittell, Thomas, and von Nordenflycht (2009) contend that since deregulation, especially in the United States, airline labor has been on the defensive and forced to react to the latest management cost-savings program, often aimed directly at the wages, benefits, and work rules of the employees. However, Blyton, Martinez, McGurk, and Turnbull (2001) note that in countries such as Spain and Germany, labor unions were directly involved with management in developing market strategy and retuning the air carrier to profitability. Blyton et al. (2001) illustrate the problems, similar to most U.S. airlines, that European carriers such as British Airways and Icelandair have experienced by not engaging their employees in the restructuring process, especially when attempting to implement global airline coalitions such as One World and the Star Alliance. These transnational corporations (TNCs) seek as a core objective a low-cost labor structure in order to undercut other carriers in the global market. Blyton et al. (2001) predicted that a race to the bottom would emerge out of this ideology as

legacy carriers seek to use global partners and entrant-carrier cost structures as benchmarks. For example, crew cost in Asian airlines represent only a fifth of the operational cost, whereas crew cost in major Western airlines is closer to 25 percent. Furthermore, Blyton et al. (2001) suggest that increasing attempts to level operating cost by utilizing wage, benefit, and personnel cuts as a primary means to operational cost reduction will continue to result in employee dissatisfaction and a significant increase in the mobilization of union membership. Although cost savings may be initially gained through these types of cost-control measures, the long-term viability of such plans will ultimately result in losses through decreased productivity and blemishing of the carrier's reputation as workers look to take their grievances to the traveling public and government administrators.

Building on the idea that employees should be a part of the solution rather than a part of the problem, Bamber et al. (2008) explore the different approaches airline managers use to influence employee relations and the role that institutional frameworks in different nations play in this process. They consider the similar impact that deregulation had on European airlines as on U.S. carriers, a primary facet of this event being new entrants and business models versus legacy carriers and nationalization. In evaluating new and old carriers, Bamber et al. (2008) also describe command-and-control theories and union-avoidance approaches to employee relations, in addition to the more positive concept of securing employee commitment to the company and productivity through some form of partnership. These approaches are considered in relation to a variety of capitalism backdrops of liberal market economies (e.g., the United States, Britain, and Ireland) or coordinated market economies (e.g., Germany and Scandinavia). Using British Airways and Ryanair as examples, the authors characterize liberal market economies (LMEs) as low-trust, redundant, and quick to utilize wage and benefit minimization as an initial reaction to

combat economic downturn. This is in opposition to coordinated market economies, typified

through SAS and Lufthansa airlines, that strongly promote partnering with labor to establish

productivity-enhancing strategies in response to economic difficulties. Bamber et al. (2008)

ultimately conclude that multiple factors influence employee relations policy, including social,

political, and institutional aspects.

Expanding on varieties of capitalism and employee relations in liberal market economy

airlines, Harvey (2009) posits that a best-practice employee relations (ER) policy is one that

stresses participation with employees and partnership with labor unions. Through the evaluation

of airline ER policies in the United States and the United Kingdom, Harvey determines that

although isomorphism (i.e., coercive, mimetic, and normative) provides some context for

understanding airline organizational convergence, it does not provide a rationale for avoiding a

synergistic approach to labor relations. Furthermore, ER policies at U.S. and UK airlines are

largely the result of specific managerial decisions and not directly predicated upon airline

operating strategy or market pressure. However, institutional framework and variety of

capitalism do suggest what is possible and not possible in terms of ER strategies. As Harvey

(2009) points out, although an approach to labor relations such as shared governance is not

practical in LME companies, alternate approaches can be successful. Naming Southwest, pre-

merger Continental, Britannia, and Go as examples of extremely successful airlines that adopted

synergistic approaches to ER, Harvey demonstrates that even in LME institutions, evidence

clearly suggests that a cooperative approach to ER will produce exemplary performance and

positive employee attitude toward the airline and should therefore be considered a best practice.

Antithetical to this concept of best practice, however, is Irish airline Ryanair. O'Sullivan

and Gunnigle (2008) review the controversy under which Ryanair has become the largest low-

cost airline in Europe. Although Ryanair has consistently denied being anti-union, its outspoken CEO, Michael O'Leary, has become infamous on both sides of the Atlantic for his vehement diatribes toward organized labor and his outspoken disdain for employees. Drawing on D'Art and Turner (2005), Dolan (2006), and Waldron (2004), O'Sullivan and Gunnigle (2008) discuss how Ryanair uses targeting and termination of union representatives, distributing anti-union literature, ignoring grievances, holding captive meetings, fear mongering and other tactics as tools to engage in union avoidance and suppression. They also remark that although Ryanair's overwhelming success is based on the financial and operational structure of U.S. low-cost carriers such as Southwest and JetBlue, Ryanair employs a much more "extreme" form of the lost-cost business model. What may be even more disappointing than the current conditions at Ryanair is the distinct likelihood that the company's success will become a role model for future low-cost carriers worldwide.

Although the basis for the Ryanair business model, Southwest stands in stark contrast to the Irish low-cost carrier in terms of labor relations. Founded in 1971, Southwest is the only U.S. carrier to sustain profitability for over 20 straight years, according to Gittell (2003). With a business model steeped in high productivity and a commitment to partnership with labor, Gittel points out, Southwest is the world's most successful airline based on the highest labor productivity, lowest service-failure rate, highest employee-satisfaction rating, and in 2002, a market value that was greater than all other major U.S. airlines combined. Gittell attributes the foundation for this success and corporate culture to widespread communication and profit sharing. More deeply, though, Gittell (2003) observed high-performance work practices at Southwest that develop human and social capital as well as motivate and commit employees to the organization. Furthermore, the labor-management partnership at Southwest is based on

mutual respect and the understanding of each group's role and responsibilities, all of which contribute to high performance and productivity. Southwest's high-performance work practices combined with its integrated approach to investment and fuel hedging has allowed it not only to weather the post-9/11 and economic depression of this decade, but also to grow and expand operations.

For other carriers in the wake of 9/11, tenuous relations with labor and weak business plans equated to an $8 billion loss that year and a 15 percent reduction in airline employment levels. Gittell, Nordenflycht, and Kochan (2004) maintain that for airlines to truly recover from this crisis, there would have to be a significant improvement in service quality and financial performance, neither of which are possible without elementary improvements in labor relations. Through an extensive multidisciplinary study, Gittell et al. (2004) reviewed numerous parameters in relation to performance and profitability, including type and depth of labor relationship. Their analysis allowed them to conclude that the quality of the labor relationship is a greater determinant of company performance than whether or not labor is unionized. In fact, management-labor conflict (unionized or not) was directly linked to increases in service failure, reduced productivity, and decreased operational margins. The results also suggest that although unionization normally results in higher wages and benefits for its members, the company receives a positive return from organized labor through higher-quality service, operational commitment, and increased productivity and profitability. Yet, many airlines worldwide still consider low wages, nominal benefits, lean staffing, and union avoidance as the preferred method for achieving high profits and shareholder favor. Bamber (2008) stipulates that in terms of relationship building, an airline seeks either to control employees' behavior or to entice them to commit to the goals of the carrier. Additionally, management may choose to avoid,

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accommodate, or partner with labor in order to accomplish the airline's goals. In accommodation, the company negotiates with the union or labor group but does not include it in the decision making process, whereas a partnership does. Although avoidance seems fairly straightforward, it often involves more dubious tactics than mere disregard. Bamber (2008) used Australian airline Qantas as an example of a carrier that has seemingly devolved to accommodating unions rather than continuing to partner with them. Despite attempting to stem financial losses through labor control and concessionary methods, it appears only to have made things worse for both sides. Jetstar Airways and Virgin Australia seem to be on a similar path, and although modeling themselves after Southwest's business plan, they seem to be leaning toward Ryanair's labor relations policy. Moreover, both Virgin Australia and AirAsia decided from the commencement of their respective operations that they were going to accommodate rather than partner with labor, a fact which, Bamber (2008) notes, demonstrates that airlines are making strategic choices regarding labor relations. The same strategic decision making is also readily apparent in Norwegian Air International's (NAI) scheme to dodge its own nation's employment laws and disregard the spirit and intent of the U.S.- EU air services agreement ("ALPA, Global Aviation Labor Leaders," 2014). In order to gain an iniquitous economic advantage, NAI is currently seeking to operate as an Irish airline, using "temp" pilots through a Singapore employment agency and basing them in Thailand. The pilots will be forced to work under individual employment contracts, as opposed to a traditional collectively bargained agreement, accepting wages and working conditions far below those of Norway-based pilots flying for NAI's parent company, Norwegian Air Shuttle.

Despite the pervasive and contentious nature of the airline labor-management relationship and either as a result of or a contributing factor, there has been a palpable decline in both

membership and active participation in airline pilot unionism over the last decade. Many pilots and some pilot groups within the Air Line Pilots Association have openly called for release from the Association in order to establish an independent organization or to join one of the smaller professional pilot unions. In 2007, one major airline did vote to leave ALPA, taking millions of dollars in dues revenue and thousands of members with it. Even more devastating is a review of contractual losses occurring in the last decade. For the last decade in the United States, nearly every airline employee has been working under a concessionary contract, with many work rules and pay rates commensurate with those of the late 1980s and early 1990s. This situation has left many pilots asking how this occurred. As with any organization, this answer begins at the top, with leadership. Weak leadership and poor management led to a decline in the ability to effectively administer and structure the organization in a way necessary anticipate and subsequently prevent the widespread fragmentation of pilot groups. Combined with contractual whipsawing that airline management groups utilized to pit pilot groups against each other thus weakening and reducing collective bargaining agreements, ALPA and other union-represented airline workers have witnessed a clear decline in member participation and unity, which has driven some associations to the brink of bankruptcy.

Again, this dilemma is not limited to ALPA, nor is the decline in activity and solidarity a unique one. In fact, union membership in the United States has been in a steady decline since 1979, with lack of involvement becoming a systemic problem in both U.S. as well as Western European labor organizations (Godard 2003, 2009). However, a renewed interest in organized labor has arisen in the last couple of years, and union membership and activity have begun to see some modest rebound (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2008). Also, the impact of globalization is the

subtle emergence of unions and labor groups organizing themselves in countries such as China, India, Vietnam, Nigeria, and other parts of the developing world.

A Brief Sociology of Airline Pilots

As indicated in chapter one, this study is an inquiry based in sociological paradigm. While avoiding a full history of the airline pilot and piloting profession, it is still prudent to succinctly understand professional pilots as human beings and skilled knowledge workers and to appreciate the social milieu shaping their beliefs and actions. The breadth, tempo, and expansion of commercial aviation throughout its relatively short history are due to the resourcefulness and audacity of people. Quoting Hudson and Pettifer (1979), Bennett (2006, p.7) states that people "in their many different jobs have made the airlines work." Its continuing success has been and will be born out of the enthusiasm, determination, and capabilities of its employees (Rendall, 1988).

Naturally, pilots are an essential human component of aviation. Without pilots, an aviation industry would not exist. Although technological advancement has provided on-board flight management computers for modern airliners to reduce the workload of contemporary aviators, human pilots are still indispensable to the ground and airborne decision-making process and operational execution of a commercial flight. Despite the increasing use of drone technology in both military and civil aviation operations, commercial operations, specifically passenger transport, are deeply affected by the psychological need to have a human being in ultimate control of the flight. Thus, the future of commercial aviation is dependent, as it always has been, on human beings; and enriching the understanding of people as the industry's most valuable of resource, with pilots as the integral commodity, will provide an opportunity to improve and enhance commercial aviation as a global endeavor (Bennett, 2006).

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While the adventure, bravery, glamour, and exploits of pilots have been well documented in both fictional and nonfictional accounts, and although pilot self-image is still governed to some extent by the "aviator romantic" persona, the actualities of the pilot lifestyle are generally under-researched (Lumpé, 2008, p. 145; Bennett, 2011). Yet existing sources do consider socioeconomic and educational background, flight training and experience, personal life and other factors significant to influencing the beliefs and actions of professional pilots. It should be noted that the research that does exist is chiefly Western in orientation, largely due to the disproportionate number of Western pilots and Western flight training institutions that represent and supply the piloting heft of global aviation. Non-Western pilots, military and civilian, routinely train in the United States and Western Europe, as aviation training infrastructure is nearly nonexistent outside of this domain. Additionally, though not the only impediment to an airline career, the high economic barrier to entry for aspiring pilots is staggering. For individuals in wealthier nations, where pilot training costs range from £60,000 to £120,000 in the UK and up to $100,000 and more in the United States, becoming a pilot is not an economically simple endeavor, especially when starting pay in the UK hovers around £15,000 and about $25,000 in the United States; yet these training fees are nearly unattainable for aspirants from considerably less wealthy countries. The net result has been either the import of Western pilots across the globe to fly aircraft for foreign carriers or state-sponsored airlines paying for their domestic pilot candidates to attend training in the West. In either case, the influence of the Western piloting mindset is significant.

In an ethnography of commercial flight crews, Bennett (2006) describes the average airline pilot as male, born into a middle- to upper-middle-class family and generally with a bachelor's or equivalent college education. According to the Federal Aviation Administration

(2009) and Women in Aviation, International (2010), of the 142,198 Airline Transport Pilot certificates (the piloting license required to work as an airline pilot) on record in the United States, only 5,580 or 3.92 percent were registered to women; Service Canada (2013) reported a slightly higher number of women professional pilots at 6.5 percent. Military service in the UK accounted for 45 percent of initial flight training and experience for British airline pilots, though only 24 percent for airline pilots from countries outside of the UK (Bennett 2006). In a study of leadership and organization in the aviation industry, Lumpé (2008) describes the pilot professional culture as one ensconced within a decidedly demanding and regulated environment, operating under an internalized set of comprehensive rules and procedures, although typically tensioned by a strict hierarchical structure. A "very polite kind of military leadership style" is often used between pilots on the flight deck (Lumpé, 2008, p. 144).

The road to the flight deck of a commercial airliner is as difficult to traverse as the paths are varied. In order to build flight time and thus the requisite experience necessary to meet hiring thresholds for airline pilot positions, commercial pilots often accept jobs in smaller, usually propeller-driven aircraft. This work includes flight instructing, charter flying, aerial tours, banner towing, traffic reporting, pipeline patrol, aerial photography, cargo delivery, and aerial application of agricultural materials, better known as crop dusting. These piloting jobs are demanding, operating in hazardous environments and typically requiring pilots to not only fly solo, but also work in localities well away from friends and family for extended periods of time. This can both create psychological stress and strain interpersonal relationships in addition to making it difficult to form new relationships. According to Bennett's (2006) pilot lifestyle study as well as his revised 2011 study, 94 percent of respondents indicated they were in an intimate relationship and that workplace demands encroached on their home lives. Of the pilots reporting

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to be divorced, 63 percent asserted that demanding airline schedules and substantial time away from home was a significant contributing factor. In the UK, 52 percent of the respondents said they spent more than 75 nights away from home per year. Nights away from home for a U.S. pilot can extend beyond 140 annually. The United Kingdom Office for National Statistics (2013) and Statistics Canada (2011) reported a nationwide divorce rate of about 2.8 and 2.1 per 1,000 respectively in Britain and Canada; while the Centers for Disease Control in the United States (2013) reported a national divorce rate of 3.6 per 1,000. In a review of divorce statistics by occupation, McCoy and Aamodt (2010) found the divorce rate for airline pilots in the United States to be around 11 per 1,000. Although other factors certainly influence relationship instability within the piloting profession, volatility in flight schedules can impose distinct disruptions to pilots' plans for rest, recreation, and relationship maintenance, and subvert the axiomatic work-life balance (Bennett, 2006; Gambles, Lewis, & Rapoport, 2006).

A National Research Council (2011) study reported that one in five U.S. airline pilots live at least 750 miles from work. In Bennett's study (2011), over 30 percent of UK pilot respondents take more than 60 minutes to commute to work, with 6.7 percent of respondents living greater than 100 miles away from their base. Of these pilots travelling significant distances or requiring substantial time in order to get to work, approximately 30 percent also rely on temporary accommodations in order to rest between flight segments. In pilot parlance, this distance factor is simply referred to as "commuting" and is generally considered a part of the occupation. Although commuting and temporary accommodation numbers are not available for the United States, estimates would suggest percentages double those for the UK. But the decision to commute is often not a choice at all but more typically an economic and lifestyle determination further influenced by airline seniority. New-hire pilots are positioned at the

bottom of the company pilots' seniority list, earning at the low end of the pay scale and assigned to a base or domicile contingent on airline staffing needs. In the United States, junior bases tend to be positioned in expensive cities along the East and West Coasts—for example, New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Washington, D.C., Los Angeles, San Francisco, and Seattle (Cooke, 2011). As pilots' longevity with the company increases, so usually does their seniority, allowing them to request ("bid" in the language of pilots) to a base closer to their desired residence, provided there is a suitable airport from which to fly to work if driving is not a more reasonable option. The alternative to this process is moving the pilot's household with each shift to a new base, which is characteristically undesirable.

An added dimension to commuting is often the temporary residence or "crash pad." These communal arrangements are frequently situated in houses, apartments, or condominiums a short distance from the airport, where a number of pilots sharing the rent can sleep, eat, shower, and get dressed for work (Cooke, 2011). Although pilots of all seniority levels can be forced at personal expense to seek hotel rooms or crash pads from time to time based on starting and ending times for trips, it is junior pilots who often find themselves living part of their professional life in this manner. Thus, entry-level pay, expensive work-based cities, commuting and temporary housing expenses, and steep student loan repayment schemes can easily place many pilots in significant financial hardship.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics in the U.S. Department of Labor (2013b) recorded the median annual wage for airline pilots in the United States at $114,200, with the bottom 10 percent earning less than $66,970 and the top 10 percent earning more than $187,200. Service Canada (2013) reported $93,447 as the average annual professional piloting income, though entrant income hovers around $22,000, with career earning potential up to $200,000 (Ball, 2007).

According to the Air Line Pilots Association, Int'l. (2013), most airline pilots begin their careers earning about $20,000 per year. Wages increase each year until the pilot accumulates the experience and seniority needed to become a captain. The average captain at a regional airline earns about $55,000 per year, while the average captain at a major airline earns about $135,000 per year.

In Bennett's (2006) study, airline management is largely criticized as being unsympathetic and out of touch with line operations, pushing pilots to the limits of regulatory duty and minimum rest limits, and having the overarching perception that profit is its primary objective and only true concern. The counterpoint to the latter of these observations may simply be, right or wrong, the result of free market capitalism, but this does not diminish the picture of significant labor-management conflict throughout the industry, absolutely pervasive throughout the United States, though to a slightly lesser degree Canada. Lumpé (2008) indicates that the highly specialized nature of the piloting profession and its high degree of self-governance can result in substantial conflict when this group is approached, managed, or led in a non-congruent fashion, an outcome that is also prevalent between pilot union leadership and members from time to time.

Combining a number of factors, including those mentioned above, Bennett (2011) reports that 35 percent of pilots surveyed indicated the piloting profession had not met their expectations. Despite the overall piloting culture's visceral enjoyment of flying, 42.7 percent stated they would not recommend a career in aviation to their children, and only 19.2 percent specifically indicated that they would recommend it to their children. This is in line with a statement made by Captain Chesley "Sully" Sullenberger, pilot of the US Airways "Miracle on the Hudson" Flight 1549, during a 2009 interview: "I don't know a single professional pilot who

would recommend that their children follow in their footsteps." This seems to be an all-too-common sentiment currently haunting the airline industry. And the timing is certainly poor, with projections of airline pilots needed over the next 20 years exceeding 400,000 globally (Boeing, 2013). Commercial pilot certification in the United States has plummeted, leading to what many industry pundits have called a pilot shortage (Goglia, 2014; Swelbar, 2014). However, according to ALPA president Lee Moak (2014), "There's no current pilot shortage in the United States; the true shortage is in the number of stable, quality, fair-paying jobs being offered by U.S. airlines." Yet, describing the individual motivations to pursue a career as a professional pilot, Bennett (2006, p.73) quoted Gant (2003) as remarking that pilots "love using their talents and being respected for them. And mostly, they love the feeling of belonging to this strong family called aviation." So perhaps the desire to fly for a living still exists, though possibly requiring the right mix of leadership and understanding to make the airline industry an attractive career choice again. But if it does not exist, or if the situation is not repaired, the outcome might not only be the erosion of a cornerstone of the North American economy and GDP of the Western world, but also the potential compromise of national security as foreign, state-owned airlines aggressively seek deep access landing privileges at Western airports and ownership rights of Western air carriers.

Leadership

A search for the term "leadership" in an academic database by Winston and Patterson (2006) yielded more than 26,000 articles. After reviewing l60 sources containing a definition, scale, or theory for leadership, these researchers compiled more than 1,000 constructs, subsequently categorizing them into 91 distinct dimensions. The result was an astute, albeit lengthy, integrative definition of leadership. This compilation effort not only demonstrated the

broad academic approach undertaken to define and understand leadership, but also highlights the difficulty in plotting a practical route to leadership and leading. This point was driven home a few years ago when a senior labor leader remarked to this author that "Leadership is common sense," the reply to which was, "Well, if it were common sense, there wouldn't be whole bookshelves dedicated to the subject at Barnes & Noble bookstores."

Leadership, occasionally used inaccurately as a synonym for management yet sharing overlapping characteristics from time to time, can be murky when searching for a concise definition, especially when considering it from a scientific perspective. Researchers often approach it based on the study methods they tend to employ and is periodically shaped by their own perspectives on the nature of leadership (Mendenhall, 2008). Key variables surfacing in leadership theories are routinely divided into characteristics of the leader, follower, and the environment. There have been approaches to leadership through trait, behavior, power, and participative concepts as well as classifying it at the organization, group, dyadic, and individual levels (Yukl, 2006). Some leadership models are leader-centered, while others are follower-centered; some are descriptive while others are prescriptive; and others may be applied universally or through a contingency methodology (Yukl, 2010). Many researchers and theories have earned prominence by their ability to offer appealing theories on leadership that are unique, are able to bridge other theories, and provide multidiscipline utility, as well as providing fodder for the Zeitgeist (Mendenhall, 2008). Despite the widespread variance on leadership thought and theory, though, *influence* seems to be a facet routinely prevalent in attempts to define or describe leadership (Yukl, 2010). Yet even this component of leadership may be typed and debated as to what particular role it plays in the process of leading. Kelman (1958) identifies three mechanisms for leadership influence: instrumental compliance, internalization, and personal

identification. *Instrumental compliance* is the influence of concrete reward or punishment as the incentive for a follower to comply with directives; effort is likely to be minimal in order to attain award or evade punishment. *Internalization* expresses the follower's commitment to action and support for initiatives when leader directives are perceived to be positively linked to the follower's principles and self-image; commitment to policies and plans are a function of follower association with the concepts in and of themselves and not necessarily the leader conveying them. *Personal identification* suggests that followers adopt leader behaviors in order to win approval, gain acceptance, and enhance self-esteem. During their investigation of transformational leadership and leader-member exchange theory, Wang et al. (2005) emphasized the dyadic linking between the character and value of the leader-follower relationship to the degree of transformational behaviors and the ability to influence follower performance. The essence of influence and its role in the leadership process is a fundamental aspect of the transactional and transformational leadership model discussion.

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership is conventionally associated with task orientation and characterized as an instrumental approach to leading (Harrison, 2011). Barbuto (2005), along with Jung and Avolio (2000), state that transactional leaders offer rewards to motivate followers or withhold them to punish or prevent poor performance. Thus, transactional leadership focuses on exchanges between leaders and followers (Bass, 1985). Present in some form within most leadership models, transaction leadership can be constructive, passive corrective, or active corrective. In constructive form, transactional leaders concentrate on jointly establishing work objectives with followers and identifying their capabilities while enumerating rewards for successful completion of stated goals. The corrective type focuses on setting standards and

expecting transgression to occur. Passive corrective leaders wait for mistakes to occur, then take action, typically utilizing negative feedback and criticism to correct performance (Harrison, 2011). Active corrective leaders closely monitor for mistakes and then react. In either its passive or active form, the focus is on identifying mistakes. Passive leaders avoid acknowledging problem areas and becoming involved in solving or rectifying issues. Further, they usually fail or neglect to establish standards and monitor performance looking for specific results. This leadership style has the greatest negative impact on organizational outcomes (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

Contingent reward. This facet of transactional leadership describes an exchange process in which followers receive specified rewards for their efforts (Northouse, 2004). This type of leadership seeks agreements from followers on what should be accomplished in exchange for some form of compensation.

Management by exception. This kind of leadership focuses on negative feedback and reinforcement, and criticism. Active management by exception is closely monitoring followers for mistakes and taking immediate corrective action. Passive management by exception is waiting to intercede in a situation only after a problem has occurred (Northouse, 2004).

Transformational Leadership

The term *transformational leadership* was coined by Downton (1973) in *Rebel Leadership: Commitment and Charisma in a Revolutionary Process*, but it was James MacGregor Burns who first introduced the concept of transformational and transactional leadership during his study of political leadership in his book aptly but plainly titled *Leadership*, published in 1978. Burns asserts that leadership stimulates change and achieves goals within an

environment, and is capable of changing the people involved in organizational actions, improving not only the organization, but leader and followers as well.

When first describing transformational leadership, Burns (1978) stipulates that transforming leaders are individuals who seem to exemplify selflessness and appear as pillars of morality. They are often idealized as the ultimate team players who are constantly working for the betterment of the organization and through these actions others are motivated to accomplish the same. Burns also contends that transformational leadership is a process between leaders and followers pushing each other to higher levels of morality and motivation. Owing to this progression, leaders possess the opportunity to increase individual and group motivation and productivity through an array of methods. These methods include establishing a connection between the organizational identity and the follower's sense of self and identity; acting as a role model; and encouraging ownership of the organization's goals and the tasks necessary to achieve them. Burns asserts that transformational leaders are often capable of employing charisma to appeal to followers' sense of higher values. When charisma is coupled with altruism, transformational leaders become highly effective at instituting organizational growth and change.

In 1981 Bass, a contemporary of Burns, suggested that leaders transform followers by increasing their awareness of task importance and value; by getting them to focus first on team or organizational goals (rather than their own interests); and by activating their higher-order needs. Thus expanding on Burns' exposition of transformational leadership, Bass (1985) further explored the psychological mechanisms within transformational leadership behavior and details how transformational leadership could be measured in addition to describing follower motivation and performance. Applying the concept of transformational and transactional leadership in organizational settings, Bass states that transactional leadership involves an exchange

relationship between leaders and followers for mutual benefit; and in contrast, transformational leaders motivate followers to achieve performance beyond expectations by transforming their attitudes, beliefs, and values as opposed to simply gaining compliance.

The degree to which a leader is transformational is related to the influence exerted on followers. Influence is predicated upon mutual trust, the result of which is heightened follower engagement and a greater commitment to work than what initially would have been thought or would have been completed under other conditions or leadership techniques. Bass declares that transformational leaders offer followers more than simple reward for work accomplished; they provide an inspirational vision that allows group members something other than themselves to focus on and a meaningful objective to achieve. Bass (1985, 1990) defines transformational leadership as an augmentation effect rather than a continuum with transactional leadership behaviors. A leader's leadership traits are only transformational to the extent that they augment transactional behaviors (Bass, 1985). Defining transformational behaviors as augmentation rather than on a continuum with transactional traits is a major break with conventional leadership theories.

Bass initially identified three transformational and two transactional leadership factors at the core of his full-range leadership theory. The explicit group of transformational behaviors is designated as idealized influence, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation measured through the multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ). Idealized influence describes the trust and respect generated through the leader's high moral fiber as well as the leader's function as role model to followers. Dedication and self-sacrifice to the organization and followers are hallmarks of this behavior and instill pride and loyalty in followers as well. With individualized consideration, the leader demonstrates care and concern for followers as well as

providing encouragement and acting as a mentor. Intellectual stimulation is the manner in which

the leader makes followers aware of problems and promotes alternative perspectives and

solutions to problems. This involves risk taking, creativity, and independent thinking whereby

operational impediments are challenges to overcome and not permanent impasses to progress. A

fourth dimension, inspirational motivation, was added later and describes the manner in which

the optimistic leader communicates an attractive and stirring vision to followers (Bass & Avolio,

1990).

Transformational leadership may be described as an approach to leading that seeks to

motivate, promote positive change, and recognize value within followers. Through "trust,

admiration, loyalty and respect toward the leader," followers are encouraged to suspend self-

interest and low-order needs in order to achieve task-oriented goals for the advancement of the

organization (Yukl, 2010, p. 275). By modifying expectations and values, follower perceptions

are altered and positive organizational change is possible. The foundation of the leader-follower

relationship in transformational leadership is not based upon a specific or established exchange;

rather, the leader's persona and a set of behaviors, coupled with compelling goals and the

articulation of an inspirational vision, enable the individual as well as the organization to change.

Idealized influence. This behavior involves placing followers' needs first and acting as

a moral role model for followers (Bass, 1985). Bennis and Nanus (1985) assert that doing the

right thing along while demonstrating high moral standards is imperative, along with avoiding

power for personal gain. Conger (1999, p. 152) refers to idealized influence as charisma and

describes it as "providing vision and a sense of mission, instilling pride in and among the group,

and gaining respect and trust." Adding to this description, Kelloway, Barling, Kelley, Comtois,

& Gatien (2003) state that idealized influence is produced when leaders are seen as dependable through consistent and predictable actions.

Inspirational motivation. When "leaders motivate and inspire those around them and include practices aimed at creating attractive visions of the future, elevating follower goals, and inspiring enthusiasm and optimism," followers are motivated to achieve the collective vision (Bass & Avolio, 1994, p. 3; Yukl, 1999). Inspiration creates optimism and solidifies commitment to the organization; it recognizes that followers' work is meaningful and has an impact on the success of the organization. When a leader uses confident and expressive language to communicate a clear, captivating vision that holds value for followers, inspirational motivation and idealized influence are the result (Conger, 1999; Kelloway et al., 2003).

Intellectual stimulation. Described by Bass and Avolio (1994) as the intent to elevate followers' abilities to a higher level, intellectual stimulation involves the extent to which a leader challenges assumptions, takes risks and solicits followers' ideas. Transformational leaders encourage creativity, independent thinking, and problem solving among their followers (Bass, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1994). Citing Deci, Eghrari, Patrick, and Leone (1994), Bono and Judge (2003) state that when leaders recognize the unique viewpoints of followers, the result is likely an increase in sovereign motivation.

Individualized consideration. Special attention from the leader on follower development as well as individual needs and particular interests is termed individualized consideration. Tied to intellectual stimulation, it includes coaching, challenging, and mentoring followers in an effort to enhance potential and ability as well as offering empathy and support when necessary (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bono & Judge, 2003; & Tejeda, Scandura, & Pillai, 2001). By paying attention to the differences between followers, the leader is sentient of

individual needs and skill level and is therefore able to effective motivate and appropriately

assign tasks. Multiple studies, including those conducted by Avolio, Waldman, & Einstein

(1988), Bass (1990), Bass, Avolio, & Goodheim (1987), and Howell & Avolio (1993),

demonstrate that transformational leadership impacts overall unit performance, including

financial growth, in addition to follower satisfaction, feelings of support and organizational

commitment.

Organizations

An organization is a social entity identified by coordinated goal-oriented behavior, task

specialization, and a structure defined by division of labor, function, hierarchy of authority, and

responsibility (Brown & Moberg, 1980; Schein, 1992). Argyris (1964) specifies that

organizations are formed when objectives are more efficiently and effectively achieved

collectively than by the strenuous actions of the individual. The ensuing collectivism is

subdivided into integrated units with particular sequences or processes designed to achieve parts

of the objective, consequently creating a pattern that emerges as organizational structure.

Organizations have become the bedrock of our basic existence and "Every organized human

activity—from the making of pots to the placing of a man on the moon—gives rise to two

fundamental and opposing requirements: The division of labor into various tasks to be

performed, and the coordination of these tasks to accomplish the activity" (Mintzberg, 1989, p.

100).

Scientific thought on the nature of organizations can be traced back to the seminal works

of American engineer Frederick Taylor and the concept of scientific management, comprising

planning, production, and quality control; the administrative approach by French engineer Henri

Fayol, who advocated creating workplace structure through forecasting, planning, organizing,

commanding, coordinating, and controlling; and the bureaucratic organization forwarded by German sociologist Max Weber focusing on legitimate control of the organization through legal, traditional, and charismatic rules (Jex & Britt, 2008). These classical organizational theories laid the foundation for neoclassical research such as the Hawthorne studies, which introduced a human relations approach to the interaction between productivity and work environment; and Barnard's theory of cooperative, open systems, emphasizing the inclusion of all stakeholders in the organizational balance between motivation and input, and maintaining equilibrium for formal and informal relationships as well as internal and external stresses on the organization (Franke & Kaul, 1978; Levitt & March, 1995). Lumpé (2008) suggests that modern and postmodern organizational theories provide the link between classical models necessary to create team-based approaches to organizing as well as identifying the existence of culture within an organization, along with the impact of environment, technology, and size on organizations. These neohuman relations approaches to organizing include McGregor's (1960) Theory X & Y, incorporating Maslow's hierarchy into delegating and decentralizing decision making and creating organizational structures capable of encouraging intrinsic motivation and self-fulfillment. Related theories, including Argyris's Maturity-Immaturity Continuum, promote treating people as responsible adults and capable decision makers as a positive means to enriching productivity. Argyris also determined that conflict with employees is often the result of attempting to manage mature personalities by using antiquated practices (Arygris, 1960; Yukl, 2010). Other models such as Likert's (1967) interactive organization design and linking-pin principle also emphasize supportive relationships, supervisor approachability, group decision making, and teamwork as well as individual accountability for achieving objectives in addition to highlighting persons

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acting as influential linkages between individuals and groups within an organization (Lumpé, 2008; Schneider, Hanges, Smith, & Salvaggio, 2003; & Wilson, 2010).

At the core of these human relations theorists is the notion that employee contentment is an essential component to organizational productivity and effectiveness (Whitman, Van Rooy, & Viswesvaran, 2010). These scholars understood that the magnitude of worker satisfaction correlates directly to commitment level and the degree to which they offer their services unreservedly in order to achieve the organization's goals, in the process assisting and cooperating with other members of the organization (Hausknecht, Hiller, & Vance, 2008; Hulin, 1991). This result in turn fosters collective satisfaction and amplifies the inclination to collaborate, share, and engage in supportive pro-social workplace behaviors (Birdi et al. 2008; Brief, 1998; & Ostroff, 1992). Building on this research and drawing on theories of reciprocity and social exchange in order to better understand the connection between satisfaction, commitment, and performance led Bateman and Organ (1983) to describe organizational citizenship behaviors.

Perceived Organizational Support

According to Eisenberger et al., (1986), Rhoades and Eisenberger, (2002) and Shore and Shore (1995), perceived organizational support (POS) is the result of followers anthropomorphizing the organization. This process emerges out of organizational culpability for the lawful, ethical, and fiscal actions of its followers, along with the ensuing organizational policies prescribing follower actions on behalf of or affecting the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Hyatt, 2011). The outcome of this process is transference and reciprocation as the follower attempts to satisfy a psychological as well as practical contract with the organization through commitment to the organization grounded in perceptions of support (Eisenberger,

Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Hyatt, 2011; Rousseau, 1989; Shore & Tetrick, 1991).

Perceived organizational support is an extension of organizational support theory and "is an experience-based attribution concerning the benevolent or malevolent intent of the organization's policies, norms, procedures, and action as they affect employees" (Eisenberber et al., 2001, p. 42). It is the evolving socio-emotional investment a follower makes in the organization as they characterize and assign qualities to the organization including inferences made regarding their relative position and value within the organization (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997; Eisenberger et al., 1986). Organizational experiences encompassing personnel and leader or manager interactions along with policies and procedures lead to perceptions of a caring or non-caring environment, thereby creating perceptions of a supportive or non-supportive organization (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001; Hyatt, 2011). When POS is elevated, the result is an increase in follower felt obligation and commitment along with greater engagement in positive elective behaviors that benefit the organization, thus contributing to organizational success (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Eisenberger et al., 1990; Hyatt, 2011; Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2001; Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, & Birjulin, 1999; Shore & Tetrick, 1991; Wayne et al., 1997).

Organizational Commitment

The concept of commitment was considered by Buchanan (1974) and Sheldon (1971) as bonds created between an individual and employer through the employee's optimistic appraisal of the company and its goals. Utilizing an attitudinal approach, Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian (1974, p. 604) suggest that organizational commitment results from a "strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization and a definite desire to maintain organizational membership."

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Bateman and Strasser (1984) suggest that organizational commitment is directly related to worker productivity, efficiency of performance, job satisfaction, and turnover rate. Reprising their research on organization commitment conducted in 1984, Meyer and Allen (1991) present affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment as a three-part conceptualization of the construct.

Affective commitment. Along with Meyer and Allen (1991) and Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979), Bolon (1997) identifies affective commitment as the emotional connection, association, and level of engagement an individual has with an organization. Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974) suggest that this type of commitment encompasses acceptance of organizational values and confidence in organizational goals, the desire to participate in and accomplish organizational objectives, and self-identity through organizational affiliation. The more a member personally identifies with an organization and internalizes its activities and values, the deeper the commitment.

Continuance commitment. Certain nontransportable investments that members make in an organization, including rank or position, relationships with colleagues, and seniority or longevity rights, result in a commitment to the organization as a function of the accumulation of these self-serving assets (Meyer & Allen 1991; Reichers, 1985). Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnytsky (2002) also suggest that conditions such as retirement and other tenured benefits can make it problematic for an individual to leave an organization, resulting in continued commitment. Stated in a different way, continuance commitment is contingent on a member's understanding of financial as well as social costs of separating from the organization.

Normative commitment. Building on Wiener's (1982) work, Meyer and Allen (1991) and Bolon (1997) describe normative commitment as organizational loyalty, duty, or

responsibility. Similar to other assumed social onuses such as familial, marital, or religious, normative commitment is an extension of these principled obligations to the organization (Wiener, 1982). As with family or friends, normative commitment is centered on an individual's compulsory mindset regarding colleagues and the organization, including organization management.

Organizational longevity, low absenteeism, dependable productivity, safeguarding organizational assets, and conviction in organizational objectives is how Meyer and Allen (1997) describe committed individuals. Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) state that the underlying psychologies related to the categories of commitment suggest that individuals with strong affective commitment will continue with an organization because they want to; individuals with a strong continuance commitment will continue because they must; and individuals with normative commitment will continue because of felt obligation. However, Wiener (1982) suggests that a member could be concurrently committed to the organization in an affective, normative, and continuance way and to differing degree. Each aspect of commitment develops in relation to organizational experience, exposure, and that which is essential to the individual (Meyer et al. 2002).

Transformational Leadership and Organizational Commitment

A body of scholarly literature has demonstrated that commitment is positively influenced by transformational leader behaviors in diverse organizational as well as cultural settings (Avolio, Zhu, Koh & Bhatia 2004; Bono & Judge 2003; Howell & Avolio 1993; Walumbwa & Lawler 2003). Further, a meta-analysis by Fuller, Peterson, Hester, and Stringer (1996) also reveals a positive relationship between transformational leadership and job-related outcomes such as satisfaction, commitment, and performance. Jung, Chow, and Wu (2003) found that

leaders exhibiting transformational behavior are capable of achieving organization change by aligning follower principles, standards, and performance with the organization's mission, objectives, and strategies. Shamir, House, and Arthur (1993) and Shamir, Zakay, Breinin, and Popper (1998) advise that transformational leaders influence followers' organizational commitment, while Farahani, Taghadosi, and Behboudi (2011) found a direct and positive correlation between transformational leadership and organizational commitment.

Transformational leaders secure member commitment through intellectual stimulation, encouraging critical thinking, involving followers in decision-making processes, and inspiring loyalty by recognizing individual needs and differences along with developing member potential (Avolio 1999; Bass & Avolio 1994; Walumbwa & Lawler 2003). They encourage the followers to take on greater challenges and responsibility, and followers in turn reciprocate with extra-role efforts leading to higher levels of commitment to their organizations (Wayne, Liden, & Sparrowe 2000; Meyer et al. 2002). Also, a number of researchers have evaluated the sundry social and varied psychological developments resulting in not only the growth of organizational commitment, but also the motivation through which organizational commitment is stimulated and positively correlated with organizational citizenship behaviors (Bakhshi, Sharma, & Kumar, 2011; Brown, 1996; Cohen, 2007; Gautam, Dick, Wagner, Upadhyay, & Davis, 2005; Meyer & Allen 1997; Meyer & Herscovitch 2001; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Organ & Ryan, 1995; and Van Knippenberg & Sleebos 2006).

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Around the same time Bass was beginning to develop the theory of transformational leadership, Bateman and Organ (1983) and Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) were examining the role of discretionary behaviors in the workplace. Organ (1988) defines organizational

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citizenship behavior (OCB) as any nonobligatory actions that are neither explicitly nor directly recognized by the formal system of performance, yet enhance the functioning and performance of the organization. Similar in concept to Katz and Kahn's (1978) description of extra-role behaviors, OCBs are a particular category of individual actions that are beneficial to the organization, yet are not mandated or necessarily recognized or rewarded. Following in the footsteps of OCB are many related concepts, including pro-social organizational behavior (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), organizational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992), and extra-role behavior (Van Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995). In 1997, Organ refined his definition of OCB, aligning it more closely to contextual performance by Borman and Motowidlo (1997), and conceptualized OCB as any form of performance that supports the social or psychological environment in which the work tasks are embedded.

According to Organ (1988, p. 4), OCB is typified by "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization." OCBs are often described as actions that go "beyond the basic requirements of the job," including task innovation, helping others, volunteerism, and other pro-social conduct (Lambert, 2006, p. 503). Lee and Allen (2002, p. 132) posit that "OCBs are employee behaviors that, although not critical to the task or job, serve to facilitate organizational functioning." Similar in nature to some of the self-sacrifice, dedication, and loyalty aspects of transformational leadership, citizenship behavior is a pivotal component to organizations that is not borne of the standard exchange incentives that typically result in adherence to organizational conformity, compliance with rules, or heightened productivity (Bateman and Organ, 1983). The two dimensions identified by Smith et al. (1983) as central to this behavior are altruism and generalized compliance. Altruism is a pro-social

behavior that describes an individual's unsolicited motivation to help others without expectation of reward. Generalized compliance is acceptance of and conformity with the expectations, norms, and rules of the organization. The authors state that organizations possessing relatively greater prevalence of these behaviors will report higher overall job satisfaction when compared to organizations reporting low occurrence of these behaviors.

Following on this fundamental work and expanding on the idea that satisfaction increases performance, Organ (1988) reprised the scope of OCB and offered five dimensions of citizenship behavior: altruism, courtesy, civic virtue, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship. Adding courtesy as a dimension provided the opportunity to consider the impact of discretionary behavior aimed at getting along with others and preventing personal disruptions within the organization (Deluga, 1998; Graham, 1991). Civic virtue describes an individual's concern for the life and prosperity of the company (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Conscientiousness builds on generalized compliance in that member behavior exceeds the minimum expectation within the organization for areas such as attendance, neatness, and regulatory compliance; while sportsmanship describes individual willingness to withhold complaint and ignore or tolerate less than idyllic conditions and simply go along to get along (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997).

Although a number of scholars have forwarded OCB taxonomies, including Williams & Anderson (1991) and Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch (1994), Dimitriades (2007) proposed that OCBs are dependent on five key proximal determinants: job satisfaction, organizational commitment, perception of fairness, perception of leadership supportiveness, and employee morale. Arguably, though, the most recognizable taxonomy is the one proposed by Organ in 1988 (revised in 1990), differentiating seven facets of OCB: altruism, courtesy,

conscientiousness, civic virtue, sportsmanship, peacekeeping, and cheerleading. Yet Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach (2000) distinguish 30 different traits being used to describe citizenship behavior, and with significant commonality existing across most of the described behaviors, the researchers were able to organize them into seven collective constructs: helping behavior, sportsmanship, organizational loyalty, organizational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue, and self-development.

Helping behavior. Helping behavior is an amalgam of Organ's (1988) courtesy and altruism traits and involves voluntarily helping others with, or preventing the occurrence of, work-related problems.

Sportsmanship. Sportsmanship, or "good sports," as Podsakoff et al. (2000, p. 531) describe them, describes individuals who maintain positive attitudes, typically do not complain when they are inconvenienced or do not get their way, do not take offense when their ideas are rejected, and generally work for the good of the group.

Organizational loyalty. Organizational loyalty embraces the support and commitment to organizational objectives as well as promoting the organization and shielding it from external threats, even when severe (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Organizational compliance. Termed generalized compliance by Smith et al. (1983), organizational compliance is a member's willingness to follow the rules and procedures of the organization (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Borman & Motowidlo, 1997).

Civic virtue. Civic virtue describes general commitment to the organization through activities such as active governance and the reporting of threats or prospects for the organization. It indicates an individual's internalization of being part of a larger community and accepting responsibility for its well-being (Graham, 1991; Organ, 1988).

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Individual initiative. Individual initiatives are member actions that include ingenuity and invention intended to improve operations and the organization's performance; a passion for work that is typically shared with others; and a willingness to assume extra duties and encouraging others to do the same, tidily summed up by Podsakoff et al. as "going above and beyond the call of duty" (2000, p. 525).

Self-development. The citizen behavior self-development takes into account discretionary efforts to advance skills and knowledge, including continuing education, conferences, and training courses, directly contributing to the enhancement of organizational productivity.

These activities are tacitly beyond the enforceable minimum or that which is guaranteed by contract or collective bargaining agreement. They exemplify a conscious decision on the part of the member to either engage or not engage in these behaviors (Begum, 2005). Additionally, OCB has been widely studied and found to positively contribute to organizational effectiveness and be intrinsically linked to factors such as task routine, job satisfaction, and perceptions of fairness (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Castro, Armario, & Ruiz, 2004; Lo & Ramayah, 2009; Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, 1993; Organ 1988; Podsakoff & Mackenzie, 1997; Walz & Niehoff, 1996). However, in a review of OCB antecedents, Podsakoff et al. (2000) and Organ, Podsakoff, and MacKenzie (2006) indicated that leader behavior may be the strongest predictor for the presence of OCB in the workplace. This stipulation makes sense as many citizenship behaviors are reflections of leader behaviors and theories, including transformational leadership (articulating a clear vision, encouraging group goals, high performance standards); transactional leadership (contingent and non-contingent reward, and contingent and non-contingent punishment); traits associated with Path-Goal theory (role conduct, procedure requirement,

leader support); and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) models. By and large, transformational leadership traits are congruent with helping behavior, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and individual initiative, while transactional leadership may be the most closely aligned with sportsmanship and organizational compliance. Podsakoff et al. (2000) and Organ et al. (2006) suggest that Path-Goal leader traits incorporate supportive comportment and, as with leader-member exchange, encourage citizenship behaviors in general. Yet, citing Bass (1985), Burns, (1978), and Kouzes and Posner (1987), Podsakoff et al. state,

> Transformational leadership behavior also had consistent effects on every form of citizenship behavior. Perhaps this should not be surprising, since the heart of transformational leadership is the ability to get employees to perform above and beyond expectations and this extra effort may show up in the form of citizenship behavior. (2000, p. 532).

Transformational Leadership and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Podsakoff et al. (1990) observed that transformational leader behavior influences extra-role activities, that is, organizational citizenship behaviors, which they pointed out as being optional and rarely included in formal job descriptions. In addition, these behaviors collectively support organizational performance by socially and expressively enhancing work or group environment. Wang et al. (2005) argue that transformational leaders are able to persuade followers that internalizing the organization's goals over individual aspirations is beneficial to the group as a whole. This suggests that individuals who are motivated by a collective vision without expecting immediate personal gains often contribute to attaining a shared goal through contributions not necessarily integral to their occupation or position. Adding to this dimension, Purvanova, Bono, and Dzieweczynski argue that "transformational leaders influence the way

followers think about their work, leading them to view it as more rewarding, challenging, and meaningful, which affects the extent to which they engage in citizenship performance" (2006, p. 3).

In addition to the transformational influence that Boerner, Eisenbeiss, and Griesser (2007, p. 17), citing Shamir et al. (1993), stated "makes followers identify with the respective goals and problems" of an organization, Wang et al. (2005) and Wayne, Shore, Bommer, and Tetrick (2002) also suggest that individuals engaging in extra-role behaviors often do so because their self-worth and self-identity are coupled to the organization's function or reputation. Therefore, additional contributions indirectly serve to enhance a member's personal status and self-esteem, a concept especially pervasive in organized-labor associations (Metochi, 2002; Sayles & Strauss, 1953; Twigg et al., 2008).

Bass (1985) states that transformational leaders "stimulate followers to perform beyond the level of expectations" (p. 32). This insinuates that leaders utilizing transformational behaviors will awaken organizational citizenship behaviors within followers (Podsakoff et al., 1990). A shared organizational identity may stimulate esprit de corps (civic virtue) as well as encouraging cohesiveness and long-term goal orientation (sportsmanship) of which conscientiousness is composed (Boerner et al., 2007). Moreover, research by Podsakoff et al. (2000), Organ et al. (2006), Piccolo and Colquitt (2006), and Asgari, Silong, Ahmad, and Abu Sama (2008) have clearly demonstrated a positive and reciprocal connection between transformational leadership and organizational citizenship behavior.

Union Citizenship Behavior

Capitalizing on the concept of OCB in the study of a unionized workforce, Skarlicki and Latham (1996) demonstrate a direct correlation between leadership training in organizational

justice and an increase in the occurrence of union members' citizenship behavior. They found

that citizenship behaviors were significantly higher among union members whose leaders were

trained in transformational techniques than among union members whose leaders were not

trained in those techniques. In a replication of the 1996 study, Skarlicki and Latham (1997)

reinforced their initial findings and stated that "fairness-enhancing behavior (e.g., taking time

listening to a member's concerns, providing a regular forum to provide explanations and

information to union members)" directly corresponded to increased levels of citizenship

behavior. Further, Skarlicki and Latham define union citizenship as:

> things that members do that are not required but provide a benefit to the union or its
>
> members. They are activities by union members that would be considered going above
>
> and beyond the call of duty and that are not directly rewarded by the union. Union
>
> citizenship includes acts of interpersonal helping, sharing, donating time or other
>
> resources, cooperating, volunteering, and promoting the union's interests. (1997, p. 623)

These actions are directly related to union commitment, a scale for which was developed by

Kelloway et al. (1992) based on the original scale by Gordon et al. (1980) measuring union

allegiance, responsibility to the union, and willingness to work for the union. Thus, a categorical

relationship exists between level of commitment and level of membership participation and

union citizenship behavior (Fullagar et al., 1994;Twigg et al., 2008). This was evidenced in a

study of Nigerian union leaders by Adegboyega (2010) demonstrating that leaders exercising

transformational behaviors increased member satisfaction and commitment to the union.

Furthermore, Fullagar et al. (1994) suggest that transformational leaders stimulate union

citizenship behavior through covenantal relationship building, while Aryee and Chay (2001)

examined the relationship between union instrumentality and the outcomes on citizenship

behavior, revealing that perceived union support and union instrumentality fully mediate the relationship between perceptions of workplace justice and citizenship behavior directed toward the union.

As a specific form of OCB, union citizenship behavior (UCB) was the focus of a study carried out by Twigg et al. (2008) to assess the internal relationship between union leader and member and the resultant level of union participation. Twigg et al. directly measured the impact of transformational leadership on UCB and stipulated that it can be evaluated through the lens of a covenantal relationship, a construct established by Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch (1994). Building on the foundation of organizational citizenship and social exchange theory forwarded by Aryee and Chay (2001), Skarlicki and Latham (1996), Snape and Redman (2004), and Fullagar et al. (2004), Twigg et al. (2008) suggest that transformational leadership encourages active and positive UCB by recognizing mutual obligation and developing a relationship based on shared values and trust between union leadership and the individual union member. For this covenantal relationship to subsist, members must believe that the organization is loyal to them and is concerned about their interests and well-being. Addressing this point, the authors state that transformational leadership is value centered, promotes shared vision, and is capable of aligning individuals with organizational goals and found that it was strongly linked to perceived union support. The authors' findings also reinforce the idea that union participation is predicated on more than mere instrumentality, as transformational leaders are able to motivate union members through covenantal relationships to make sacrifices for the benefit as well as the long-term viability of the organization. Stated plainly, the higher the level of member satisfaction with the union, the greater the commitment to the union; the greater the commitment, the higher

the participation level and engagement in extra-role behavior (Dhammika, Ahmad, & Sam, 2013; Goeddeke & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2010; Johari, 2006; Snape & Redman, 2006).

Culture and Heritage

The depth to which culture shapes attitudes, beliefs, exchanges, and relationships has long been a question for researchers (Gayle & Knutson, 1993; Hofstede et al., 2010; Keesing, 1974). The sway of nation, culture, and society wields remarkable power overtly and covertly throughout our lives. Heritage is closely related to and enmeshed with culture as the breadth of inherited traditions, practices, monuments, symbols, and objects (University of Massachusetts Amherst Center for Heritage and Society, n.d.). Culture is the ingrained codebook for understanding and living in the world, whereas heritage is the environment, objects, and places that we inherit and pass on. This includes language, history, and lineage as well as more tangible items such as wealth, land, family inheritances, and heirlooms (Thomson, n.d.). Culture and heritage shape our values, assemble our view of the world, and configure our reactions to experience. Although individuals can learn to distinguish the subtle traits of their own culture, train themselves to recognize differences in other cultures, react appropriately in the presence of certain cultural practices, and appreciate the richness of other cultures, what humans cannot do is resist or avoid the influence of culture (Adler, 1977; Hofstede et al. 2010).Culture is the "collective programming of the mind" distinguishing the members of one group from another and the "set of distinctive spiritual, material, intellectual and emotional features of society . . . ways of living together, value systems, traditions and beliefs" resulting from shared experiences and conveyed through age generations (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 516; United Nations, 2009). Citing Carrol (1982) and Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952), Adler (2008) describes culture as the laws, beliefs, morals, habits and customs, stories, art, and traditions that are shared and passed on

from older to younger members of a group. As indicated by Hofstede et al. (2010), culture is the summative programming of individuals in layers that include home country and country of immigration; geography, ethnicity, language, and religion; gender, generation, and social class or caste; education, occupation, and organization.

Hofstede, GLOBE, and the World Values Study

Between 1967 and 1973, Geert Hofstede completed the largest matched-sample, cross-national database in the world, complied from a study of national values across the worldwide subsidiaries of International Business Machines (IBM) (Hofstede, 1980). Hofstede compared the answers of 117,000 IBM employees in 50 countries regarding cultural values in order to create a framework for cross-cultural communication. The resultant set of cultural dimensions describes the impact of culture on global values and behavior. In a number of revised studies conducted between 1990 and 2002, the original findings were validated and extended culture value scores to 76 countries and regions. Although the original study had only four dimensions— individualism-collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, power distance, and masculinity-femininity— later research (Hofstede & Bond, 1988) led to the addition of long-term orientation as a fifth dimension (Hofstede et al., 2010). For a 2010 reprisal of *Cultures and Organizations*, Hofstede collaborated with Michael Minkov (co-analyst of the World Values Survey) to incorporate a sixth dimension, indulgence versus self-restraint (Hofstede et al., 2010).

Established in 1993 by Robert House, the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Research Project (GLOBE) is an international group of social scientists and management scholars studying cross-cultural leadership (House et al., 2004). Project GLOBE is a continuous research effort involving 825 organizations in 62 countries focusing on nine cultural dimensions (founded on and similar in structure to the cultural dimension work of

Hofstede), divided into "As Is" and "Should Be" values, including uncertainty avoidance, power distance, societal collectivism, in-group collectivism, assertiveness, gender egalitarianism, performance orientation, humane orientation, and future orientation.

The GLOBE researchers examined 112 leader characteristics, resulting in the creation of 21 leadership scales, reduced this to six leadership styles including charismatic / value-based, team-oriented, participative, humane-oriented, autonomous, and self-protective (House et al., 2004). The charismatic / value-based leadership style manifests the ability to inspire, motivate, and expect high performance from others based on strongly held core values and holds the highest number of attributes universally perceived as contributors to effective leadership (House et. al., 1999). Team-oriented leadership stresses cooperation and building teams along with shared purpose. Participative signals the extent to which others are included in the decision making process; and a humane inclination emphasizes being supportive, thoughtful, compassionate, and charitable. Autonomous leadership refers to independent and individualistic leadership, while self-protective leadership focuses on the safety and security of the leader and the in-group.

GLOBE researchers have divided societies into cultural clusters based on comparable cultural values and beliefs. Currently there are 10 cultural clusters broken into Anglo cultures (England, Australia, Caucasian South Africa, Canada, New Zealand, Ireland, and the United States); Latin Europe (Israel, Italy, Portugal, Spain, France, and French-speaking Switzerland); Nordic Europe (Finland, Sweden, Denmark); Germanic Europe (Austria, Switzerland, Netherlands, and Germany); Eastern Europe (Hungary, Russia, Kazakhstan, Albania, Poland, Greece, Slovenia, and Georgia); Latin America (Costa Rica, Venezuela, Ecuador, Mexico, El Salvador, Colombia, Guatemala, Bolivia, Brazil, and Argentina); Sub-Sahara Africa (Namibia,

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Zambia, Zimbabwe, Black South Africa, and Nigeria); Arab Cultures (Qatar, Morocco, Turkey, Egypt, and Kuwait); Southern Asia (India, Indonesia, Philippines, Malaysia, Thailand, and Iran); and Confucian Asia (Taiwan, Singapore, Hong Kong, South Korea, China, and Japan). Although Hofstede utilized a different set of labels for creating culturally parallel groups, the methodology and results are very similar to GLOBE's cultural clusters. The relationship between culture clusters and leader style is presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Culture Clusters and Leader Styles

Charismatic / Value Oriented *Higher*	Team Oriented *Higher*	Participative *Higher*	Humane *Higher*	Autonomous *Higher*	Self or Group-Protective *Higher*
Anglo Germanic Nordic SE Asian L. European L. American	SE Asian Confucian L. American E. European African L. European Nordic Anglo Middle Eastern Germanic	Germanic Anglo Nordic	SE Asian Anglo African Confucian	Germanic E. European Confucian Nordic SE Asian Anglo African Middle Eastern L. European L. American	Middle Eastern Confucian SE Asian L. American E. European
Confucian African E. European	L. European L. American African		Germanic Middle Eastern L. American E. European	African L. European	
Middle Eastern	E. European SE Asian Confucian Middle Eastern		L. European Nordic	Anglo Germanic Nordic	
Lower Charismatic / Value Oriented	*Lower* Team Oriented	*Lower* Participative	*Lower* Humane	*Lower* Autonomous	*Lower* Self or Group-Protective

Adapted from House et al., 2004.

The World Values Survey (WVS) is also a global research project recording cultural values and beliefs. Initiated by Ronald Inglehart in 1981, WVS is a global network of social scientists conducting longitudinal surveys on over 80 societies in nearly 100 countries on six continents, encompassing over 90% of the world's population (World Values Survey, n.d.). Data from the WVS reveal two significant global delineations of cross-cultural variation. These are traditional values versus secular-rational values, and survival values versus self-expression. The most recent round of global surveys is set to be completed in 2014.

National values for Hofstede's cultural dimensions range from a low score of 1 to a high of 120, allowing for societal comparison (Hofstede's culture scores may be obtained from www.geert-hofstede.com/hofstede_dimensions.php). Power distance index (PDI) describes the degree to which less powerful members of organizations and institutions—for example, family, school, business—understand and assume that power is not equitably distributed (Hofstede et al., 2010). Cultures fostering low power-distance relationship are more consultative or democratic (Lumpé, 2008). The GLOBE's power-distance dimension is more closely aligned with Hofstede's uncertainty avoidance index, with the strongest correlation occurring between GLOBE's "As Is" in-group collectivism and Hofstede's PDI (Hofstede et al., 2010). WVS data correlates strongly with PDI as secular-rational versus traditional authority (World Values Survey data may be viewed and downloaded at www.worldvaluessurvey.org/). Examples of low PDI cultures include Denmark, the Netherlands, and the United States; whereas cultures with high PDI include Russia, Thailand, and Spain.

The cultural dimension individualism (IDV) is considered the obverse of collectivism and is predicated upon the strength of ties between individuals. In generally wealthier, individualistic societies, import is placed on taking care of oneself and immediate family only,

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along with the value of individual achievements and rights (Hofstede et al., 2010). In poorer, collectivist societies, emphasis is placed heavily on the strength and loyalty of in-group cohesion and group decision making (Hofstede et al., 2010; Lumpé, 2008). IDV corresponds to the collectivism dimensions in the GLOBE studies (Gelfand et al., 2004), as well as WVS data in well-being versus survival in femininity (Hofstede et al., 2010). Individualistically-oriented cultures, such as the United States, Germany, and Hungary, stand in contrast to collective cultures, such as Japan, Sweden, and Russia.

The masculinity (MAS) of a society is determined by the extent to which these stereotypical characteristics are dominant (Lumpé, 2008). As opposed to feminine societies where gender roles overlap with concern for relationships, tenderness, and quality of life, masculine societies concentrate on men being tough and assertive and achieving material success (Hofstede et al., 2010). Elements of MAS are divided in the GLOBE's dimensions of assertiveness, gender egalitarianism, humane orientation, and performance orientation (House et al., 2004; Hofstede et al., 2010). Performance orientation refers to the degree to which a culture rewards its members for performance improvement and excellence (Javidan & House, 2001). Cultures embracing a high MAS outlook include Slovakia, Japan, Italy, and Argentina, while more feminine-oriented cultures include the Netherlands, Latvia, Norway, and Sweden.

Hofstede et al. (2010) describe the uncertainty avoidance index (UAI) as societal tolerance for opacity and the associated attempt to avoid it through rules, laws, and regulations. Low uncertainty-avoidance cultures view general rules as lacking practical value, are more tolerant of change, take a pragmatic approach to challenges, and are comfortable with an unstructured environment. In a high UAI a culture, change is not readily embraced, orderliness and seniority are important, and the rule of law is important, as is organizational structure and the

predictability of relationships. Although Lumpé (2008) viewed Hofstede's UAI and GLOBE's

uncertainty avoidance and power distance as analogous, Venaik and Brewer (2008) in their

review of the differences between Hofstede and GLOBE dimensions stipulated that Hofstede's

PDI has a significant positive correlation with GLOBE's power distance practices but not with

GLOBE's power distance values. However, Hofstede's UAI has significant positive correlation

with GLOBE's uncertainty values through significant negative correlation with GLOBE's

uncertainty avoidance practices. Russia, Greece, and Venezuela are examples of low UAI

cultures, while Sweden, Germany, and, to a degree, the United States tend toward high UAI.

Long-term orientation (LTO) relates to the pragmatic approach to future rewards and the

perception of a cultural time horizon (Hofstede et al., 2010). In short-term oriented societies,

value is internalized in the past and the present, embracing a respect for tradition, saving face,

and fulfilling one's social obligations. LTO cultures are persistent and frugal and broad inequity

in socioeconomic conditions is undesirable, while short-term oriented cultures encourage

meritocracy with demarcation according to skill and talent (based on Minkov's 2007 WVS

analysis). LTO is related to GLOBE's dimensions of performance orientation and future

orientation, connected to the individual and group need for achievement and improvement along

with a societal orientation to future success (Ashkanasy et al., 2004). Examples of cultures with

LTO views are Korea, Japan, and China, while Trinidad, Egypt, and Ghana are examples of

cultures with shorter-term orientations.

The last dimension in the Hofstede et al. (2010) cultural-dimensions profile includes

indulgence versus restraint (IVR) as a measure of a society's indulgence level around enjoying

life and having fun, as opposed to more self-possessed societies that discourage enjoyment and

restrict gratification. This measure correlates to WVS data termed happiness, life control, and

importance of leisure, often referred to in academic literature as subjective well-being. High IVR cultures include Venezuela, Mexico, and El Salvador, and low IVR cultures include Ukraine, Egypt, and Pakistan.

Humane Orientation is a GLOBE dimension without a direct correlation to an individual Hofstede et al. (2010) dimension, yet is an amalgam of several of them. It depicts organizations or societies that promote and reward equality, philanthropy, generosity, and kindness to others (House et al., 2004). Highly humane societies demonstrate the importance of taking an interest in others, are motivated by a sense of inclusion or belonging, believe society has an obligation to ensure the well-being of others, and are encouraged to be sensitive to discrimination. At the opposite pole, low humane societies promote self-interest and acquisition of power and possessions; contend that the state, not the individual, should be responsible for supporting others' well-being; and likely accept discrimination as a norm (House et al., 2004).

Culture is the corpus of life patterns providing a point of reference from which to interact with other human beings and engage in the environment. It is learned and transmitted and is indissolubly woven together with individual personalities to form the gestalt of identity. Although culture is the substratum, the fulcrum of the operant organism is a fusion of biological, social, and metaphysical impetuses. Yet

> all people share a common human nature. Our shared human nature is intensely social: we are group animals. We use language and empathy, and practice collaboration and intergroup competition. But the unwritten rules of how we do these things differ from one human group to another. "Culture" is how we call these unwritten rules about how to be a good member of the group. (Hofstede & Hofstede, n.d.)

Summary of Literature Review

Research is continuing in the field of transformational leadership and organizational commitment, and it is broadening beyond Western academia in its popularity. Studies on transformational leadership and worker commitment have been completed by Britwum and Martens (2008) in Ghana; Adegboyega (2010) in Nigeria; Bozlagan, Dogan, and Daoudov (2010), along with Ince and Gul (2011), in Turkey; Sandhu and Kaur in India (2011); and Chan and Snape (2013) in China. The fact that these concepts are being researched and considered potentially valuable approaches to organizing and leading in these areas of the world among others, certainly makes it all the more interesting given the differences in cultural mindsets (Hofstede et al., 2010); Javidan, Dorfman, Howell, &Hanges, 2010) as rather disparate to the Western mindset, making it all the more significant. Yet as this chapter is drawing to a close, perhaps the question remaining is where unions and union leadership fit in with globalization. How do labor leaders represent their memberships on the stage of global trade?

Javidan (2007) defines global leadership as "the process of influencing individuals, groups, and organizations inside and outside the boundaries of the global organization, representing diverse cultural, political, institutional systems to contribute towards the achievement of the organization's goals" (p. 22). Mendenhall, Osland, Bird, Oddou, and Maznevski (2008) aptly described it as "Individuals who effect significant positive change in organizations by building communities through the development of trust and the arrangement of organizational structures and processes in a context involving multiple cross-boundary stakeholders, multiple sources of external cross-boundary authority, and multiple cultures under conditions of temporal, geographical and cultural complexity" (p. 17). Yet, as Turnbull (2008) indicates, because of a dearth of scientific study and construct evaluation at present, global

leadership is a debated term being applied contrarily between disciplines and fields. For Osland (2008), though, global leadership is qualitatively unlike traditional leadership, requiring new competencies to complement the traditional skill and trait sets. This is because as economies, societies, and cultures continue to be assimilated into global interconnectedness through communication, transportation, and trade, organizations are being forced to reconsider their conventional skill sets.

Traditionally, leaders have been selected and generally advanced based on their ability to manage tasks and solve problems as a function of analytical intelligence (IQ) (Neisser et al., 1996). Along with IQ, modern leaders (especially Western ones) are also expected to recognize that most employees desire self-actualization through work and require employment to be personally satisfying (Hofstede, 1980). In order to achieve maximum productivity from workers and secure their commitment to the organization, leaders must earn subordinates' respect and trust and ensure that they feel supported by their leaders. Labor leaders must do the same for union volunteers and the membership groups they represent. Recognizing and pursuing this relationship factor as imperative to organizational success is described as emotional intelligence (EQ), (Goleman, 2004). These two competencies, IQ and EQ, form the basis of competent, effective leadership (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2003). Although task completion and managing relationships are the keys to effective leadership, organizational administration and relationship building are progressively transpiring outside of standard prefectures, resulting in increased interactions and transactions with individuals and groups in other nations with varied backgrounds and belief systems. Thus, cultural intelligence (CQ), encompassing IQ and EQ, refers to the ability to coalesce cultural contexts and describes the ability to function effectively in diverse cultural settings (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Earley, 2002). As with business leaders and

managers, union leaders seeking to influence global trade policy and advocate for workers' rights, working conditions, and wages and benefits must also organize, interact, and lead in this manner.

The United Nations International Labor Organization has stated that although globalization has created some negative aspects for global workers and communities, including free trade zones and compulsory labor practices, it has also facilitated transnational organization and provided an opportunity to address global issues, including racism, gender discrimination, income inequality, and sustainable development. Yet, this has always been an aspect and function of the labor union; according to Britwum and Martens (2008), trade unions are the most important organized part of civil society and play a key role in influencing, implementing, and enforcing rules to achieve a fair globalization and promote development.

As a result of collective bargaining efforts, union members generally do earn higher wages and receive better benefits than nonunion counterparts. However, union membership coincides with increased living and working standards for all working men and women, union and nonunion. When union membership rates are high, so is the percentage of income funneling into the middle class. When union membership rates fall, income inequality grows; the middle class shrinks and wealth exponentially accumulates to the already wealthy, a condition that has been occurring since the 1990s in the United States.

Collective bargaining affects more than wages and benefits, though. Union teachers, for example, bargain for smaller class sizes, and union nurses bargain for better patient care. Union pilots bargain for safer skies, and union football players in the National Football League bargain for better protective equipment and protective rules of the game, which trickle down to club, middle school, high school, and college players. In communities throughout the country,

unionized letter carriers save lives by alerting officials when an elderly person has not collected their mail from the mailbox. Unionized firefighters hold fund-raisers for cancer research, and unionized police officers volunteer to build playgrounds in disadvantaged neighborhoods. Organized labor groups partner with nonprofit organizations to assist with cleaning up after storms and distributing food to the disadvantaged. In the United Sstates, unions administer the most extensive career training programs outside of the military.

These are the social infrastructures needed in developing nations to improve and grow a middle class, encourage education, increase safety as well as quality and efficiency in the workplace, and advance the cause of human rights. This is the underlying principle of the proposed study, as a small paving stone in the foundation of scholarly work intended to provide a road to improving the human condition by understanding and advocating for the leadership traits necessary to stimulate the best in workers and in turn stimulate the best in organizations. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer (1996) state that transformational leaders articulate a vision of the organization's future, provide a model that is consistent with that vision, foster the acceptance of group goals, hold high performance expectations, and provide individualized support and intellectual stimulation. Labor on the global stage is definitely in need of a vision, support, and stimulation.

This study endeavored to consider the constructs of leadership, membership, organization, and culture, and the nature of their interrelation. This effort led to the development of a multivariate framework, depicted in Figure 2. The following chapter will describe the methodology employed to measure these variables.
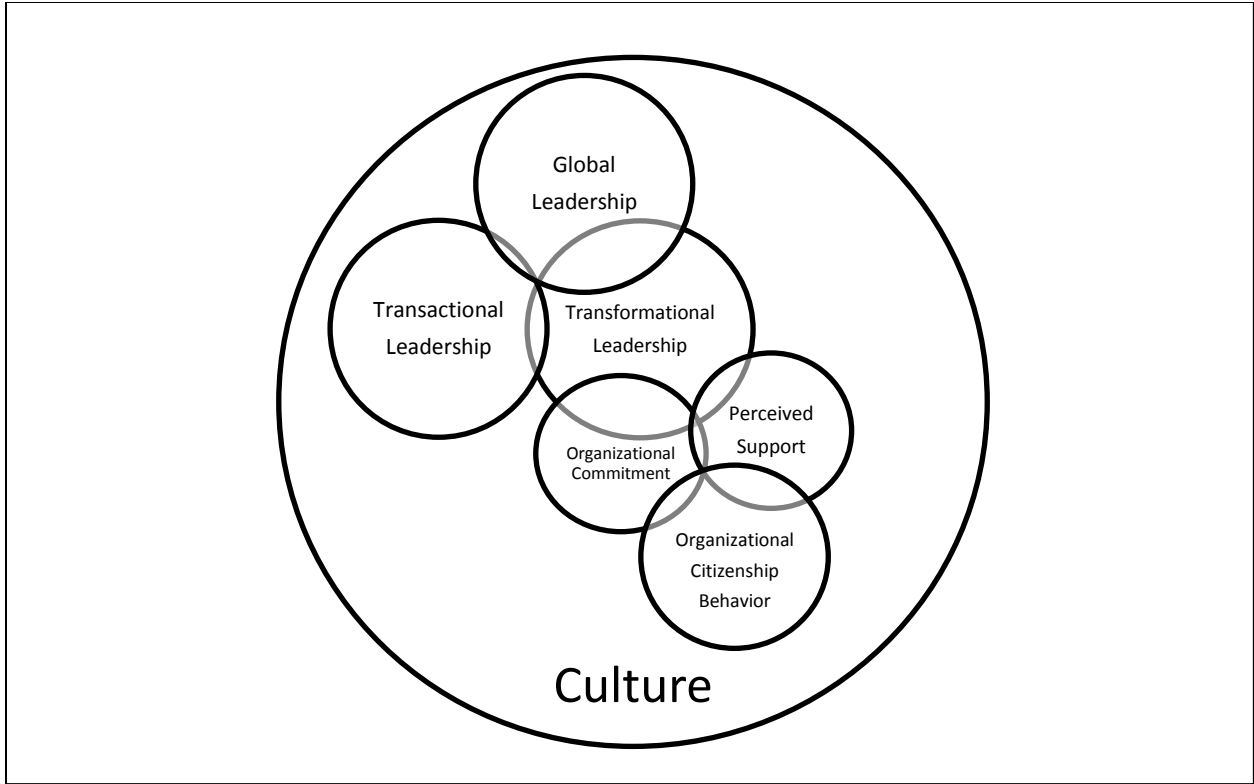
Figure 2. Framework for Study Variables

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The first two chapters presented an overview of the literature and research related to leadership, organized labor unions, and organizational citizenship behavior along with culture. Given the limited research on the relationship between these factors and labor leaders, an examination of the interplay between these items is appropriate with implications for union leadership training and organizing procedures. This study examines the perceptions of leadership held by union leaders and members of a unionized Canadian airline pilot group in order to determine the role that leadership style plays in union member commitment and satisfaction and as a predictor of union citizenship behavior, as well as the impact that culture has on these perceptions. Moreover, this study considers the supposition that the presence of transformational leadership will result in higher levels of union member commitment and an increased incidence of union citizenship behavior (UCB). The study adds to the body of knowledge about leadership style and UCB, as well as describing the intervening factors impacting the union leader-member relationship. This chapter will outline the procedures associated with this quantitative study and detail the approach for considering the relationships between leadership, discretionary citizenship behaviors, and culture. Chapter components include research questions, null and alternative hypotheses, measures, sample population, anticipated ethical issues, data collection procedures, statistical procedures, and summation.

Research Questions

This study sought to answer the following research questions:

1. What is the relationship between the union leaders' self-assessment of leadership style and their perceptions of leadership?

2. What is the relationship between the union members' assessment of their union leaders' leadership style and their union leaders' reported perceptions?

3. What is the relationship between perceptions of leadership and the level of commitment, perceived support, participation in the union process, and positive discretionary citizenship behaviors?

4. What is the relationship between perceptions of leadership and cultural affinity?

The study was grounded in the research question of whether a relationship exists between the leadership style of union leaders and the level of union member commitment, the perception of organizational support, and union citizenship behavior. This question was encapsulated within the driving question of whether culture and heritage mediate, moderate, or are indifferent to these factors.

The null and alternative hypotheses tested were

H1 Null: There will be no difference in union members' commitment with regard to their union leaders' transformational and transactional leadership styles.

H1 Alternate: There will be a difference in union members' commitment with regard to their union leaders' transformational and transactional leadership styles.

H2 Null: There will be no difference in union members' perception of organizational support with regard to their union leaders' transformational and transactional leadership styles.

H2 Alternate: There will be a difference in union members' perception of organizational support with regard to their union leaders' transformational and transactional leadership styles.

H3 Null: There will be no difference in union members' engagement in union citizenship behavior with regard to their union leaders' transformational and transactional leadership styles.

H3 Alternate: There will be a difference in union members' engagement in union citizenship behavior with regard to union leaders' transformational and transactional leadership styles.

H4 Null: There will be no difference in union members' perception of leadership with regard to cultural heritage or cultural affinity.

H4 Alternate: There will be a difference in union members' perception of leadership with regard to cultural heritage or cultural affinity.

H5 Null: There will be no difference in union members' commitment with regard to cultural heritage or cultural affinity.

H5 Alternate: There will be a difference in union members' commitment with regard to cultural heritage or cultural affinity.

H6 Null: There will be no difference in union members' perception of organizational support with regard to cultural heritage or cultural affinity.

H6 Alternate: There will be a difference in union members' perception of organizational support with regard to cultural heritage or cultural affinity.

H7 Null: There will be no difference in union members' engagement in union citizenship behavior with regard to cultural heritage or cultural affinity.

H7 Alternate: There will be a difference in union members' engagement in union citizenship behavior with regard to cultural heritage or cultural affinity.

Organizational commitment is generally defined as a strong belief in and satisfaction with the organization's goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and a desire to maintain organizational membership (Catano et al., 2001). Union satisfaction is tied to the perception of union effectiveness, primarily based on union instrumentality and directly driven by member perceptions of union leadership (Chacko, 1985). Union instrumentality is regularly described as the union's capacity to obtain advances in wages, benefits, and work rules and to ensure justice through contract enforcement (Hammer, Bayazit, & Wazeter, 2009). Perceived organizational support (POS) is a measure of the perspicacity an individual holds regarding the extent to which an organization values that person's involvement and welfare (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986).

Research Design

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5x, short form) was used to assess the transformational leadership behaviors of union leaders and the perceptions of those behaviors held by the union membership (Bass & Avolio, 2000). Scales developed by Kelloway et al. (1992), Shore et al. (1994), and Skarlicki and Latham (1997) were used to assess union

commitment and satisfaction along with perceived union support and union citizenship behavior. A heritage assessment tool designed by Spector (2013) was adapted to assess cultural affinity, while a demographic survey was coupled to the other five data collection instruments for this study.

This research effort was broken down into three phases, with three embedded studies. Phase one consisted of surveying the Canadian airline pilots' leadership core, while phase two involved surveying the Canadian pilot union members. Phase three encompassed the data from the leadership and membership studies, and comparing the data against reported cultural affinity, bringing the study to a close with a final analysis and write-up.

Population and Sample

The organic sample for this study was drawn from a unionized Canadian air carrier pilot group, including its 19 elected pilot union leaders composing the master executive council (MEC), represented by the Air Line Pilots Association, Int'l. (ALPA). The population for the participating pilot group was 1,441. Because two separate surveys were issued independently to the leader and membership groups, two population sampling questions became evident. According to Gay (1996), the entirety of small populations (N < 100) should be surveyed; therefore, all 19 pilot leaders were sampled. For populations around 1,500, such as the membership group in this study, Gay (1996) indicated sample size should be at least 20%. Although approximately 300 completed surveys would have fulfilled this requirement, in order to achieve a 99% confidence level with a confidence interval of 4, the targeted goal was 601 completed surveys . Also weighed was guidance provided by Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2010), who suggest that studies be designed to achieve alpha levels of at least .05 with power levels of 80 percent, in an effort to balance alpha, sample size, effect size, and power.

The leadership group. As a part of phase one, the 19 core pilot leaders of the master executive council (MEC) representing the Canadian airline pilot group completed the self-rate (19 questions) as well as rater (7 questions) versions of the MLQ 5x in the first study. The leadership group also completed the nearly identical survey issued to the membership group as a part of the second study containing a 5-item union commitment and satisfaction scale, a 6-item UCB scale, and a 7-item perceived support scale, as well a series of questions assessing cultural heritage and demographics. This equated to a 78-item questionnaire for the leadership group.

The self-rate MLQ survey was utilized for the 19 individual members of the MEC to assess perceptions of personal leadership style. Its purpose was to build an aggregate picture of MEC leadership style for comparison at both the local and master executive levels corresponding to the degree of commitment and satisfaction reported by the pilot group as well as the presence of union citizenship behaviors. The rater version of the MLQ for the 19 members of the MEC was structured to assess the pilot leaders' perception of overall leadership style of the MEC itself.

The membership group. As a part of phase two, the Canadian pilot group union members completed the rater version of the MLQ survey in order to assess their perceptions of MEC leadership. Union members also completed the union commitment and satisfaction surveys, with an emphasis on their MEC. The perceived union-support scale was intended to measure feelings about ALPA in general. The UCB scale was also completed, focusing on the individual member's willingness to participate in union activities such as attending informational meetings and paying attention to union communications. The leaders' responses in the UCB section were expected to indicate an extensive level of discretionary and positive union behaviors. The 23-item cultural heritage assessment survey was adapted to examine the number

and depth of pilots reporting affinity for either their Canadian culture or an expressed cultural

heritage other than Canadian. Demographic information was collected from both member and

leader groups, including gender, age, race, education level, domicile, current flight crew position

(captain, first officer, second officer, engineer), piloting experience in hours, pilot training

background, military experience, years in a union environment, and years with current company.

Access, Permission, and Data Collection

Data collection was accomplished through completion of an online questionnaire

constructed in PsychData. Leader and membership questionnaires were e-mailed as hyperlinks

specific to the appropriate study group utilizing a dedicated mass e-mail system operated by the

pilot group as a part of the Association's standard communications network. The membership-

survey hyperlink was also posted on the Canadian pilots' union intranet home page and in other

union communications designed to encourage participation. A notification e-mail on the

questionnaire was sent in advance to the pilot group and included a synopsis of the study, intent

for data usage, directions for completing the questionnaire, a confidentiality notice, and the date

the study opened and closed (see Appendices A and B). The questionnaire web page also

included survey directions (see Appendices D and E) and a statement stipulating that

questionnaire submission indicates permission to use the data and that identifying information

would not be retained (see Appendix C). To encourage participation, four random drawings

from the membership participant pool were held, awarding one of four gift cards in the amounts

of $100, $50, $25, and $25 to each of the four selected respondents. Phone and e-mail were used

to follow up with members and leaders and to answer questions regarding the survey.

Instrumentation and Materials

This quantitative research design is principally rooted in the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5x) as an adapted metric for assessing transformational and transactional leadership style (Bass & Avolio, 2004). It is a structured, verbal, omnibus measure of leadership styles, assessing four dimensions of transformational leadership: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration; as well as aspects of transactional leadership, including active and passive management by exception, contingent reward, and laissez-faire as an indicator of leadership deficiency. The factors used to determine the MLQ transformational leadership score range from "not at all" to "frequently, if not always" on a 5-point Likert-type scale." The scores for all leadership scales were evaluated, comparing the self-evaluation with ratings received from the membership group. Raw scores were referenced to the established benchmark and reported as a difference between what a person envisions his or her own behavior to be and the way this behavior is viewed by the raters (see Appendices F and G).

The MLQ, published by Mind Garden Inc., is commonly used and is acknowledged to be a highly validated measure of transformational leadership (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1995; Ozaralli, 2003). Research indicates that the MLQ has strong construct validity, internal consistency, and factor loadings (Avolio et al., 1995; Bass & Avolio, 1997, 2000). In a revised version of the MLQ by Bass and Avolio (2004) total item internal consistency was demonstrated ranging from .64 to .92, with reliability of .70 or higher for each of the transformational scales.

Although integral to the full leadership model, intellectual stimulation was not evaluated as a component of transformational leadership in this study. Intellectual stimulation works to encourage intrinsic motivation; yet transformational leadership maintains the capacity to align interests of the individual with those of the organization and cultivate intrinsic motivation in

general (Bass, 1999; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Bolkan & Goodboy, 2010). Moreover, to the extent that intellectual stimulation involves perceptive reevaluation of the status quo and the questioning of standard conventions, it is unlikely to be a stand-out factor in a highly regulated industry, where any change to operational techniques or parameters is slow, and pilots as the principal actors hold deeply ingrained beliefs regarding flight procedures and airmanship (Podsakoff et al., 1990).

In addition to the MLQ 5x, the 81-question leadership and 60-question membership composite surveys evaluated perceived union support, union commitment, and UCB, utilizing 7-point Likert-type scales ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" or "Not at all characteristic of me" to "Very characteristic of me" (see Appendices H, I, and J). These instruments have been tested and applied in multiple research studies on union satisfaction and commitment factors of union members and have been found reliable (Catano et al., 2001; Fullagar et al. 2004; Twigg et al., 2008).

For this study, utilizing well-established metrics provided the foundation for ensuring content, empirical, and construct validity. In addition, by following the example set by Twigg et al. (2008), an analysis of the study variables was conducted to determine discriminant validity, that is, constructs that are thought to be unrelated are, in fact, unrelated (John & Benet-Martinez, 2000). This is judicious, given that this study hypothesizes that union commitment is affected by leadership style in accordance with Sayles and Strauss's (1953) stipulation that union participation is impacted by more than mere union instrumentality. Yet many researchers contend that success in contract negotiations and grievances is primary for commitment. In similar studies conducted by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), Baron and Kenny (1986), and Twigg et al. (2008), the outcome of this discriminant validity should demonstrate that union

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instrumentality is, in fact, related to items beyond bargaining and grievances.

Heritage assessment tool. This device was adapted from the Heritage Consistency Scale developed by Spector (1983) for use in cultural assessment in health care, as a revision of Estes and Zitzow's (1980) work on the continuum concept of heritage consistency in Native Americans. For this study, the heritage survey contained 23 items intended to assess the level of cultural affinity within the respondent (see Appendix K). This was in turn compared against reported perceptions of leadership and anticipated responses regarding cultural dimensions based on the works of Hofstede et al. (2010) and House et al. (2004). Although the nature of leadership is the focus of this study, culture is considered the overarching theme.

Demographic survey. In 2008, Eddy discussed the necessity of understanding demographic issues to effectively manage diverse organizations. According to Ahmad, Sham, and Joremi (2010) and Kao and Craven (2006), demographic variables may impact perceptions and style of leadership. This study therefore requested that participants complete a 12-question (13 for the leadership group) demographic survey (see Appendix L). Information requested included items such as gender, age, race, education and pilot certification level, years of piloting experience, and years as a union member. Participants were also asked to describe applicable military experience in order to compare against reported pilot sociological factors as well as extensive research on the training and encouragement of transformational leadership in U.S. and NATO military command structures (Atwater, Avolio, & Bass, 1991; Bass & Avolio, 2000; Boyd, 1988).

Statistical Procedures

Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to evaluate collected data. Inferential statistical procedures were used for data analysis, including confirmatory factor

analysis, regression analysis, independent samples t-test, and two-group ANOVA of differences (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). Missing or flawed questionnaires were omitted, reducing the total number for data analysis; however, with 620 submitted surveys, this did not pose a significant impediment to statistical significance. For completed surveys with missing or inaccurate data, SPSS was useful for generating a mean for a given response, and these surveys were handled in accordance with recommendations by Bedeian (2014) and Hair et al. (2010) for missing at random data. Ultimately, approximately 453 surveys were useable for the membership group and 19 for the leadership group. Of the 453 useable surveys, less than 10% had any further treatment for missing at random data in accordance with Bedeian (2012) and Hair et al. (2010). Overall this provided a 95% confidence level with a confidence interval of 3.81.

Hypotheses structure for this composite metric was based on the presumption that transformational leadership has a more positive outcome on union citizenship behavior, with an associated elevation in union member satisfaction and commitment, than transactional leadership. Variance in groups and aggregates as well as multilevel relationships were measured through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and used to ensure validity and reliability for each scale on the questionnaire. Pearson's correlation coefficient as well as a multiple regression analysis assisted in determining the presence of linear relationships and degrees of association between variables, along with incorporating descriptive statistics to measure the impact of culture and leadership styles on membership commitment, perceived support, and union citizenship behavior.

Variables

In studies one and two, the dependent variables for this study are transformational

leadership (idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and individualized consideration); transactional leadership (contingent reward and management by exception); and passive/avoidant or laissez-faire leadership. The independent variables for these studies are perceived organizational support, organizational (union) commitment, and union citizenship behavior. Also during these studies, respondents were asked to answer a number of questions pertaining to their cultural background and rate their engagement in cultural heritage-related activities. Following the second study, the membership group was segregated into culture clusters for the third study, based on their responses to the culture and cultural heritage items and the clustering method utilized in the GLOBE studies (House et al., 2004) (see Appendix M). Although the third study utilized the same variables as the first and second studies, demographic variables were added, including gender, age, years in the union, years in the airline industry, and years with the current airline company. Further, because the third study was designed to determine the extent to which culture and cultural heritage influence perceptions of leadership, commitment, perceived support and UCB for members of a white-collar union (especially one with a strong professional culture), the culture-clustered membership data was separated into two groups for examination. The first or homogeneous group reported nil to weak cultural affinity. The second or culturally diverse group reported moderate to high cultural affinity. This distinction was based on the number of positive culture responses indicated by the participant during the course of the survey. Utilizing the GLOBE Anglo cluster as a baseline of zero for cultural diversity and affinity, any response to a survey item indicating a culture or cultural heritage link outside of the Anglo cluster was coded as a cultural variation. The greater the number of cultural variations, the greater the cultural diversity score. For example, a respondent who indicated a primary culture association of Canadian (Anglo cluster), but who

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also speaks French (Latin European cluster), whose father was born in Germany (Germanic European cluster) and mother born in Denmark (Nordic European cluster) would possess four culture clustering codes, and three culture variations, using Anglo as a zero point for the Canadian pilot group. Those with a score of zero or one were assigned to the homogeneous group. Those respondents with a score of two or more were assigned to the cultural diversity group. A short description of each culture cluster, adapted from Northouse (2007), along with the number of aggregate survey occurrences of each cluster, appear in Table 2. Although the Anglo cluster (the basis for the homogeneous group) was the largest cluster and contained 330 zero or one-variation surveys, overall there were 57 surveys with one variation, 16 with two variations, 12 with three variations, 8 with four variations, 16 with five variations, and 15 with six variations, all contained in the combined cultural diversity group. These two groups were independently regressed against transformational leadership, commitment, perceived support, UCB, and demographic factors in order to determine the degree of cultural influence on these variables.

Table 2

Culture Clusters and Membership Survey Occurrences.

Cultural Clusters	In-Survey Occurrences	Cluster Characteristics
Anglo (ANG)	2,029	competitive and results-oriented
Latin Europe (LEU)	236	value individual autonomy
Germanic Europe (GEU)	140	results-oriented, value competition, and aggressiveness
Eastern Europe (EEU)	56	forceful, supportive of co-workers, treat women with equality
Southern Asia (SAS)	30	family focused and deep concern for community
Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA)	27	high family loyalty and sensitive to others
Nordic Europe (NEU)	17	high priority on long-term success, women treated with greater equality
Confucian Asia (CAS)	7	result-driven, collective work over individual goals
Latin America (LAM)	6	loyal to family and friends
Middle East (ARB)	4	loyal to their own people, women afforded less status

Note. n = 472. Adapted from Northouse (2007).

Ethical Concerns

No known ethical concerns were associated with this study, nor perceived potential harm for respondents participating in this study. Other than the previously mentioned random drawing to encourage participation, respondents were not compensated in any way. However, as a part of both the leadership and membership survey, and in accordance with the internal review board application, a full disclosure of study and design, along with potential risks and benefits of participation, were presented. Participation in this study was completely voluntary.

Summary

This chapter outlined the methodology used in this research study, including details for participants, metrics, data collection, and statistical procedures. The study asked leaders and members of a professional, unionized Canadian pilot group to voluntarily complete a composite questionnaire intended to assess perceptions of leadership, commitment, feelings of perceived support, willingness to engage in union citizenship behaviors, and cultural affinity. By utilizing well-established metrics, a research model was established to determine whether perceptions of leadership are influenced by cultural affinity and whether the presence of transformational leadership can be used as predictor for higher levels of perceived support, union member commitment, and positive union citizenship behavior (see Figure 3).
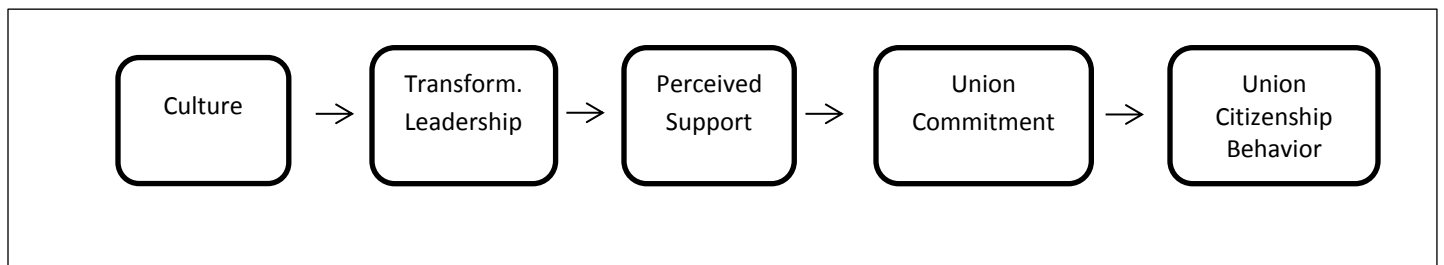
Figure 3. Culture and Transformational Leadership Research Model

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

Overview

The principal purpose of this study was to examine the extrapolative relationship between the presence of transformational leadership, commitment, perceived support, union citizenship behavior, and the effect that culture has on this process by examining the leadership styles of union leaders and members of a unionized Canadian airline pilot group. The results of this analysis were evaluated alongside study participants' stated degree of cultural affinity and subsequently compared to established cultural dimensions. The theoretical model used in this research was the transformational leadership model, examining the leadership behaviors of the union leaders based on the leadership factors of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, management-by-exception, and contingent reward.

Four research were questions associated with the study. The first research question endeavored to detect via self-report the character of the union leaders' leadership style compared to their perceptions of their leadership style. The second research question examined the relationship between the union members' perception of their union leaders' leadership style and their union leaders' reported perceptions. For the third research question, the relationship between perceptions of leadership and the level of member commitment, perceived support, participation in the union process, and positive discretionary citizenship behaviors was considered. The fourth and final question in this study sought to determine if perceptions of leadership, commitment, perceived support, and citizenship behaviors are influenced by indicated cultural affinity.

Several null and alternate hypotheses were tested to answer each of the four research questions. Following careful collection and utilizing established metrics along with Microsoft

Excel and Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), studies one and two (leadership and membership respectively) examined whether a relationship exists between the leadership styles of union leaders perceived by union members as support and the level of union members' commitment; and whether such a relationship leads to an increased incidence of union citizenship behavior (UCB). Correlational analysis was used to evaluate the hypotheses, and the Pearson product correlational coefficient (R) was used to assess the relationship between leadership style and member satisfaction, commitment, and union citizenship behavior (positive or negative). The independent samples t test was also employed to further examine the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership scores, and outcome on commitment, satisfaction, and UCB. Regression analysis was incorporated to analyze the correlations and relationships between variables, which also vetted the null hypotheses. A comparison of the correlations in the first two studies led to a rejection of the H1 null and H2 null hypotheses and the conclusion that there is a significant relationship between the leadership style of union leaders and members' commitment and perceived support from their leaders. However, the H3 null was not rejected, as organizational commitment and perceived support appeared to fully mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and UCB, thus rejecting instead the H3 alternate. The third study utilized the variables of transformational leadership, organizational commitment, perceived support, and UCB along with demographic items including gender, age, years in the airline industry, years with current airline company, and years as a member in the union in conjunction with a homogeneous cultural cluster and a culturally diverse cluster to examine the impact of cultural influence. This analysis led to the rejection of all alternate hypotheses (H4–H7) and the acceptance of all null hypotheses.

General survey environment. At the time of the survey, 1,441 pilots were employed by the air carrier in various capacities and statuses. The primary employment activity for the majority of these pilots is flying passenger operations for the air carrier. Of the 1,441 pilots, 145 were on short- or long-term disability or worker's compensation, while 19 pilots were on some general form of leave of absence, and three pilots were on maternity leave. There were also nine supervising pilots and 55 training department pilots, along with 15 pilots serving in management positions. All but the 15 management pilots would have had access to the survey along with notifications and requests to complete it, resulting in a total survey population of 1,426 pilots. Consequently, 602 surveys needed to be completed in order to achieve a 99% confidence level with a confidence interval of four. There were 620 surveys completed, including the 19 surveys completed by pilot union leaders. The 19 completed union-leader surveys represent 100% participation by the union leadership core. Although a membership response rate of 15% is in line for union attitudinal studies, this survey managed to generate a response rate of approximately 43% (Hoell 2004; Kelloway & Barling 1993). According to 2014 figures supplied by the ALPA Economic and Financial Analysis Department, this percentage generally parallels ALPA-issued pilot membership surveys, typically generating response rates around 40% of targeted pilot populations. Phase one began on October 30, 2013. Phase two began approximately two weeks later on November 15, 2013. Phase three began on February 17, 2014, following survey closure on February 9, 2014.

Demographics

The average time taken by the 19 members of the leadership core to complete the leadership version of the survey including the MLQ 5x self-rate portion was 14:54 minutes. The membership group took an average of 11:54 minutes to complete the slightly shorter

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membership version including the MLQ 5x rater portion. Of the respondents overall, 92.3% reported being male (7.7% female), with an average reported age of 41 years old; 1.9% reporting younger than 25 years and 17.3% reporting older than 55 years. Nearly 87% of respondents reported postsecondary education, with 3.4% having obtained a graduate level degree. Of the respondents, 41.4% reported being currently married, 49.8% single, and 8.8% divorced. Although 5 respondents preferred not to disclose race, 96.7% reported being Caucasian, 0.66% indigenous or aboriginal, 1.5% Asian or Pacific Islander, and 1.1% consider themselves multiracial. Regarding military service, 9.6% reported having served in the military, though only 3.3% of these asserted that their service was associated with aviation.

Primarily a result of organizational design, the leadership group is composed of seven first officers and 12 captains, with a pair of each representing one of the five pilot work bases (Vancouver, Toronto, Calgary, Montréal, and Halifax), composing the associated Local Executive Council along with an elected secretary-treasurer. These LEC members serve with four elected Master Executive Council officers, making up the leadership core otherwise known as the MEC. This leadership group reported average company longevity of 8.4 years, with average industry longevity of 18.3 years. They also reported an average 6.5 years' experience in a union leadership position (see Table 3).

Reporting by base, 33% of the membership group indicated being based in Toronto, 21% in Calgary, 21% in Montréal, 8% in Halifax, and 17% in Vancouver. Based on the number of pilots assigned to each work domicile, a local membership participation rate of 36% in Toronto, 46% in Calgary, 29% in Montréal, 94% in Halifax, and 41% in Vancouver was achieved; this equates to 14%, 9%, 9%, 3%, and 7% of total pilot group participation respectively. The average company longevity for the membership group was 11.3 years and an industry longevity average

of 18.5 years (see Table 4). The membership group reported that 45% were first officers and 55% were captains, with an average 14.3 years of union membership, with the average pilot having attained more than 10,000 hours of total flight time. Of the entire pilot group, 35.1% reported commuting to work, while 64.9% indicated commuting was not necessary for them to get to work. In general, these numbers correspond to those reported by Bennett (2006, 2011) and other associated sources.

Table 3

Leadership Demographics

Variable	M	SD
Gender	1.00	.00
Age	3.44	.89
YII	18.55	8.36
YWC	14.66	7.68
YIU	14.72	7.66
YUO	6.72	8.62

Note. $N = 19$. YII = years in industry; YWC = years with company; YIU = years in union; YOU = years as a union officer.

Table 4

Membership Demographics

Variable	M	SD
Gender	1.08	.26
Age	3.53	.94
YII	18.60	9.57
YWC	14.61	8.72
YIU	14.23	8.15

Note. $N = 453$. 7.7% reported female, 92.3% male. Average age is 41 y/o. YII = years in industry; YWC = years with company; YIU = years in union.

Culture and heritage aspects. In addition to the interchange of the terms *culture* and *heritage* in the survey, the term *ethnic* was also used, chiefly pertaining to food, activity, and social groups. According to Peoples and Bailey (2010), ethnicity or an ethnic group is a social set of people sharing cultural traditions, homeland, history, language, religion, ceremonies, cuisine, and attire. Culture indicates the "set of distinctive spiritual, material, intellectual and emotional features of society . . . ways of living together, value systems, traditions and beliefs" resulting from shared experiences and conveyed through age generations (United Nations, 2009); while heritage is the breadth of inherited traditions, practices, monuments, objects, and culture, including current activities, connotations, and conduct as a result of this inherited influence (University of Massachusetts, n.d.).

Of the 620 respondents, 64.3% consider themselves Canadian and believe this to be their sole or primary cultural heritage. Yet, 12.6% claimed to be first-generation Canadian with strong ties to their country of heritage, along with 7.6% of non–first-generation Canadian respondents having identified strong ties to a country of cultural heritage other than Canada. The remaining 15.5% did not designate any links to a country of cultural heritage other than Canada, though 16.3% did express an affinity for being Québécois. Four respondents associated themselves with an Acadian cultural heritage, and a single respondent specified a link to Cree of the First Nations. Over 92% of the respondents were born in Canada, while 7.8% were born outside of Canada. Of those born outside of Canada, residency in Canada occurred during the teen or early adult years, though several reported immigrating at a very early age. It was practically an even split with respondents' reporting family living abroad, with a positive response edging out a negative one at 50.9%. Of those pilots reporting family living abroad, 83.3% were described as extended family and 18.5% as immediate. Traveling to visit family

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living outside of Canada seemed to generally fall along a once-a-year or greater timeline, at 75.3%; or no reported visitation at all.

For those respondents who stated being married, 69.3% indicated being from the same ethnic background as their spouse, and 30.7% indicating having a spouse with a different ethnic background. These percentages corresponded almost identically with living in a neighborhood (69% of the time) where the majority of neighbors are the same ethnic background as the respondent, as well as preparing foods of identified ethnic background and associating with friends of the same ethnic origin. Regarding ethnic activities such as singing and dancing, religious ceremonies, and celebrating holidays and festivals, the respondents demonstrating an interest in associated cultural activities participated in holidays and festivals more than any other ethnic activities, counting for greater than 75% of responses. Regarding language, 79.6% of the respondents stated that English was their native language, and approximately 20% reported the ability to speak a language other than English that was linked to their identified cultural heritage. Approximately 1% spoke three or more languages associated with cultural heritage. Native languages or language proficiency, including reading and writing, connected to stated cultural heritage included Bulgarian, German, French, Czechoslovakian, Swiss-German, Polish, Bangla, Greek, Italian, Japanese, Gaelic, Slovak, Norwegian, Finnish, Spanish, Flemish, Russian, Dutch, Ukrainian, Croatian, Hindi, Punjabi, and Urdu. Overall, 54 countries, territories, or geographies were represented within the aggregate responses of this survey (see Appendix O).

Hypotheses Tested

In evaluating the two null hypotheses and alternate hypotheses, the individual factors of leadership dimensions were analyzed. Independent *t* test, Pearson's correlation, and multiple regression analysis were used to examine the relationship between seven dependent factors of

leadership style (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, contingent reward, management by exception, and laissez-faire) and three independent variables of commitment, perceived support, and union citizenship behavior. Significance was tested at α = .05, and all study variables exhibited acceptable levels of internal consistency (i.e., Cronbach's alpha). The null and alternative hypotheses tested were

H1 Null: There will be no significant difference in union members' commitment with regard to their union leaders' transformational and transactional leadership styles.

H1 Alternate: There will be a significant difference in union members' commitment with regard to their union leaders' transformational and transactional leadership styles.

H2 Null: There will be no significant difference in union members' perception of organizational support with regard to their union leaders' transformational and transactional leadership styles.

H2 Alternate: There will be a significant difference in union members' perception of organizational support with regard to their union leaders' transformational and transactional leadership styles.

H3 Null: There will be no significant difference in union members' engagement in union citizenship behavior with regard to their union leaders' transformational and transactional leadership styles.

H3 Alternate: There will be a significant difference in union members' engagement in union citizenship behavior with regard to union leaders' transformational and transactional leadership styles.

H4 Null: There will be no significant difference in union members' perception of leadership with regard to cultural heritage or cultural affinity.

H4 Alternate: There will be a significant difference in union members' perception of leadership with regard to cultural heritage or cultural affinity.

H5 Null: There will be no significant difference in union members' commitment with regard to cultural heritage or cultural affinity.

H5 Alternate: There will be a significant difference in union members' commitment with regard to cultural heritage or cultural affinity.

H6 Null: There will be no significant difference in union members' perception of organizational support with regard to cultural heritage or cultural affinity.

H6 Alternate: There will be a significant difference in union members' perception of organizational support with regard to cultural heritage or cultural affinity.

H7 Null: There will be no significant difference in union members' engagement in union citizenship behavior with regard to cultural heritage or cultural affinity.

H7 Alternate: There will be a significant difference in union members' engagement in union citizenship behavior with regard to cultural heritage or cultural affinity.

Study One

The first embedded study of this research project focused on the leadership group and their perceptions of personal leadership style as well as perceptions of the overall leadership style, commitment, support, and UCB. Before beginning the full analysis of the leadership

group, an independent *t* test was used to assess the significance between the mean responses of the two independent study samples (leader and member) relating to the MLQ and perceptions of leadership style (Hair et al., 2010). The results of the *t* test (.86) demonstrated that the self-report indication of union leaders in the first study is not significantly different from the perception held by the membership regarding leadership style found later in the second study. In other words, the leaders are behaving in the same manner in which the membership perceives them to be.

Factor analysis. Factor analysis reduces a larger set of variables to a smaller, usable set of factors that can be used to explain a large percentage of total variability (Hair et al., 2010). Scree plots were reviewed prior to entering leader study variables into an exploratory factor analysis model. Due to cross-sectional design and the use of self-report data collected during the first study, i.e., the self-rate portion of the MLQ 5x, common method variance was evaluated by conducting Harman's one-factor test (Avolio, Yammarino, & Bass,1991; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). The oblimin oblique rotated principal component analysis revealed the existence of three distinct components containing eigenvalues greater than .30, with no single factor emerging from the factor analysis, nor accounting for the majority of covariance across the variables. Therefore, multicollinearity seemed unlikely to interfere with interpretation of the results.

The succeeding confirmatory factor analysis considered the structure fundamental to the leadership responses in the leader data set. Transformational leadership (TL) and transactional leadership (TA) self-rate mean scores were used in conjunction with mean scores for perceived support (PS), organizational commitment (OC), and union citizenship behavior (UCB) and were ultimately utilized in order to avoid initially observed excessive cross-loading. The MLQ factor laissez-faire leadership was eliminated from final analysis because it did not contribute to factor

structure and failed to meet a minimum criteria of having a primary factor loading of .40 or

above, and no cross-loading of .30 or above (Tabachnick & Fidel, 1996).

In the context of this study, evidence of internal structure was provided with TL and TA

both loading on Factor 1 and each subsequent variable fully loading on the next sequential factor.

The principal component procedure was used to extract the factors from the variable data and

Kaiser's rule was applied to determine which factors were most eligible for interpretation. The

factor matrix is presented in Table 5. The first two factors (TL and TA) accounted for 68% of

total variance; and TL accounted for a majority of the variance at 43%. Initial analysis showed

that the single-factor model did not fit the data well, resulting in forcing the data into a four-

factor model. Additionally, from these data and the high cross-loading, the TL and TA self-rate

averages were combined into a single MLQ construct including both leadership subscales for

further analysis.

Table 5

Factor Matrix, Leadership Data

Variable	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
TL SR ave	.91			
TA SR ave	.84			
PS ave		.98		
OC ave			.99	
UCB ave				.99

Note. $N = 19$. Abbreviations: TL SR ave = MLQ self-rate transformational leadership average; TA SR ave = MLQ self-rate transactional leadership average; PS ave = perceived support average; OC ave = organizational commitment average; UCB ave = union citizenship behavior average. Extraction method: Principal component analysis.

Transformational leadership and augmentation effect. During the principal component analysis, the loading of transformational and transactional leadership components on a single factor, coupled to a high degree of correlation, provided the justification for utilizing a combined mean MLQ factor for use in regression analysis. Additionally, the augmentation effect, implied by Bass (1985) that a leader is only transformational to the extent that the transformational behaviors augment transactional behaviors, was apparent while regressing TL and TA and perceived support (PS). The linear regression of TA and PS employing an enter method produced an adjusted R^2 of .23 and was significant at .00 ($F\Delta$). When TL was added to the regression, there was a 30 percent increase in the adjusted R^2 to .55, and the model remained significant at .00 ($F\Delta$). Although TL and TA are typically correlated to around .80, this lower result is suggestive of the prospect that the pilot group is actively distinguishing between TL and TA; however, this could also be a result of artifact and the utilization of only three measures of each subconstruct (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

Correlation testing. Linear relationships between two variables are examined by conducting correlation testing. Study one used the Pearson's correlation coefficient (p) to search for patterns of association between variable pairs, including combinations of transformational and transactional leadership and satisfaction, commitment, perceived support, and UCB. Person scores closer to 1.0 indicate stronger relationships, and negative correlations depict inverse ones. Because of high loading of TL and TA on a single factor coupled to an extensive degree of correlation, all transformational and transactional leadership factors for leadership (study one) and membership (study two) data sets were combined into a single mean MLQ construct (MLQ ave) for comparison against perceived support, organizational commitment, and union citizenship behavior. Table 6 indicates the number of significant correlations at $p < .05$. This

table also shows that although the standard deviations are smaller than their respective means, the standard deviation for PS stands out as considerably larger than the other variables. Correlations were computed for the four study constructs on the 19 members of the leadership group. Results indicated that excepting the significance between OC and PS, no significant relationships were observed, despite acceptable to excellent internal consistency. In general, the results suggest that OC and PS are more positively related to perceptions of leadership than leadership style itself.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for All Study Variables, Leadership Data

Variable	*M*	SD	MLQ ave	PS ave	OC ave	UCB ave
MLQ ave	5.45	1.05	(.91)			
PS ave	3.59	1.35	.30	(.93)		
OC ave	5.24	.83	.06	.55*	(.88)	
UCB ave	6.43	.59	.38	−.04	.19	(.78)

Note. $N = 19$. Abbreviations: MLQ ave = combined mean transformational and transactional leadership score; PS ave = perceived support average; OC ave = organizational commitment average; UCB ave = union citizenship behavior average. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$ level (2-tailed). Cronbach α on the diagonal.

Regression analysis. Following correlation testing, multiple regression analysis was used to examine a combined dependent transformational and transactional leadership variable (MLQ Ave) along with perceived support, organizational commitment, and union citizenship behavior as predictor variables. The coefficient of determination (R^2) value describes the proportion of variance of the dependent variable's mean that may be ascribed to the independent

variables, and the beta or standardized regression coefficient providing for a direct comparison between coefficients delivering explanatory power to the dependent variable. Although multiple regression analysis was attempted several times and despite a positive goodness of fit test ($x^2 =$ 393.5, $p = .00$), the leadership model did not hold. The raw leadership data was reviewed for flaws as well as an appraisal of the corresponding survey for any reverse coded items, but no such discrepancies were found to exist. The result is either a confounded data set or the possibility that the leadership group is not exhibiting any form of halo effect. As a consequence, the leader data was not amalgamated into the third study for the assessment of cultural influence.

Study Two

The second embedded study in this research project focused on the membership group. The survey issued was identical the leadership survey minus the MLQ 5x leader self-rate portion. As with the first study, scree plots were reviewed prior to entering study variables for the membership into an exploratory factor analysis model. The resulting factor analysis matrix is displayed in Table 7. Utilizing oblimin direct oblique rotation, the principal component analysis for the membership group revealed the existence of four distinct factors containing eigenvalues greater than .30, while suppressing values <.60, resulting in no single factor emerging from the factor analysis, nor accounting for the majority of covariance across the variables.

Table 7

Factor Matrix, Membership Data

Variable	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Rate TL 1				
Rate TL 2	−.83			
Rate TL 3	−.69			
Rate TA 4	−.86			
Rate TA 5	−.86			
Rate TA 6	−.64			
PS 1		.88		
PS 2		.86		
PS 3		.77		
PS 4		.84		
PS 5		.89		
PS 6		.92		
PS 7		.86		
OC 1			−.88	
OC 2			−.91	
OC 3			−.89	
OC 4			−.93	
OC 5			−.88	
UCB - I1				.73
UCB - I2				.62
UCB - I3				.76
UCB - O4				.64
UCB - O5				.77
UCB - O6				

Note. $N = 453$. Abbreviations: Rate TL = MLQ rater version transformational leadership; Rate TA = MLQ rater version transactional leadership average; PS = perceived support; OC = organizational commitment; UCB - I = union citizenship behavior (individual); UCB - O = union citizenship behavior (organization). Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Correlation testing. Study two used the Pearson's correlation coefficient to search for patterns of association between variable pairs, including combinations of transformational and transactional leadership and satisfaction, commitment, perceived support, and union citizenship behaviors. Based on the factor analysis and as was completed in the first study, all

transformational and transactional leadership factors were combined into a single mean MLQ

factor (MLQ ave) for comparison against mean scores for perceived support and organizational

commitment, along with a mean score for the combined union citizenship behavior subscales.

Table 8 indicates the number of significant correlations at $p < .05$. With the exception of the

MLQ average coming in just below a good though still acceptable internal consistency (.68), all

other averaged variables possessed good to excellent internal consistency. Complete data were

available for 458 participants. Basic descriptive statistics and values of Cronbach's alpha are

shown in Table 8.

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for All Study Variables, Membership Data

Variable	*M*	SD	MLQ ave	PS ave	OC ave	UCB ave
MLQ ave	4.51	0.89	(.68)			
PS ave	4.93	1.31	.71**	(.94)		
OC ave	4.98	1.44	.62**	.70**	(.95)	
UCB ave	4.05	1.16	.21**	.14**	.32**	(.76)

Note. $N = 458$. Abbreviations: MLQ ave = combined mean transformational and transactional leadership score; PS ave = perceived support average; OC ave = organizational commitment average; UCB ave = union citizenship behavior average. *$p < .05$. **$p < 0.01$(2-tailed). Cronbach α on the diagonal.

Regression analysis. Regression analysis was used to examine a combined dependent

transformational and transactional leadership variable (LDR) along with perceived support,

organizational commitment, and union citizenship behavior as predictor variables. Table 9

provides the summary for the R^2 statistic for the combined transformational leadership construct

(LDR), against the mean scores for UCB, commitment, and perceived support. In the third

model, the value of R^2 in this finding was .54, indicating that 54 percent of the variability of

perceived support could be explained by the mean combined leadership subscales (LDR),

therefore depicting a strong correlation between transformational leadership style and perceived

support felt by the membership. However, in model three, perceived support mediated the

relationship between UCB and transformational leadership, as UCB moved from being

significant in model one ($R^2 = .45$, $p < .001$) to insignificant in model two with the addition of

organizational commitment; yet, all three predictor variables ending up significant in the third

model with the addition of perceived support.

Table 9

Regression Analysis of Membership Data

Model	Variable	R^2	B	Std. Error	Beta	FΔ	t	Sig. FΔ	Sig.
1	LDR		3.85	.15			26.04		.00
	UCB ave	.45	.16	.04	.21	21.51	4.64	.00	.00
2	LDR		2.56	.14			17.78		.00
	UCB ave		.01	.03	.02		.40		.69
	OC ave	.40	.38	.02	.61	248.92	15.78	.00	.00
3	LDR		1.78	.14			12.79		.00
	UCB ave		.05	.03	.07		2.04		.04
	OC ave		.13	.03	.21		4.41		.00
	PS ave	.54	.38	.03	.56	157.34	12.55	.00	.00

Note. $N = 453$. Abbreviations: LDR = average of transformational and transactional leadership items from MLQ; UCB ave = union citizenship behavior average; OC ave = organizational commitment average; PS ave = perceived support average.

Membership model. Following regression analysis of the membership data and model

assessment, a multiple regression analysis was performed with transformational leadership (TL)

as the dependent variable and the demographic items age, gender, years in the airline industry, years with current airline company, years as a union member; and other predictor variables including union citizenship behavior, organizational commitment, and perceived support. Table 10 summarizes the analysis results. As can be seen in Model 1, UCB is significant ($p < 0.01$, R^2 = .04), but is rendered nonsignificant in Model 2 by the mediating effect of OC ($p < 0.01$, R^2 = .40). Unlike the initial regression analysis, where UCB is returned to significant with the addition of PS in Model 3, UCB remains nonsignificant when PS is added to the model during the multiple regression analysis ($p < 0.01$, R^2 = .58). This strongly indicates that PS is also fully mediating the relationship between TL and UCB. Therefore, it may be the case that the OC and PS are acting as moderators between TL and UCB.

Results. Correlation and regression analyses were conducted to examine the relationship between transformational leadership and demographic and predictor variables. The net result of this analysis on the respective hypotheses indicates that the nulls (H1–H3) are rejected and the alternates supported. However, due to the observed mediation effect of OC and PS on UCB, the H3 Alternate (there will be a significant difference in union members' engagement in union citizenship behavior with regard to union leaders' transformational and transactional leadership styles) is validated only to the extent that no other organizational factor resides between transformational leadership and citizenship behavior.

Table 10

Multiple Regression Analysis of Membership Model

Variables	Standard Model	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
TL				
Gender	−.07	−.07	−.05	−.04
Age	−.01	−.04	−.07	−.03
YII	−.02	−.02	.09	.07
YWC	−.14	−.13	−.00	−.01
YIU	.17	.17	−.02	−.03
UCB		.18***	−.02	.04
OC			.63***	.19***
PS				.60***
R^2	.01	.04	.40	.58
ΔR^2	.01	.03	.35	.18
Adj. R^2	−.00	.03	.37	.57
F	.65	3.17	41.87	76.91
Sig. F	.67	.00	.00	.00
Δ Sig. F	.65	15.70	262.95	195.38

Note. $N = 453$. Standardized coefficients are reported. TL = transformational leadership; YII = years in industry; YWC = years with company; YIU = years in union; UCB = union citizenship behavior; OC = organizational commitment; PS = perceived support. *$p < 0.1$; **$p < 0.05$; ***$p < 0.01$

Study Three

Utilizing the membership data set, the final embedded study in this research project was undertaken in order to assess the level of cultural influence in perceptions of leadership and organizational behavior. As indicated in chapter 3, respondents were asked to answer approximately 21 questions regarding their cultural heritage and cultural orientation. The questions included items inquiring about country of participant's birth and upbringing, parents'

country of birth and upbringing, other family living abroad, engagement in cultural activities including preparation of related food, observance of holidays or religious ceremonies, and speaking an associated language(s). Based on the heritage scale developed by Spector (2013) for use in assessing cultural biases as they relate to health care, the adapted cultural heritage scale in this study sought to assess the depth of cultural affinity and determine if this influences perceptions of transformational leadership, commitment, perceived support, and union citizenship behavior. Although the breadth of cultural diversity in the sample was impressive and interesting to review, the results did not support the alternate hypotheses, thus confirming the nulls with no significant difference in union members' perception of leadership or organizational behavior based on cultural affinity.

The membership data was divided between the homogeneous group with nil to weak cultural diversity within their responses and the cultural diversity group with moderate to strong cultural diversity. The demographics for each subset of the membership data were checked and found to remain stable and consistent with the overall data set, as shown in Tables 11 and 12. The demographic factors of years in the airline industry, years with current airline company, and years of membership in union were slightly higher in the homogeneous than in the cultural diversity group, but the other included variables—TL, OC, PS, and OCB—were consistent between the two groups.

Table 11

Homogeneous Culture Group Demographics

Variable	*M*	SD
TL ave	4.73	1.20
Gender	1.10	.260
Age	3.50	.94
YII	18.07	9.40
YWC	14.22	8.62
YIU	13.81	8.05
UCB ave	4.04	1.14
OC ave	4.97	1.43
PS ave	4.93	1.31

Note. n = 330. TL ave = transformational leadership average; PS ave = perceived support average; OC ave = organizational commitment average; UCB ave = union citizenship behavior average; YII = years in industry; YWC = years with company; YIU = years in union.

Table 12

Cultural Diversity Group Demographics

Variable	*M*	SD
TL ave	4.77	1.22
Gender	1.10	.30
Age	3.70	.97
YII	19.70	10.10
YWC	15.73	9.05
YIU	15.43	8.43
UCB ave	4.08	1.20
OC ave	5.01	1.40
PS ave	4.97	1.30

Note. n = 123. TL ave = transformational leadership average; PS ave = perceived support average; OC ave = organizational commitment average; UCB ave = union citizenship behavior average; YII = years in industry; YWC = years with company; YIU = years in union.

Regression analysis. Having previously established a testable membership model, multiple regression analysis was performed utilizing the homogeneous subgroup. Table 13 summarizes the analysis results. As can be seen in Model 1, UCB is again significant ($p < 0.01$, $R^2 = .05$) as a standalone factor with TL, but is reduced in Model 2 by the mediating effect of OC ($p < 0.01$, $R^2 = .05$). This pattern is sustained in Model 3 when PS is incorporated ($p < 0.01$, $R^2 = .61$), demonstrating again that PS is also fully mediating the relationship between TL and UCB. Therefore, there is no difference between the aggregate membership group and the homogeneous subgroup.

Table 13

Regression Analysis, Homogeneous Culture Model

Variables	Standard Model	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
TL				
Gender	−.08	−.08	−.04	−.05
Age	.03	−.01	−.02	−.01
YII	−.11	−.07	.05	.01
YWC	−.20	−.18	−.05	.03
YIU	.30	.27	−.02	−.04
UCB		.20***	−.01	.05
OC			.67***	.24***
PS				.59***
R^2	.01	.05	.50	.61
ΔR^2	.01	.04	.40	.16
Adj. R^2	−.00	.04	.44	.60
F	.86	2.99	37.61	62.53
Sig. F	.51	.00	.00	.00
ΔF	.86	13.45	232.55	130.81

Note. $n = 330$. Standardized coefficients are reported. TL = transformational leadership; YII = years in industry; YWC = years with company; YIU = years in union. *$p < 0.1$; **$p < 0.05$; ***$p < 0.01$

In the multiple regression analysis performed on the cultural diverse subgroup, UCB fails to be significant in any model (see Table 14). Model 2 demonstrates that OC is again significant ($p < 0.01$, $R^2 = .27$) but is rendered nonsignificant in the following model. In Model 3 PS is the only significant observed variable ($p < 0.01$, $R^2 = .52$).

Table 14

Regression Analysis, Culture Diversity Model

Variables	Standard Model	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
TL				
Gender	−.05	−.04	−.06	.02
Age	−.12	−.12	−.21	−.07
YII	.14	.14	.18	.02
YWC	.01	.07	.15	−.00
YIU	−.08	−.11	−.11	.07
UCB		.16	−.04	.02
OC			.53***	.10
PS				.65***
R^2	.01	.03	.27	.52
ΔR^2	.01	.02	.24	.26
Adj. R^2	−.03	−.02	.22	.50
F	.23	.66	6.00	15.64
Sig. F	.95	.68	.00	.00
ΔF	.23	2.80	36.86	61.20

Note. $n = 123$. Standardized coefficients are reported. TL = transformational leadership; YII = years in industry; YWC = years with company; YIU = years in union. *$p < 0.1$; **$p < 0.05$; ***$p < 0.01$

Although PS appears to be consistent in mediating TL, the slight difference between the aggregate membership group and the homogeneous subgroup prompted an investigation into the dissimilarity. The subsequent finding concluded that nearly half (47.8%) of the cultural diversity subgroup was composed of respondents indicating a strong cultural affinity within the Latin

European cluster (LEU), impelling an additional analysis in order to evaluate the perceptions of this cluster. According to House et al. (2004), this cluster includes the country cultures of Israel, Italy, Portugal, Spain, France, and French-speaking Switzerland. Although French cultural regions of Canada are not included in this GLOBE cluster, for the purposes of this study and based on the significance of the French influence in the development of Canada and an enduring national population identifying themselves as Québécois, Acadian, etc., the respondents in this study stipulating a French-related culture or heritage were grouped into this cluster. This treatment is consistent with the cultural dimension analysis by Hofstede et al. (2010).

A demographic evaluation of the LEU subgroup did not reveal any significant distinctions regarding the sample, although the group did seem to be slightly younger with mildly less time in the profession, industry, and union when compared against the rest of the cultural diversity group, and had a slightly lower mean score on UCB (see Table 15). When compared against the aggregate membership data, the LEU subgroup had a slightly higher mean score on OC (5.13 versus 4.98), and a slightly lower mean score on UCB than the aggregate membership group (3.98 versus 4.05).

Table 15

Latin European Cluster Demographics

Variable	*M*	SD
TL Ave	4.67	1.22
Gender	1.10	.30
Age	3.50	.830
YII	17.90	8.60
YWC	14.30	8.60
YIU	13.24	7.62
UCB ave	3.98	1.30
OC ave	5.13	1.33
PS ave	4.87	1.35

Note. $n = 60$. TL ave = transformational leadership average; PS ave = perceived support average; OC ave = organizational commitment average; UCB ave = union citizenship behavior average; YII = years in industry; YWC = years with company; YIU = years in union.

In the regression analysis of the LEU subgroup, UCB is again found not to be significant in any model (see Table 16). Model 2 demonstrates that OC is again significant ($p < 0.01$, $R^2 =$ .36), but is nonsignificant in the final model. Model 3 shows PS as the only significant observed variable ($p < 0.01$, R2 = .54). Interestingly, though, gender was significant in the standard model as well as in the first and second model, dropping off in the third.

Table 16

Regression Analysis, Latin European Cluster Model

Variables	Standard Model	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
TL				
Gender	$-.39^{**}$	$-.38^{**}$	$-.27^{**}$	$-.18$
Age	$-.27$	$-.23$	$-.23$	$-.25$
YII	.20	.21	.04	.01
YWC	.23	.18	.31	.10
YIU	$-.34$	$-.28$	$-.25$	$-.02$
UCB		.16	.14	.11
OC			$.43^{***}$	.10
PS				$.60^{***}$
R^2	.19	.21	.36	.54
ΔR^2	.19	.03	.15	.18
Adj. R^2	.11	.02	.27	.46
F	2.50	2.40	4.18	7.35
Sig. F	.04	.04	.00	.00
ΔF	2.50	1.76	18.90	19.23

Note. $n = 60$. Standardized coefficients are reported. TL = transformational leadership; YII = years in industry; YWC = years with company; YIU = years in union. $^{*}p < 0.1$; $^{**}p < 0.05$; $^{***}p < 0.01$

The conclusion of cultural analysis pertaining to leadership, organizational behavior, and the hypotheses of this study resulted in a rejection of the alternates and acceptance of the nulls (H4–H7).

Summary

This chapter presented the analysis and findings in the evaluation of leadership and perceived support, organizational commitment and behavior, along with culture and heritage within a unionized airline pilot group. Results of the data analysis divulge a statistically

significant correlation between transformational leadership and the union members' perceptions of support, and to a slightly lesser degree organizational commitment. Although it was observed in this study that union citizenship behavior is significantly correlated to transformational leadership, its significance was critically reduced with the insertion of organizational commitment and perceived support into the model. The net results from the membership study indicate that nulls H1–H3 are rejected and the alternates are supported; however, due to the observed mediation of OC and PS on UCB, the H3 alternate (There will be no significant difference in union members' engagement in union citizenship behavior with regard to their union leaders' transformational and transactional leadership styles) is validated only to the extent that no other organizational factor resides between transformational leadership and citizenship behavior.

Regarding the influence of culture and heritage on perceptions of leadership, commitment, and union citizenship behavior, the results were consistent with the outcomes prior to controlling for culture. There was no difference in perceptions of leadership style and commitment to the union, perceptions of support, or willingness to engage in positive union citizenship behaviors based on stated cultural affinity. In this final embedded study, perceived support fully mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and union citizenship behavior. Therefore, all null hypotheses (H4–H7) regarding union members' perceptions with regard to cultural heritage and cultural affinity were rejected. In all embedded studies, perceived support fully mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and union citizenship behavior.

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CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSIONAND RECOMMENDATIONS

Overview

This chapter concludes the research and contains a synopsis of the study its methodology along with links between this study and associated literature. It also reviews limitations of the study as well as conclusions and recommendations for further inquiry. This chapter closes with a review of adaptive leadership and its applicability to leading in an organized labor environment.

Summary of Research Rationale and Results

The purpose of this research was to examine the leadership styles of union leaders in the airline piloting profession. Although there have been many studies on leadership in different settings, this researcher is not aware of any specific study on transformational leadership in unionized airline pilot leaders. Moreover, the use of a Canadian pilot group with extensive multicultural links also makes this study unique. Not only are familial and geopolitical cultures a compelling aspect of this study, but the strong professional culture exhibited by airline pilots is as well. All of these dimensions were interspersed to create a composite study of leadership capable of providing insight for a number of academic and practical applications.

The issue of leadership is crucial and of great interest in many fields, but it should be of particular interest to organized labor as union density is slowly making a comeback in the West and is beginning to become more prominent in many developing countries and areas around the world. Union leaders play a key role in the socioeconomic landscape, and trade unionism in Canada and the United States has played an active role in the developmental process of these countries. U.S and Canadian trade unions have influenced economic, social, and political policies and will continue to affect the future of these and other nations. In the case of organized

labor in the airline industry, air transport is an integral component of the socioeconomic environment with substantial impact on national GDP, and the role that labor plays in these transactions cannot be reduced to a mere commodity in the supply chain. This research was structured to consider the best ways to lead and secure commitment from workers in this environment, in order to advance organizing capability and ensure committed and engaged members.

Of the 1,441 union pilot members, 620 freely completed the study surveys. From the sample returns, 453 questionnaires were found complete and usable for the membership group and 19 for the leadership group. Descriptive statistics, t test, correlational, and regression analysis techniques were employed to explore the relationship between participant responses and study constructs. The research analyzed the relationship between leadership style and organizational commitment, perceived organizational support, and union citizenship behavior. The theoretical leadership framework used in this study was based on Bass and Avolio's (2004) transformational leadership model. The premise of the cultural investigation of this research was informed by the work of cultural dimensions in Hofstede et al. (2010); the GLOBE studies by House et al. (2004); and the World Values Survey originated by Inglehart (1981). The instruments used in this research were adapted from well-established metrics including the MLQ 5x scale for transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1994); the scale for perceived organizational support (Shore et al., 1994); the organizational commitment scale (Kelloway et al., 1992); the scale for union citizenship behavior (Skarlicki & Latham, 1997); and the heritage assessment scale (Spector, 2013).

Conclusions

Research Question 1: *What is the relationship between the union leaders' self-*

assessment of leadership style and their perceptions of leadership?

This study identified the leadership characteristics of union leaders in an organized

Canadian airline pilot group as a likely appropriate mix of transformational and transactional

characteristics. The augmentation of transformational traits by transactional ones was observed

in the leadership group, thus affirming the transformational model (Bass, 1985). Though lower

than expected levels of transformational leadership were reported as compared to Bass and

Avolio's (2004) normative sample, the leadership group seemed to be self-reporting accurately

and neither overestimating nor inflating constructive aspects of their leadership style, thus

avoiding halo effect.

Research Question 2: *What is the relationship between the union members' assessment*

of their union leaders' leadership style and their union leaders' reported perceptions?

The transformational and transactional trait mix observed in the leadership group and

confirmed by the membership may is likely an extension of the profession's hierarchical culture.

This soft, military-style approach to leading a commercial flight crew in their duties and

responsibilities in passenger and cargo transport easily translates into leading pilots within the

union structure, and is tacitly understood and accepted by union volunteers as well as union

members. Overall, there appeared to be congruence between the integrity of leader reporting and

member perceptions of exhibited leadership behavior.

Research Question 3: *What is the relationship between perceptions of leadership and*

the level of commitment, perceived support, participation in the union process, and positive

discretionary citizenship behaviors?

When feelings of organizational commitment and perceptions of organizational support

were assessed, the transformational influence on the presence of citizenship behavior was

eliminated. This suggests that while it is likely that the presence of transformational leadership

behavior will peripherally elevate follower commitment to the organization and the impression

of being supported by the organization, it is not in and of itself a predictor of positive citizenship

behavior. Perceived organizational support is the extent to which individuals believe that their

organization values their participation and contributions and is interested in their well-being.

Born out of organizational support theory, perceived organizational support satiates

socioemotional needs including respect and attention, as well as tangible benefits such as wages

and benefits (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Being supported by the

organization achieves followers' needs for appreciation and affiliation, resulting in active interest

in the organization and positive engagement and commitment to the organization. Thus a

relationship exists between perceived support and commitment, with some research having

suggested that this is often an inverse relationship, typically resulting from perceived support

relating to the direct supervisor or leader, and commitment being a function of the organization

as a whole. Yet, conditions occur whereby perceived support and commitment are elevated

concurrently. The results of this study indicate that in each level of analysis, perceived support

and organizational commitment were statistically significant. Only during the analysis of the

culture diversity model did perceived support remain significant, while commitment was not,

though this only occurred in the final model with the application of perceived support. Within

this research, this suggests in general that the membership feels both supported and committed to

the local as well as the national organization. If, however, respect and appreciation begin to fail

or are not expressed sufficiently by either the local or national leadership group, then

organizational cynicism and suspicion may creep in and perceived support would likely

decrease. This scenario may also produce a reduction in commitment, and if broadly distributed

across the organization, operational performance and stability may be undermined (Lynch, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 1999).

Although the findings in this study demonstrated a strong correlation between transformational leadership and perceived support and to a slightly lesser degree organizational commitment, correlation does not equal causality, and these relationships should be investigated further. While disparate views on the relationship between leadership style and union commitment exist, the outcomes in this study support the supposition that the factors affecting union commitment and positive citizenship behavior are multidimensional. It also supports other research that has demonstrated a mediating effect between perceived support and transformational leadership, and might in fact suggest a moderating effect between organizational commitment and perceived support on transformational leadership. This, then, would suggest that union members may be willing to engage in union citizenship behaviors irrespective of leadership style, provided they feel supported by their leadership and possess some level of affective, continuance, or normative commitment. However, there is certainly a need to further research this effect in other trade unions, white- and blue-collar, in order to substantiate these findings.

Research Question 4: *What is the relationship between perceptions of leadership and cultural affinity?*

Perhaps the most significant outcome of this study, however, is the acceptance of all null hypotheses related to cultural influence on union members' perceptions of leadership and organizational behavior. After splitting the membership data set into culture clusters by reported cultural heritage and cultural affinity, the survey results did not indicate a significant influence on perceptions of leadership or organizational behavior by culture. It is possible that

professional culture is overriding cultural and heritage aspects in this study that would otherwise influence these perceptions; or it may simply be that culture and heritage are not a factor in the interplay between leadership and organizational commitment and behavior. The latter, however, seems unlikely as other extensive research has demonstrated, and an alternative explanation may parallel Bass's (1997) assessment of transformational leadership across cultures in stating that leadership is a universal phenomenon, affected by the culture and organization in which it materializes. It is not a question of whether leadership exists across cultures and impacts perceptions of support along with feelings of commitment and behavior, but rather what styles or forms of leadership action within different cultures are the most appropriate and positively reflect the values of the culture. Therefore, while the transformational effect may be a universal positive, the individual traits or techniques utilized to be perceived as such are culturally contingent.

Culturally endorsed implicit theories of leadership assert that people across cultures hold fundamental expectations, stereotypes, and beliefs regarding what makes a good leader, and one of the results of the GLOBE studies was an inventory of universally endorsed as well as culturally contingent desirable and undesirable leadership traits (Den Hartog et al., 1999; Javidan et al., 2006). Based on the premise that leader effectiveness is contextual, the GLOBE studies revealed that a universally exceptional leader is envisaged to be encouraging, motivational, communicative, energetic, and sagacious, along with purposeful, honest, and intelligent. Universal attributes considered as hindrances to successful and desirable leadership include being recalcitrant, callous, and authoritarian, with the dictatorial leader possessing the most collectively adverse connotations (Den Hartog et al., 1999). Culture-specific leader attributes asserted by GLOBE and Hofstede et al. (2010) include risk taking, ambition, modesty,

authenticity, sensitivity, and compassion, contributing to positive perceptions of leader performance in some cultures though not others. Moreover, it is the specific execution and degree of these behaviors that vary from culture to culture in proportion to leadership value (Den Hartog et al., 1999; Hofstede et al., 2010; House et al., 2004; Javidan et al., 2006). For example, a low-power distance culture such as Norway may encourage participatory decision making, which is a transformational trait; however, in a high-power distance culture such as Slovakia, the approach to decision making is likely to take a more directive form, though the leader may still be viewed as transformational. Bass (1997) states that "Indonesian inspirational leaders need to persuade their followers about the leaders' own competence, a behavior that would appear unseemly in Japan" (p. 132). Therefore, an encouraging and motivational leader in one culture may employ different mechanisms in these processes than an encouraging and motivational leader from a different culture. Likewise, a communicative leader is universally important, but the messaging and packaging of this communication will likely vary from culture to culture. Even where transformational behavior is deemed a positive aspect of leadership style, this does not preclude variances in the manner in which these traits are exercised across cultures. Thus returning to Bass (1997), who concluded that a predilection for transformational leadership is present in many cultures and produces positive outcomes in a majority of them; however, it is enacted in different ways in different cultures.

Returning to the results of this study, although the data suggest on the surface that there is no significant difference in perceptions of leadership, perceived support, organizational commitment, and citizenship behavior, in actuality culture and heritage have influenced perceptions of leader style, but it is the context that must be compared in order to observe and understand the cultural contrasts. This leadership group's mix of transformational and

transaction traits is positively regarded by the membership. It appears that the membership group is willing to engage in discretionary participatory union-related behavior and be committed to the organization because they feel supported by their leadership group and the pilots union in general. On an individual and cultural heritage basis, the favorable view of leader behavior may vary, resulting in decreasing or increasing commitment and perceived support, but the inclusive perception of the group remains the same. An appropriate caution for future studies evaluating the nature of leadership—e.g., global, transformational—is that it should not be expressly assumed that a cultural bias does not exist in these evaluations and it should in fact be anticipated that perceptions of leadership will be influenced by cultural proclivities. This logically follows because views about leadership reveal cultural ideals and standards, and asking people to assess or define the attributes of a leader is akin to having them describe their culture. Figure 4 revises the research model to an outcome model, reflecting the findings of the three embedded studies.
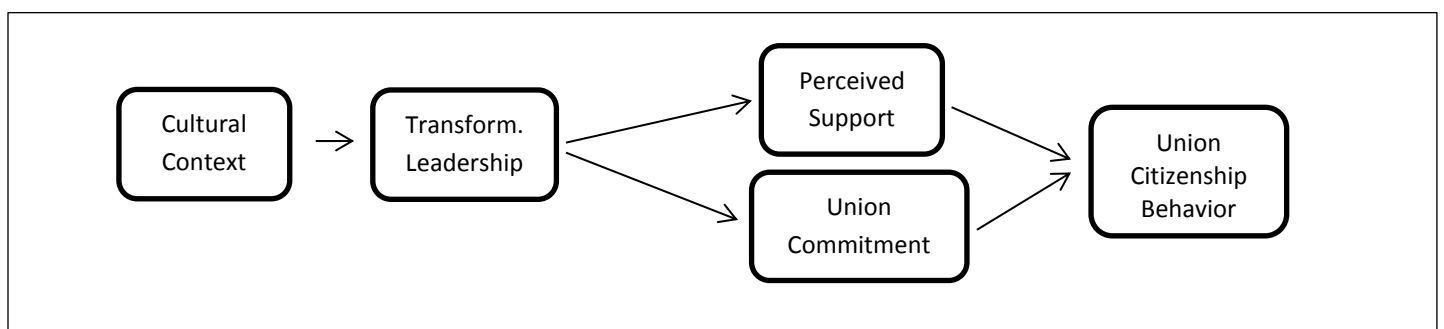

Figure 4. Cultural Context and Transformational Leadership Outcome Model

A final note on the conclusions drawn from this study involves findings from the secondary investigation of the cultural diverse membership subgroup during the third study. In

the regression analysis of the Latin European (LEU) subgroup, dominated largely by a French cultural orientation, union citizenship behavior was not revealed to be significant in any tested model (see Table 16). In fact, perceived support was the only statistically significant observed variable in the analysis. Although the following supposition would need to be investigated further, it is conceivable that the relatively feminine-leaning French culture represented in the LEU subgroup is placing a higher premium on the supportive characteristics of leadership than the homogenous subgroup.

In the cultural dimension studies by Hofstede et al. (2010), the societal masculinity continuum runs between a high compulsion for competition, achievement and success at one end of the index, and the opposite feminine end of the scale focusing on caring and support for others and quality of life. On the zero to 110 index, Canada rates 52 on the masculinity dimension (United States 62, United Kingdom 66, Slovakia 110) and can be categorized as a moderately masculine society. Although Canadians work hard and possess high standards of performance, the overall cultural tenor is more passive with regard to success when compared to the US, along with a greater focus on work-life balance. With a score of 43, France (Québec 45, Sweden 5) possesses a slightly greater feminine culture than Canada in general, exhibited by its extensive welfare structure (Securité Sociale), shorter than Western-average work week (35-hours), generous vacation periods, and a significant focus on quality of life. Yet, the French culture is inimitable in that the upper class scores dimensionally feminine while the working class scores more culturally masculine. On the whole, this suggests the possibility that the Québécois nature of the LEU segment of the pilot participants in this study place greater emphasis on the supportive qualities of their leadership group. See Table 17 for the fundamental differences between masculine and feminine societies in the workplace, as reported by Hofstede et al.

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(2010).

Table 17

Key differences between feminine and masculine societies in the workplace

Masculine Traits	Feminine Traits
Management as manége: decisive and aggressive	Management as ménage: intuition and consensus
Resolution of conflict by letting the strongest win	Resolution of conflicts by compromise and negotiation
Rewards are based on equity	Rewards are based on equality
Preference for larger organizations	Preference for smaller organizations
People live in order to work	People work in order to live
More money is preferred over more leisure time	More leisure time is preferred over more money
Careers are compulsory for men, optional for women	Careers are optional for both genders
There is a lower share of working women in professional jobs	There is a higher share of working women in professional jobs
Humanization of work by job content enrichment	Humanization of work by contact and cooperation
Competitive manufacturing and bulk chemistry	Competitive agriculture and service industries

Source: Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov (2010). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind*, Table 5.5.

Study Limitations

There are a few limitations in this study to consider. The first is the sole use of white-collar workers with a highly specialized skill set. Although the study does add to the body of knowledge regarding the impact of transformational leadership on professional unionized workers, this is nonetheless a group that may not be easily generalizable. Moreover, airline unions are closed shops, meaning membership in the union is not an option; consequently, strong feelings about forced association may negate perceptions of union leadership.

Because of the use of self-report metrics, another potential limitation is that self-report data could have produced correlation inflation as a result of common method bias, resulting in Type 1 or Type 2 errors. Although Harman's one-factor test and confirmatory factor analysis were conducted without producing any evidence of multicollinearity and method bias, it does not fully mitigate the possibility of this interference (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

The possibility of a of a confounded leader data set created a limitation and prevented this segment of the collected data from being included in the cultural influence study, but did not impact statistical significance or power within this third embedded study. Had the leadership data been included in the cultural analysis, this set would have contributed to the homogeneous group, as the leader group reported 100 percent in the Anglo cluster. Although the cause for the assumed confounded leader data is uncertain, it is possible that the use of the MLQ 5x and the limited number of transformational and transactional subscale items (three each) used to create the rater version of the survey were insufficient to allow the model to hold together. In the interest of having the participants complete the minimum number of questions possible, the culling of the leadership components could have manufactured this issue. However, when the mean leadership scores of the leadership group from this study were compared against Bass and

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Avolio's (2004) normative sample, the findings from this study's leadership group represent half the expected normative value. It is therefore plausible that the leadership was not overestimating the constructive characteristics of their leadership style and that the somewhat soft military-style hierarchical approach typically found on a commercial flight deck easily translating to union leadership practices may have induced an even distribution between transformational and transactional traits resulting in no outstanding factor to model off of. Further, this also suggests that the lack self-report inflation did not result in any form of halo effect, also potentially eliminating a foundation for a regression model to work off of.

Another limitation in this study is the manner in which the membership data was split in order to assess cultural affinity. Though the culture clustering technique utilized in this study was based on methodology employed by the GLOBE studies and cultural dimensions by Hofstede et al. (2010), the distinction between a homogenous and cultural diverse group was an informed decision made in order to divide the data into two measurable and comparable sets. The distinction between nil to weak and moderate to strong cultural affinity was subjective determination and its validity should be considered further in research in order to avoid being construed as a potential limitation as it is in this study.

Lastly, as indicated by Twigg et al. (2008), dual commitment is another area of concern for this study. The nature of the organized labor environment suggests that commitment to the union may be diluted by employer actions. A company satisfying employee need for support, trust, and self-esteem may arrogate the effects of union leadership and attempts to increase union participation or stimulate extra-role behavior. In fact, industry examples of this condition are observable at U.S. air carriers such as Southwest and SkyWest, and until recently JetBlue as

well. Therefore, future research should incorporate some measure to evaluate perceived organizational support of the employer.

Recommendations for Future Research

While a considerable amount of research has been completed in the area of transformational leadership and organizational citizenship behavior, it has largely been conducted in nonunion settings. Although studies by Skarlicki and Latham (1996, 1997) and others have evaluated these theories in organized labor settings including teachers and nurses unions, there remains very little research overall and even less with the specifically defined union citizenship behavior (Hammer et al., 2009; Hastings, 1996; Kezar & Eckel, 2002; Tomey, 2009). Moreover, future research should evaluate unionized labor in the white-collar sector more closely in order to determine if blue-collar findings may be generalized to nonindustrial trade associations. Regarding generalizability and as suggested by Adegboyega (2010), another area for prospective investigation is considering whether the antecedents and mediators of UCB differ across cultures as well as any differences between organized labor groups working for public versus privately held companies. Additionally, because of the mediating effect of perceived support and to a lesser extent organizational commitment on transformational leadership and union citizenship behavior in this study, a more detailed look at this interaction should be considered. As well, the mediation effect of PS on TL and the possibility that PS and OC are actually moderators between TL and UCB should also be reviewed.

Longitudinal studies should also be incorporated into future research designs in order to assess the career-spanning implications of membership dynamics and union leadership. Some researchers have indicated that union members are only committed to the organization based on union instrumentality, while others have stipulated that union leader commitment to member

welfare is paramount, and yet others have suggested a combination of both care and concern and instrumentality. A meta-analysis may be appropriate to flesh out these realities and determine if the importance of transformational behaviors are more significant during particular periods in union membership, with instrumentality playing a more central role during other periods.

As indicated by Twigg et al. (2008), the nature of covenantal relationships and their relevance to union member commitment should also be further explored. Factors that influence covenantal relationships, such as union prestige and the social value of membership, should be probed and evaluated in conjunction with the supportive nature of transformational behaviors. In fact, in the analysis completed by Twigg et al. (2008), the weakest determined relationship was between transformational leadership and union citizenship behavior. This outcome should be vetted, and, if verified, a greater understanding of the intervening relationships will become even more important.

Globalization and Considerations for Leading Organized Labor Groups

Although the term *globalization* has emerged as a popular way of describing the expansion and increasing connection between worldwide production, communication, and technology resulting in the intertwining of economic and cultural activity, it is a pervasive process always running parallel with human development, constantly altering the way we understand, experience, and accept localness (Bayly, 2004; Bell, 2003; Hopkins, 2002; Mendenhall, 2008). And while the concept of technology, thought, and tradition transmission is not new in and of itself, the outcome of this persistent process is the continual need to recognize and redefine the challenges faced by those who build, manage, and lead in this paradigm (Mulgan, 1998; Wells, 2001). Over the last several decades, scholars have recognized that the progression and pace of the globalization process has created challenges to managing and

leading for all participants in this process. This likely is a result of extant theories of organizing

and leading that have been informed by capturing those techniques working well in domestic

administration and execution, yet less so in the given cultural or even multicultural environment

(Adler, 2001; Ghoshal & Westney, 2005; Osland, 2008). Accordingly, new practices and

concepts may be needed in order to instill effective transnational leadership, whether running a

multinational corporation or managing the labor that makes it possible to compete globally.

Although not previously reviewed in this dissertation, the following discussion considers how

leadership skills may be paired with an adaptive decision-making process to serve as an

efficacious platform for leading and managing globally integrated enterprises, where political

borders no longer confine organizational thinking (Palmisano, 2006).

Leading globally is qualitatively different, demanding competencies apart from those

required at a domestic level in order to "inspire and influence the thinking, attitudes, and

behavior of people from around the world" (Adler, 2001, p. 76; Osland, 2008). It requires a mix

of intellectual, psychological, and social capital enabling an individual to successfully influence

persons from disparate backgrounds or cultures. It necessities new leadership aptitudes, such as

Chin, Gu, and Tubbs's (2001) Global Leadership Competency Model, as a developmental path to

effective global leadership though intellectual, emotional, and cultural intelligence in order to

navigate the unique complexity of a global environment (Earley & Ang, 2003). Mendenhall

(2008) suggests that global leaders are people stimulating substantial constructive change in

organizations by "building communities through trust and the arrangement of organizational

structures and processes . . . under conditions of temporal, geographical and cultural complexity"

(p. 17). Yet, as global organizations become increasingly more flat, culturally diverse, and

borderless, the more complex and decentralized organizational decision making becomes. This

inherently increases the amount of risk, instability, and uncertainty that is generated with every strategic decision. Rhinesmith (2010) describes this as the perfect leadership storm of complexity, diversity, and uncertainty. And in a global economy, rife with political and regulatory uncertainty, coupled to an overwhelming flow of data and information, it may not be enough for leaders to possess a global mind and skill set. In fact, as with conventional leadership theories going back decades to great man models, so to some extent has global leadership theory focused on the individual traits and skills necessary to promote organizational effectiveness in the global environment (Rønning, Espedal, & Jordahl, 2012; Suutari, 2002). Although certainly imperative, it may be that these skills should be paired with a complementary problem-solving process in order to appropriately address issues and challenges, make sound decisions, and effectively adapt to a constantly shifting environment (Dotlich, Cairo, Rhinesmith, 2009; Ghoshal & Bartlett, 1991; Suutari, 2002). Although not previously addressed in this dissertation, the coupling of a global mindset and an adaptive leadership concept such as that of Uhl-Bien, Marion, and McKelvey (2007), described as nascent "change behaviors under conditions of interaction, interdependence, complex network dynamics and tension" (p. 309) emerging from the interactions between stakeholders rather than individuals, may address the need for leadership skills and process in order to address both cultural challenges and the complexity of the global environment.

Adaptive Leadership

Whether leading domestically or globally, leadership is a complex process involving the interactions of leaders, followers, and situations (Chin & Gaynier, 2006). Although not previously discussed in this paper, the notion of leadership as a process rather than a collection of desirable individual skills, separate from authority, concisely defines the concept of adaptive

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leadership (Heifetz, Grashow, & Linsky, 2009; Heifetz, Kania, & Kramer, 2004). In the view of

Heifetz and Linsky (2002), leaders must contend with either technical or adaptive problems.

Technical problems are well defined and typically have known solutions with available experts

and knowledgeable, skillful individuals who have access to organizational resources to resolve

the issue. Adaptive problems, however, denote issues that are difficult to define and do not have

readily accessible solutions or individuals with expertise to solve them; they are often murky

issues lacking applicable narratives or metaphors (Heifetz, 2009; Heifetz & Laurie, 2001).

Moreover, when adaptive problems develop, there are usually many diverse stakeholders

affected, each in possession of their own perspective of the problem. Yet, the solutions to

adaptive difficulties are not solved by a single unit or leader but are instead born out of the

stakeholders themselves because "the problem is rooted in their attitudes, priorities, or behavior"

(Heifetz et al., 2004, p. 25). Adaptive leadership is a reflective, iterative construct capable of

sharpening observations, perceptions, and responses by observing events and looking for

patterns; interpreting observations and assigning premises regarding events and patterns; and

crafting responses and actions based on these observations and interpretations to address the

identified adaptive problem (Heifetz & Laurie, 2001; Heifetz et al., 2009). At the heart of

adaptive leadership, though, is a framework for change management built on the premise that an

organization is evolved by taking risks and questioning the status quo in order to stimulate

change (Baylor, 2011; Lowder, 2009).

     According to Heifetz et al. (2004), the leader's role in this process shifts from coming up

with an answer internally to involving all stakeholders in jointly developing a solution. The

leader assumes the role of moderator encouraging debate and creative thinking, identifying

opportunities, and considering risks or obstacles. Heifetz and Laurie (2001) describe the

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adaptive leader's actions in this change process as directing, protecting, orientating, managing conflict, and shaping outcomes. In addition, since adaptive leadership focuses on a process, not a person, this model employs the knowledge of all who have a vested interest in moving the organization to a higher level, and it affords a framework for attaining employee commitment and actively contributing to pursuing and promoting solutions to challenges.

The six stages in the adaptive leadership process consider problem type and the method for addressing nontechnical problems. These stages involve identifying the challenge type, focusing attention on the problem to make stakeholders aware that change must occur, framing the issues in such a way as to sustain followers' attention, maintaining stress at a productive level to ensure continued efforts toward change, securing ownership of both the problem and solution from the stakeholders, and ensuring a secure environment by providing the necessary resources and assurance that no reprisal will occur from their efforts and experimentation with possible solutions (Heifetz & Laurie, 2001). Table 18 outlines the six stages of adaptive leadership.

By engaging followers to become active participants in the change process, adaptive leadership can create a route around restraints that have historically impeded the way change has been traditionally initiated. The need for adaptive effort manifests itself when organizations restructure, merge, expand, contract, change strategy, and realize that the values that once bore fruit become irrelevant or ineffective. Thus, adaptive challenges can only be addressed by shifting people's priorities, beliefs, customs, and commitments. This means going beyond available authoritative knowledge to "mobilize discovery, shedding certain entrenched ways, tolerating losses, and generating the new capacity to thrive anew" (Heifetz, Grashow, & Linsky, 2009, p. 7).

Adaptive leadership goes beyond instituting a certain set of behaviors, platforms, or

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policies, demanding substantial skill to interpret conditions correctly and incorporate broad leadership actions in a way that is relevant for meeting multiple and varied challenges (Yukl & Mahsud, 2010). Pertinent proficiencies to be paired with an adaptive leadership process include the ability to manage tasks and solve problems as a function of analytical intelligence; encourage "relationships, teamwork, and collaboration" and adjust to new surroundings and social situations through emotional intelligence; as well as coalescing cultural contexts and settings and functioning effectively in diverse cultural through cultural intelligence (Ang and Van Dyne, 2008; Bar-On, 2006; Earley, 2002; Goleman, 2004; Neisser et al., 1996). These competencies form the basis of competent, effective leadership and are relevant for leaders at all levels, and they are particularly important for the global leader (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2003; Yukl, 2006; Yukl & Mahsud, 2010).

Organizations across the globe are facing adaptive challenges. Societal, market, consumer, competitor, and technological change and challenges around the world are forcing organizations to rethink their values, employ new strategies, and adopt new ways of operating, including how labor groups organize and bargain for better working rules, conditions, benefits, and pay. Often the most difficult undertaking for leaders attempting to instill change is mobilizing the many individuals throughout the organization to engage in adaptive work.

Table 18

Six Stages of Adaptive Leadership

Step one	Identify problem type	Technical: everyday issues with common solutions. Adaptive: challenging, new, uncommon situations.
Step two	Focus attention	Draw attention to key issues and secure commitment from those who will help you sell the initiative. Engage those who have yet to climb on board with the change issue. Adopt the behavior you expect from others, and take responsibility for problems facing the organization
Step three	Frame the issues	Determine the time when issues must be presented to stakeholders, and focus on the opportunities such problems can provide. Employ the "discovery process"—step back and see the big picture.
Step four	Secure ownership	Sustain the conditions through which stakeholders take responsibility for problem solving. Place the work where it belongs. Challenge employees' expectations.
Step five	Manage conflict	Stakeholders with different agendas need to be aligned to achieve a higher purpose, while confronting conflict resulting from stakeholders' personal issues. This may be accomplished establishing "rules of engagement" for discussing heated issues, and defining reporting structures. Furthermore, it is often necessary to uphold the productive stress required for change to occur; especially as adaptive problems often require time to resolve.
Step six	Create a safe haven	Counterproductive measures need to be minimized by slowing paceof change when possible and by creating a secure place to discuss disparate perspectives.

Note. Adapted from Randall & Coakley, (2007), and Heifetz, Kania, & Kramer (2004).

Summary

Competitive advantage no longer resides within the geographical confines of any country, particularly the United States; today's organizational landscape is global. For many organizations, competitive advantage lies in their ability to coordinate disaggregated and globally dispersed value chains; for others, it is becoming and being recognized as a valuable resource within that respective chain. Acclimating to globalization is a constant process requiring the right skills and the right process at the right time. It means not only accepting new techniques to solve problems, but the speed at which this interlacing is transpiring, as well as the decline of geographical importance. Yet, acknowledging that this process is taking place and facing it with an open mind does not necessarily equate to understanding how to lead and capitalize on the potential synergies of this phenomenon. In order to lead globally, Hser (2005) suggested focusing on developing global citizens. Involving all stakeholders in the decision making process is a part of the path to this reality. Overall, the ability to promote cultural synergy where "various cultures working as a team can lead to multiple perspectives and more creative approaches to problems and challenges" is not only at the heart of adaptive leadership, but the key to a unified, successful, and peaceful global future (Matveev & Nelson, 2004, p.2). Conversely, failure to develop globally savvy leaders capable of adapting to the global environment and capturing cultural synergy may mean more than just lost revenue and pecuniary protectionism; it may signal the inability to secure and manage unrecoverable resources.

Whether representing workers or management, strategic leaders in organizations must all confront emerging global challenges such as the free flow of capital and labor, changing technologies, and cultural dynamics. The effects of globalization are not confined to global organizations. While corporations struggle with pricing, output quantity and quality, and

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distribution, workers struggle with the maldistribution of wealth and privilege, sustainable development, social justice, democratic governance, and international solidarity. The social change that organized labor forged in the western world during the industrial revolution and the early 20th century is undeniable. Unions built more than cars or skyscrapers, they built a robust middle class that became the bedrock of a powerful western economy; one that does not exist in most of the rest of the world. This research is but a small contributor to the discourse on motivating and securing commitment to the organization in order to increase mobilizing capability as well as shop floor efficiencies, and raise the quality of life for all workers. Thus, a heightened understanding of the nature of union leadership, and the style of leadership capable of stimulating the highest levels of quality, safety, output, and thus revenue, is important. And doing so with an eye on the global stage, makes understanding the nature of the global leader and the global follower all the more germane.

Always, it seems, the concept of leadership eludes us or turns up in another form to taunt us again with its slipperiness and complexity. So we have invented an endless proliferation of terms to deal with it . . . and still the concept is not sufficiently defined.

(Warren Bennis, 1989)

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APPENDIX A: INFORMATIONAL E-MAIL TO MEMBERSHIP GROUP

Dear ALPA Pilot,

My name is Captain Richard Swindell and I am currently completing a Ph.D. in Global Leadership with an emphasis in Organization Leadership at Indiana Tech University, in Fort Wayne, Indiana. My dissertation is entitled Transformational Leadership and Union Citizenship Behavior with a focus on understanding union members' perception of union leadership and how that leadership style impacts your willingness to participate in union activities. Additionally, I am exploring the role heritage plays in influencing leadership style and union members' perception of that particular style.

You are being asked to participate in this study in order to assist in completing my course work, and because your MEC has graciously endorsed this study as an opportunity for them to more deeply understand how to connect with you and provide the best service possible to your pilot group as its elected leaders. Although I will share the results of this study with your MEC, I will not release individual data or responses to them. This research is not affiliated with the Air Line Pilots Association and your participation is purely optional, although greatly appreciated. Additionally, your dues dollars are not supporting this study. As a doctoral candidate, I am funding this research completely on my own.

The survey you are being asked to complete will require approximately 15-20 minutes of your time. You will be asked to complete a short questionnaire regarding your perceptions of your MEC's leadership style, the extent to which you feel supported by your union, and your willingness to participate in union-related activities. This survey closes with two sections containing inquiries regarding your heritage and standard demographic-style questions in order to understand the background of your pilot group as a whole.

Please understand that I will keep all information confidential and will maintain sole

access to the data, which will be coded so that participants are not named. Survey data will be used only for drawing correlations and performing multiple regression data analysis. It will also be included in my dissertation and may be used for publication in professional journals. Again, your participation in this research is completely voluntary and there is no penalty for choosing not to participate.

I truly value your time and as a fellow line pilot I am sensitive to the many demands on your professional as well as personal time. In return for your participation, I will hold four random drawings from the participant pool awarding one of four gift cards in the amounts of $100, $50, $25, or $25 to each of the four selectees.

This survey will open on November 1, 2013 and close on December 31, 2013. If you have questions, please contact me at Richard.Swindell@alpa.org or 317-697-5113 (U.S.), or any member of your MEC. Thank you for your consideration of this request. I look forward to learning from you.

Sincerely,
Captain Richard Swindell
ALPA Pilot and Principal Investigator

APPENDIX B: INFORMATIONAL E-MAIL TO LEADERSHIP GROUP

Dear MEC Member,

My name is Captain Richard Swindell and I am currently completing a Ph.D. in Global Leadership with an emphasis in Organization Leadership at Indiana Tech University, in Fort Wayne, Indiana. My dissertation is entitled Transformational Leadership and Union Citizenship Behavior with a focus on understanding union members' perception of union leadership and how that leadership style impacts their willingness to participate in union activities. Additionally, I am exploring the role heritage plays in influencing leadership style and union members' perception of that particular style.

You are being asked to participate in this study in order to assist in completing my course work, and because your MEC has graciously endorsed this study as an opportunity to more deeply understand how to connect with your pilots and provide the best service possible to your pilot group as its elected leaders. Although I will share the results of this study with your MEC, I will not release individual data or responses to you. This research is not affiliated with the Air Line Pilots Association and your participation is purely optional, although greatly appreciated. Additionally, your dues dollars are not supporting this study. As a doctoral candidate, I am funding this research completely on my own.

The survey you are being asked to complete will require approximately 20-25 minutes of your time. You will be asked to complete a short questionnaire regarding your personal leadership style, perceptions of your MEC's leadership style, the extent to which you feel supported by ALPA, and your willingness to participate in union-related activities. This survey closes with two sections containing inquiries regarding your heritage and standard demographic-style questions in order to understand the background of your pilot group as a whole.

Please understand that I will keep all information confidential and will maintain sole

access to the data, which will be coded so that participants are not named. Survey data will be

used only for drawing correlations and performing multiple regression data analysis. It will also

be included in my dissertation and may be used for publication in professional journals. Again,

your participation in this research is completely voluntary and there is no penalty for choosing

not to participate.

This survey will open on October 30, 2013 and close on December 31, 2013. If you have

questions, please contact me at Richard.Swindell@alpa.org or 317-697-5113 (U.S.). Thank you

for your consideration of this request. I look forward to learning from you.

Sincerely,
Captain Richard Swindell
ALPA Pilot and Principal Investigator

APPENDIX C: CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

CONFIDENTIAL WHEN COMPLETED

Individual survey results will NOT be revealed to anyone except the principal investigator and only then to input the data to a database that will NOT identify the respondent.

Your response to this survey will help to develop: (1) a better understanding of leadership and the role if any culture plays in perceptions of leadership; and (2) generate information that might suggest more effective approaches to leading in a union environment. There is no right or wrong answer to these questions. Some answers may be more situational than others. Please answer to the best of your ability according to what the situation would be most of the time.

I HAVE READ THE COVER LETTER AND BY CHECKING THIS BOX, I AGREE TO

HAVE MY RESULTS INCLUDED IN THIS STUDY ☐

I DO NOT DESIRE TO COMPLETE THIS SURVEY ☐

APPENDIX D: SURVEY INTRODUCTION LETTER - MEMBERSHIP GROUP

Leadership Study

Dear ALPA Pilots:

I am a fellow ALPA pilot conducting a study to gain a better understanding of how pilot perceptions of union leadership and organizational support affect your commitment to the union and your willingness to participate in union activities. The study is also structured to compare your impressions of heritage and how culture may impact perceptions of leadership.

Your cooperation is important to the success of this study and is greatly appreciated. The survey will take approximately 15 - 20 minutes to complete. Please do not spend an inordinate amount of time on each question as your first impression is usually the best. All responses are anonymous and strictly confidential.

This survey will open on November 1, 2013 and close on December 31, 2013. Should you have any questions regarding the nature of this study, please feel free to contact me directly or any member of your MEC.

Thank you for your time.

Sincerely,

Captain Richard Swindell
Principal Investigator
317-697-5113
Richard.Swindell@alpa.org

APPENDIX E: SURVEY INTRODUCTION LETTER - LEADERSHIP GROUP

Leadership Study

Officers and Members of the MEC:

As you are aware, I am conducting a study to gain a better understanding of how pilot perceptions of union leadership and organizational support affect their commitment to the union and their willingness to participate in union activities. The study is also structured to compare your impressions of heritage and how culture may impact perceptions of leadership.

Your cooperation is important to the success of this study and is greatly appreciated. The survey will take approximately 20 - 25 minutes to complete. Please do not spend an inordinate amount of time on each question as your first impression is usually the best. All responses are anonymous and strictly confidential.

This survey will open on October 30, 2013 and close on December 31, 2013. Should you have any questions regarding the nature of this study, please feel free to contact me directly.

Thank you for your time.

Sincerely,

Captain Richard Swindell
Principal Investigator
317-697-5113
Richard.Swindell@alpa.org

APPENDIX F: MLQ - LEADER FORM

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Adapted from: *MLQ Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Technical Report)* by B. M. Bass, B. Avolio, & D. I. Jung, 1995, Redwood City, CA: Center for Leadership Studies, Binghamton University, Distributed by Mind Garden.

A) PERSONAL LEADERSHIP STYLE

This questionnaire will provide a description of your leadership style. Twenty-one descriptive statements are listed below. Judge how frequently each statement fits you. The word "others" may mean your followers (non-volunteer line pilots), other members of the MEC, or MEC/ LEC committee members.

		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
2)	I make others feel good to be around me	○	○	○	○	○
3)	I express with a few simple words what we could and should do	○	○	○	○	○
4)	I help others develop themselves	○	○	○	○	○
5)	I tell others what to do if they want to be rewarded for their work	○	○	○	○	○
6)	I am satisfied when others meet agreed upon standards	○	○	○	○	○
7)	I am content to let others continue working in the same way as always	○	○	○	○	○
8)	Others have complete faith in me	○	○	○	○	○
9)	I provide appealing images about what we can do	○	○	○	○	○
10)	I let others know how I think they are doing	○	○	○	○	○
11)	I provide recognition/rewards when others reach their goals	○	○	○	○	○
12)	As long as things are working, I do not try to change anything	○	○	○	○	○
13)	Whatever others want to do is O.K. with me	○	○	○	○	○
14)	Others are proud to be associated with me	○	○	○	○	○
15)	I help others find meaning in their work	○	○	○	○	○
16)	I give personal attention to others who seem rejected	○	○	○	○	○
17)	I call attention to what others can get for what they accomplish	○	○	○	○	○
18)	I tell others the standards they have to know to carry out their work	○	○	○	○	○

19) I ask no more of others than what is absolutely essential	○	○	○	○	○

APPENDIX G: MLQ - RATER FORM

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Adapted from: MLQ *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Technical Report)* by B. M. Bass, B. Avolio, & D. I. Jung, 1995, Redwood City, CA: Center for Leadership Studies, Binghamton University, Distributed by Mind Garden.

B) MEC LEADERSHIP

This part of the questionnaire is intended to describe your MEC's leadership style, as you perceive it. Please answer all items. Judge how frequently each statement fits your MEC and mark the box most closely resembling your perception.

		Never	Very Rarely	Rarely	Occasionally	Fairly Often	Often	Routinely
20)	My MEC specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
21)	My MEC goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
22)	My MEC articulates a compelling vision of the future.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
23)	My MEC displays a sense of power and confidence.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
24)	My MEC provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
25)	My MEC discusses in specific terms who is responsible for meeting group goals.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
26)	My MEC expresses satisfaction when I meet group expectations.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

APPENDIX H: PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT SURVEY

C) PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT

Adapted from: "Validation of a Measure of Perceived Union Support," by L. M. Shore, L. E. Tetrick, R. R. Sinclair, & L. A. Newton, 1994, *Journal of Applied Psychology, 79* (6), pp. 971–977.

Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible feelings that individuals might have about ALPA, International. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
27)	ALPA strongly considers my goals and values.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
28)	ALPA considers my best interest when it makes decisions that affect me.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
29)	Help is available from ALPA when I have a problem.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
30)	ALPA really cares about my well-being.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
31)	ALPA cares about my general satisfaction at work.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
32)	ALPA shows concern for me.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
33)	ALPA cares about my opinion.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

APPENDIX I: ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT SURVEY

D) ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Adapted from: "The Construct Validity of Union Commitment: Development and Dimensionality of a Shorter Scale," by E. K. Kelloway, V. M. Catano, & R. R. Southwell, 1992, *Journal of Occupational Organizational Psychology, 65*, pp. 197–212.

This section contains statements concerning personal attitudes regarding ALPA. Please select the statement most closely matching your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
34) I talk up ALPA to my friends and colleagues as a great organization to belong to.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
35) There is a lot to be gained by being a part of ALPA.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
36) ALPA's record is a good example of what dedicated people can get done.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
37) I feel a sense of pride being an ALPA pilot.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
38) Deciding to join ALPA was a smart move on my MEC's part.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

APPENDIX J: UNION CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR SURVEY

E) UNION CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS

Describe how characteristic the following is of you. Select the statement most closely describing your level of union participation.

		Not at all characteristic of me	Hardly characteristic of me	A little characteristic of me	Moderately characteristic of me	Commonly characteristic of me	Definitely characteristic of me	Highly characteristic of me
39)	Attend union meetings and information sessions (e.g. all-pilot conference calls, crew room visits, MEC meetings)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
40)	Follow union communications (e.g. read newsletters, view website, listen to podcast)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
41)	Volunteer for union-related activities (e.g., run for local office, serve on committees)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
42)	Participate in union elections or polls (e.g. local officer elections, contract polling)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
43)	Assist fellow pilots with collective bargaining agreement issues (e.g. contract guidance, clarification)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
44)	Share pro-union views with other pilots.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

APPENDIX K: HERITAGE ASSESSMENT SURVEY

F) HERITAGE ASSESSMENT

Adapted from: *Cultural Diversity in Health and Illness*, 8th ed., by R. E. Spector, 2013, Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

[Note: Asterisks indicate either required responses or survey logic designed to reroute the participant to the next set of applicable questions.]

The next set of questions is intended to assess the strength of your identification with a traditional heritage.

45) How would you describe your heritage:

○ First generation Canadian with moderate to strong ties to my country of heritage

○ First generation Canadian without ties or less than moderate ties to my country of heritage

○ Non-first generation Canadian, with moderate to strong ties to my country of heritage

○ Non-first generation Canadian, without ties or less than moderate ties to my country of heritage

○ I am Canadian and consider this my sole or primary cultural heritage.

*46) Were you born in Canada?

○ Yes

○ No

47) What country where were you born in?

48) How old were you when you came to Canada?

---

49) What country were your parents born in?

	Mother
	Father

50) What country did your parents primarily grow up in?

| | Mother |

	Father

51) How old were your parents when they came to Canada?

	Mother
	Father

*52) Do you have family living abroad?

○ Yes

○ No

53) How would you describe your family living abroad, are they

○ Immediate family (mother, father, siblings)

○ Extended family (grandparents, aunts, uncles, cousins)

○ Other (please specify)

[   ]

54) Do you maintain contact with family living abroad?

○ Yes

○ No

55) Approximately how often do you visit family members living outside of Canada?

○ Weekly

○ Monthly

○ Once a year

○ Every other year

○ Never

○ Other (please specify)

[   ]

56) Is your spouse or partner the same ethnic background as you?

○ Yes

○ No

57) As an adult, do you live in a neighborhood where the majority of neighbors are the same ethnic background as yourself?

○ Yes

○ No

58) Do you prepare foods of your ethnic background?

○ Yes

○ No

*****59)** Do you participate in cultural activities related to your stated heritage?

○ Yes

○ No

60) Please select all the cultural activities that apply:

☐ Singing

☐ Holidays

☐ Dancing

☐ Festivals

☐ Costumes

☐ Religious ceremonies

61) Are the majority of your friends from the same ethnic background as you?

○ Yes

○ No

62) What do you consider your native language?

_____

63) Do you speak this language?

○ Yes, fluently

○ Yes, but not fluent

○ No

64) Can you read in your native language?

○ Yes, regularly

○ Yes, but prefer not to

○ No

○ Other (please specify)

_____

65) Do you consider yourself Québécois?

○ Oui / Yes

○ Non / No

66) What culture do you most closely associate with?

_____

APPENDIX L: DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY

G) DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS

This final set of questions is used to characterize your group and establish meaningful sub-groups of respondents. Characteristics such as race, ethnicity, gender, age, education, profession, occupation, income level, and marital status, are all typical examples of demographics that are used in surveys. Again, all information is strictly confidential.

67) Gender:

○ Male

○ Female

68) Age

○ 18 – 24

○ 25 – 34

○ 35 – 44

○ 45 – 54

○ 55 - 65

69) Marital Status:

○ Single, never married

○ Single, divorced

○ Married

70) Race:

○ Rather not say

○ Caucasian/White

○ African Canadian

○ Indigenous or Aboriginal Person

○ Asian/Pacific Islander

○ Hispanic

○ Latino

○ Multiracial

71) Education (Final degree):

○ Less than high school

○ High school diploma

○ Post-secondary / non-degree or apprenticeship program

○ Technical degree

○ Associate degree

○ Bachelor's degree

○ Master's degree

○ PhD degree

72) Military Experience:

○ None

○ Yes - non-officer, non-flight job

○ Yes - officer, non-flight job

○ Yes - non-officer, flight-related job (e.g. maintenance, administration)

○ Yes - officer, flight-related job (e.g. operations, intelligence)

○ Yes - officer and pilot or other cockpit role (navigator, radio intercept officer)

73) Airman designation/certification you hold:

☐ Commercial Pilot

☐ Airline Transport Pilot

☐ Instructor Pilot

☐   Other (please specify)

[   ]

74) How much time in years do you have:

[   ]   In your current seat position

[   ]   In the airline industry

[   ]   With your current company

[   ]   As a union pilot (ALPA and other)

[   ]   As an elected union officer: ——→   Note: This question does not appear in the membership version of the demographic survey

75) Where are you based:

[   ]

APPENDIX M: CULTURE CLUSTERS

Anglo:	England, Australia, Caucasian South Africa, Canada, New Zealand, Ireland, United States
Latin Europe:	Israel, Italy, Portugal, Spain, France, French-speaking Switzerland
Nordic Europe :	Finland, Sweden, Denmark
Germanic Europe:	Austria, Switzerland, Netherlands, Germany
Eastern Europe:	Hungary, Russia, Kazakhstan, Albania, Poland, Greece, Slovenia, Georgia
Latin America:	Costa Rica, Venezuela, Ecuador, Mexico, El Salvador, Colombia, Guatemala, Bolivia, Brazil, Argentina
Sub-Saharan Africa:	Namibia, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Black South Africa, Nigeria
Middle East:	Qatar, Morocco, Turkey, Egypt, Kuwait
Southern Asia:	India, Indonesia, Philippines, Malaysia, Thailand, Iran
Confucian Asia:	Taiwan, Singapore, Hong Kong, South Korea, China, Japan

(Adapted from House et al., 2004).

APPENDIX N: CULTURE CLUSTER LEADER PROFILES

Anglo: Want leaders to be exceedingly motivating & visionary, considerate of others, team-oriented & autonomous and not autocratic

Latin Europe: Leadership that is inspiring, collaborative, participative, & self-confident – but not highly compassionate

Nordic Europe: Want leaders who are inspiring & involve others in decision making – do not expect them to be concerned with status & other self-centered attributes

Germanic Europe: Effective leadership is based on participation, charisma, autonomy, but not on face saving & other self-centered attributes

Eastern Europe: A leader would be independent while maintaining strong interest in protecting their position as a leader

Latin America: Leader is charismatic/value-based but somewhat self-serving, collaborative, & inspiring

Sub-Saharan Africa: Effective leadership as caring – leaders should be inspirational, collaborative, & not excessively self-centered

Middle East: Leadership emphasizes status & face saving and de-emphasizes charismatic, value-based & group oriented leadership

Southern Asia: Effective leadership as especially collaborative, inspirational, sensitive to people's needs and concerned with status & face saving

Confucian Asia: A leader who works & cares about others but uses status & position to make independent decisions without input of others

APPENDIX O: CULTURES REPRESENTED IN THIS STUDY

Acadian (Eastern Maritime Canada)

Algeria

Angola

Antigua

Australia

Austria

Bangladesh

Belgium

Brazil

Bulgaria

Cameroon

Canada

Channel Islands

Cree (First Nations Aboriginal Canadian)

Croatia / Yugoslavia

Cyprus

Czechoslovakia / Czech Republic

Denmark

Egypt

El Salvador

England

Finland

France

Germany

Greece

Guadeloupe

Hungary

India

Iran

Ireland

Italy

Japan

Kenya

Madagascar

Martinique

Netherlands

New Zealand

Norway

Paraguay

Poland

Portugal

Quebec (French Canadian)

Russia

Scotland

Spain

Sri Lanka

St. Kitts

St. Lucia

Switzerland

Trinidad

Ukraine

United States