

Does Leadership Matter? A Multilevel Investigation of the Moderators for the Relationship Between Openness and Change-Oriented Behavior

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We present a theoretical study to investigate a special type of organizational citizenship behavior, namely change-oriented behavior. The status quo concerning the association between personality traits and change-oriented behavior reveals that although openness is a stronger predictor of change-oriented behavior than the other four personality traits, results for the relationship between openness and change-oriented behavior are still mixed. To clarify the ambiguities in the literature, we examine how transformational leadership, leader trustworthiness, subordinate propensity to trust, and subordinate unit tenure moderate the relationship between openness and change-oriented behavior.

INTRODUCTION

“Although these extrarole activities are important, we argue that they are not sufficient for ensuring the continued viability of an organization and that organizations also need employees who are willing to challenge the present state of operations to bring about constructive change.” – from Morrison and Phelps (1999, p. 403)

Early studies regarding discretionary work behaviors that are not explicitly rewarded by organization can be traced back to 1930s (Barnard, 1938). Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) has thus arguably been extensively investigated for decades. However, research interest specifically in OCB initiated from early 1980s when Organ and his colleagues coined the term “organizational citizenship behavior” to delineate aforementioned discretionary work behaviors (Bateman & Organ, 1983). Scholars’ research interest in OCB has been continually heated inasmuch as research results consistently demonstrate that OCB improves organizational effectiveness (e.g., Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Podsakoff et al., 1997; Whiting et al. 2008) and “increases the quantity and quality of work group performance, efficiency, customer satisfaction, profitability, and revenue per full time employee; and decrease customer complaints and employee turnover” (Whiting et al. 2008, p. 125). Due to aforementioned benefits accompanying with OCB, scholars begin to feel the need to reconsider the definition of a good worker because an ideal worker not only greatly fulfills job required responsibilities (i.e., task performance) but also actively participates in OCB (Bolino & Turnley, 2005).

Dating back to 1980s, Organ’s (1988) monograph defined OCB as “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization” (p. 4). He translated OCB into “good soldier

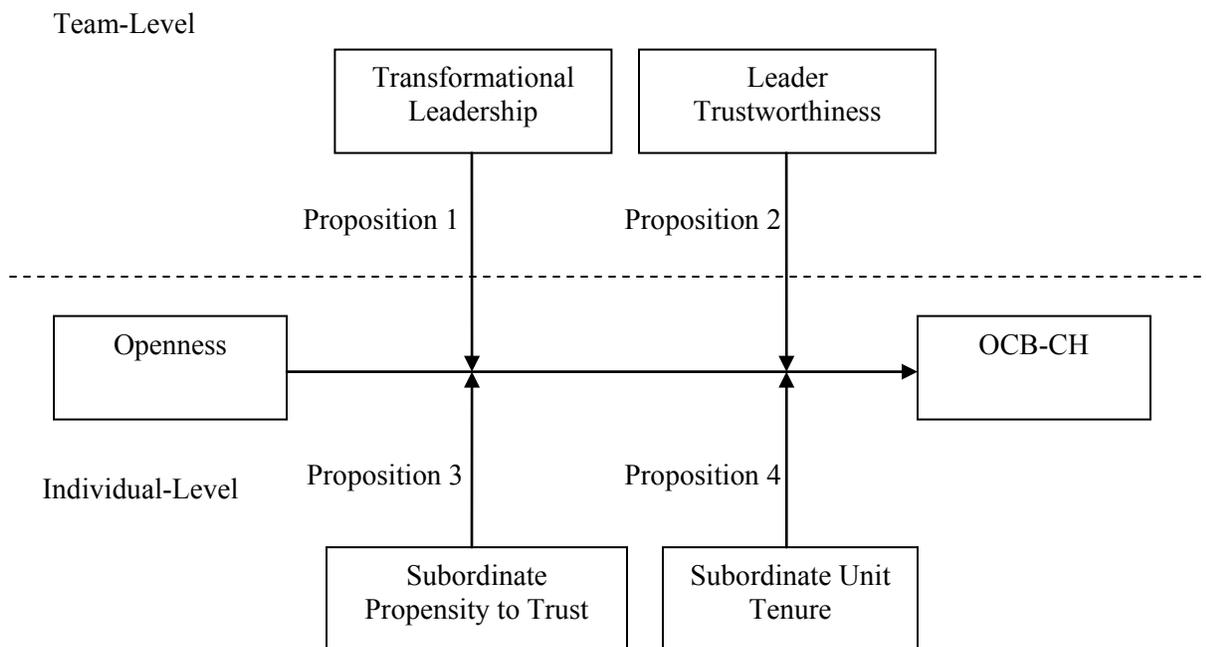
syndrome”. This “good soldier syndrome” is also known as prosocial organizational behavior (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), contextual performance (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994), and extra-role behavior (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). In light of the fact that OCB relates to performance appraisal, reward allocation, and positive organizational outcomes (Whiting et al., 2008), researchers investigated the antecedents of OCB so as to unravel the secrets regarding what factors can drive employees to engage in contextual performance (e.g., Bolino & Turnley, 2005; Ilies et al., 2009; LePine et al., 2002; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Rodell & Judge, 2009). Among different antecedents of OCB, personality is a keenly researched one (Borman et al., 2001; Chiaburu et al., 2011; Hertz et al., 2000).

Due to a fair large amount of studies published between 1990s and 2000s concerning personality as a predictor of OCB and rapidly growing popularity in conducting meta-analysis, these trends drive up scholars’ motivation to produce meta-analytic studies in order to elucidate the association between personality and OCB (e.g., Ilies et al., 2009; Organ & Ryan, 1995). However, Chiaburu et al. (2011) lamented on prior meta-analyses (e.g., Ilies et al., 2009; Organ & Ryan, 1995) because they were limited in either the number of personality predictors, focus of personality predictors (e.g., only consider agreeableness and conscientiousness), or the scope of citizenship criteria (e.g., omitting change-oriented behaviors). Besides, Chiaburu et al.’s meta-analytic study also signals the limited number of primary studies (less than 10) concerning the association between openness and change-oriented citizenship (OCB-CH). The findings concerning the correlation between openness and OCB-CH were inconsistent across studies, suggesting the potential existence of moderators.

Chiaburu et al. (2011) called for more primary studies to examine the role of personality (particularly, openness) against the expanded criterion domain of OCB (including OCB-CH), and to seek for the moderators for this relationship. Similarly, Penney et al. (2011) suggested further research need to be done on different situational moderators of the personality–performance relationship. Frazier et al. (2004) indicated that maturity and sophistication of a field of inquiry manifest in the identification of critical moderators of relations between predictors and criterion. Further, scholars argued that environment changes in a rapid pace, which accentuates the need for flexibility and adaptability (Motowidlo & Schmit, 1999). Therefore, organizations urgently need the employees who are eager to bring constructive change and suggestions in order to improve products and services to maintain organizational competitiveness (Morrison & Phelps, 1999; LePine & Van Dyne, 1998). Thus, searching for the moderators between openness and change-oriented OCB justifies research attentions.

This paper answers multiple calls to investigate the moderators between openness and change-oriented OCB (i.e., change-oriented behavior or OCB-CH), which is a special form of OCB. In what follows, we review the previous research on the relationship between personality and change-oriented behaviors. We discuss and review the previous research on transformational leadership, leader trustworthiness, subordinate propensity to trust, and subordinate unit tenure. We derive propositions to examine the joint effects between each of aforesaid construct and openness on change-oriented behaviors. We provide a conceptual model that includes all propositions in Figure 1.

FIGURE 1
A MULTILEVEL MODEL OF OPENNESS - OCB-CH RELATIONSHIP
AND ITS MODERATORS



THEORY AND PROPOSITIONS

Personality and OCB-CH

In terms of the conceptualization of OCB, it varies from study to study and scholars use different labels to describe this term. For instance, OCB can be described as extrarole behavior (Van Dyne et al., 1995), prosocial organizational behavior (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), and organizational spontaneity (George & Jones, 1997).

OCB is a multidimensional construct. According to Chiaburu et al. (2011), it consists of two dimensions: prosocial (OCB-I and OCB-O) (e.g., Werner, 1994; Whiting et al., 2008) and proactive (change-oriented OCB or OCB-CH) (Organ et al., 2006; Van Dyne et al., 1995). OCB-I is directed toward individuals (e.g., helping behavior, cooperation and teamwork, and extra effort and initiative) and OCB-O is directed toward organization (e.g., dependability and attendance, and following policies and procedures) (Whiting et al., 2008). Among aforesaid dimensions, OCB-CH is special because it brings out change and improves organizational effectiveness by proposing positive modification. Employees performing OCB-O and OCB-I can be regarded as good soldiers (Organ et al., 2006); however, employees engaging in OCB-CH are good change agents (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker et al., 2006; Van Dyne et al., 1995). Lipponen et al. (2008) suggested that due to the fact the organization nowadays faces dynamic and turbulent environment, it is critical to obtain knowledge concerning factors that are conducive to organizational change. Via proposing suggestions for changes, employees can assist their organizations to improve products, processes, and services, thus helping them to adapt to changing environment. Liu et al. (2010) pointed out that change-oriented behaviors, such as voice behavior, play a vital role in organizations because contemporary organizations lean heavily on innovation in order to survive in the rapidly changing and competitive environment (Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Van Dyne et al., 1995). Therefore, OCB-CH warrants research attentions.

In terms of different types of change-oriented OCB, Kim et al. (2011) provided a systematic framework of it. It consists of change supportive behavior (e.g., participation in total quality management

[Coyle-Shapiro, 1999]; championing [Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002]), change supportive psychological states (readiness to change [Armenakis et al., 1993]; openness to change [Miller et al., 1994]; commitment to change [Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002]; intentions to support change [Jimmieson et al., 2008]), adaptive behavior (cope with change [Judge et al., 1999]; adaptive performance [Pulakos et al., 2000]; compliance and cooperation [Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002]; adaptivity [Griffin et al., 2007]), and proactive behavior (voice [Van & LePine, 1998]; taking charge [Morrison & Phelps, 1999]; personal initiative [Frese & Fay, 2001]; proactivity [Griffin et al., 2007]; strategy supportive behavior [Gagnon et al., 2008]). Among aforesaid different types of OCB-CH, employee voice receives increasing amount of attentions in recent years (MacKenzie et al., 2011; Van Dyne et al., 1994, 1995; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). MacKenzie et al. (2011) emphasized that voice is the most prominent promotive form of change-oriented behavior, which emphasizes the constructive challenge so as to improve rather than merely criticize via making creative suggestions for change and modifications to status quo. On the other hand, whistle blowing (Near & Miceli, 1987) and principled organizational dissent (Graham, 1986) are prohibitive form of change-oriented behaviors. In this paper, only promotive change oriented behavior will be studied, which is consistent with MacKenzie et al. (2011).

With regard to the study on the relationship between five factor model (FFM) traits and OCB, it is no more a new research inquiry. However, as pointed out by Chiaburu et al. (2011), scholars overwhelmingly focus on affiliative OCB (e.g., OCB-O and OCB-I) and little attention has been paid to change-oriented behaviors. In addition, research studies are limited in the number and focus of personality predictors (e.g., only include conscientiousness and agreeableness [Ilies et al., 2009; Organ & Ryan, 1995]), which leaves the question about the relationship between openness and OCB open. This bleak status quo can be attributed to several reasons. For instance, LePine and Van Dyne (2001) suggested that when individuals high in openness are typically imaginative, curious, original, broad minded, and intelligent, they are willing to embrace divergent perspectives and seek opportunities to promote new things and value change. However, their results indicated a nonsignificant, small correlation between openness and voice, although the direction of correlation is still in expected (positive) direction. In addition, Organ et al. (2006) indicated that openness does not have a discernible relationship with OCB. Hertz and Donovan's (2000) meta-analytic study illustrated that openness is a weak predictor of OCB. Nevertheless, according to Chiaburu et al.'s (2011) meta-analytic study, although they concluded that the overall correlation between openness and OCB is .14, correlation between openness and OCB-CH among different studies ranges from -.01 to .28. These mixed findings suggest the existence of moderators. As what Chiaburu et al. pointed out, the number of primary studies available for investigating this relationship is less than 10, which can make their results suffer from second order sampling error. Therefore, the relationship between openness and OCB-CH warrants attentions to search for the moderators for this relationship.

Moderators for the Openness - OCB-CH Relationship

Transformational Leadership

Bass (1990) proposed that transformational leadership occurs when leaders expand interests of their employees, produce the awareness and acceptance of the purposes and missions of the group, and motivate their employees to go beyond their self-interest for the sake of the group. Leaders can attain these desirable outcomes by being charismatic to their followers to inspire them or meet the emotional needs of employees or intellectually stimulate them. Thus, Bass and Avolio (1994) advanced that transformational leaders generate positive effects by displaying behaviors in four categories: inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation of followers, personal charisma (also known as "idealized influence"), and individualized consideration of followers. Transformational leadership relates to a myriad of positive outcomes (Avolio & Bass, 1988), such as job satisfaction and individual performance (Fuller et al., 1996; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Lowe et al., 1996). Moreover, as pointed out by Jung et al. (2003), transformational leaders engage employees' personal value and connect their individual identity to organizational identity in order to increase their intrinsic motivation; therefore, intrinsically motivated employees will be more actively participating in innovation than extrinsically motivated counterparts

(Conger & Kanungo, 1998; House et al., 1991; Zhou, 1998). In addition, by intellectual stimulation, employees feel motivated to “think out of box” and engage in exploratory thinking. Transformational leaders also help to shape followers’ commitment to long term goals, which is typically required for innovative thinking (Bass & Avolio, 1997; Geyer & Steyrer, 1998).

Joint Effects of Transformational Leadership and Openness

Although subordinates high in openness are prone to engage in change-oriented behaviors, it is unclear whether this argument will hold true under some circumstances because change-oriented behavior, such as voice, can be risky and even personally dangerous in that it involves implicit or explicit criticisms of the status quo (Detert & Burris, 2007; Milliken et al., 2003). To be more specific, unlike OCB-O and OCB-I which fall under category of cooperative behavior (therefore typically being treated as positive behaviors by supervisors and colleagues), employees who display change-oriented behaviors will possibly jeopardize the relationship with their supervisors and colleagues because change-oriented behaviors may be viewed as unsettling, unsuitable for the stability of the existing system (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

Thus, it is possible that relationship between openness and change-oriented behavior may be activated under the influence of some moderators. One of the possibilities is that without supports from leaders, followers may suppress innovative ideas because people who engage in change-oriented behaviors will take the risk of damaging relationships with leaders for challenging the status quo (MacKenzie et al., 2011). Morrison and Milliken (2000) pointed out that supervisors may be averse to change-oriented behavior because supervisors “feel a strong need to avoid embarrassment, threat, and feelings of vulnerability or incompetence. Hence, they will tend to avoid any information that might suggest weakness or that might raise questions about current courses of action. There is empirical evidence that managers will be especially likely to avoid negative feedback from subordinates” (p. 708). Frese and Fay (2001) argued that change-oriented behavior may also threaten task performance and relationships with coworkers because it questions and disturbs the status quo. In addition, change, as argued by them, tends to involve setbacks and failures because people influenced by change will be forced to be adaptive to something new, which drives these people out of their “comfort zone”. Similarly, Detert and Burris (2007) suggested that only under the condition when perceived benefits outweigh potential costs associated with displaying change-oriented behavior, employees are likely to speak up. In terms of the benefits of speaking up, it includes formal (e.g., money or promotion) and informal (e.g., recognition or status) rewards associate with proposing challenge oriented ideas that are accepted and implemented. On the other hand, potential costs involves “existence losses” (e.g., demotion or termination) and “relatedness losses” (humiliation or loss of social standing) (Maslow, 1943).

Detert and Burris (2007) further offered two reasons concerning why leaders will influence employee change-oriented behaviors. First, change-oriented behavior, such as voice, means sharing ideas with someone who has power to allocate organizational attention or resources to the issue raised. Thus, leaders, who are in power advantageous positions, are critical to subordinates’ motivation to voice because leaders are the targets of voice. Furthermore, leaders have powers to distribute rewards and punishments; then, this authority over subordinates’ pay, promotions, and job assignments glaringly reflects leaders’ actions as salient cues for behaviors. Therefore, when leaders give out hints that they like to see and act on subordinates’ voice, they can enhance subordinates’ motivation to engage in change-oriented behaviors. Once no clear aforementioned signals from leaders are displayed, subordinates are prone to see potential risks outweighing benefits when voicing.

With regard to transformational leaders, they can be supportive of followers’ behaviors and encourage and empower them to make decisions for their own tasks. They further spur them to identify ineffective rules and advance suggestions for improvement. Once provided with sufficient autonomy and resources from leaders, followers may be stimulated to engage in risk-taking behaviors and be willing to go beyond the scope of one’s formal job requirements (Bettencourt, 2004), which can elicit change-oriented OCB. Similarly, owing to the fact that transformational leaders provide employees with leeway in challenging status quo and care about their personal needs and development, employees may focus on

tasks instead of worries and fears, thus stimulating them to take risks (Liu et al., 2010; Shamir et al., 1993). Furthermore, transformational leaders emphasize the significance of subordinates' contributions to organization by using inspirational motivation, which encourages subordinates to provide innovative ideas to enhance organizational success (Bass, 1998; Bass et al., 2003; Vera & Crossan, 2004).

Transformational leaders also have the talents to boost intrinsic motivation, personal discretion, and responsibility, which facilitate creativity (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Dvir et al., 2002; Shamir et al., 1993; Zhou & Oldham, 2001). Therefore, transformational leaders may "activate" subordinates' trait openness and make them be willing to take risks to voice out their opinions because transformational leaders not only display interest in their challenge-oriented behaviors but also convince them of little risk in honest communication (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Detert & Burris, 2007; Edmondson, 2003) and the benefits of displaying change oriented behaviors, thus buffering their nervous feeling toward taking risks of challenging the status quo.

Proposition 1: Transformational leadership will moderate the positive relationship between openness and OCB-CH such that this positive relationship will be stronger when transformational leadership is high.

Leader Trustworthiness and Subordinate Propensity to Trust

Leaders play a crucial role in shaping employees' beliefs concerning the influence of their work on others (Grant & Sumanth, 2009; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Podolny et al., 2005). As argued by Grant and Sumanth (2009), managers can communicate missions and visions to employees. Employees can not only construe mission communication by leaders as genuine but also as malicious if they perceive their attempts are barely manipulating them to work harder in order to achieve some unrealistic missions (Cha & Edmondson, 2006). Therefore, when subordinates see their leaders as trustworthy, then they will believe in mission communication, which signals that leaders' trustworthiness can be crucial when they intend to communicate missions and visions to subordinates and want subordinates to internalize their ideas.

Mayer et al. (1995) defined trust as "the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party" (p. 712), which captures two main conditions for trust: risk and interdependence (Yakovleva et al., 2010). Further, trustworthiness contains three factors: ability, benevolence, and integrity (Colquitt et al., 2007; Mayer et al., 1995). Grant and Sumanth (2009) indicated that "employees see managers as trustworthy insofar as they perceive them as holding good intentions (benevolence), subscribing to and acting upon a set of valued or acceptable principles (integrity), and being capable of meeting expectations (ability)" (p. 928).

Joint Effects of Leader Trustworthiness and Openness

According to the definition of trust, one party needs to volunteer to be vulnerable to the actions of another party (Mayer et al., 1995). Subordinates who contribute innovative ideas challenging current standards and policies to seek improvements may be particularly vulnerable and risky because if trustors (i.e., change agents) do not get trust from trustees (i.e., leaders), they are under pressure of being alienated from their leaders and colleagues. Because they may be viewed as mavericks who will create discomfort in a work unit (Liu et al., 2010; Milliken et al., 2003). The situation will become much worse should they eventually forge an unfavorable reputation and destroy social capital for themselves (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Liu et al., 2010; Milliken et al., 2003; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Because their leaders may postpone their promotion or even eliminate them in order to main the stability of the whole work unit.

The decision-making process with regard to change-oriented behaviors is a calculated, deliberate one, which involves weighing cost and benefit to assess anticipated consequences (Ashford et al., 1998; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Thus, if sacrificing to be vulnerable cannot be reasonably justified, people high in trait openness may still tend to suppress their innovative ideas and remain silent for the sake of being financially, socially safe in the job position (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Detert & Burris, 2007;

Edmondson, 2003; Milliken et al., 2003; Morrison & Milliken, 2000). In light of the fact that change-oriented behavior is risky, trustworthy leaders can nevertheless create a feeling of “anchoring” for change agents because trustworthy leaders are perceived as holding good intentions and dependable for the sake of subordinates’ welfare and organizational outcomes.

Chiaburu and Lim (2008) demonstrated that perception of managers’ trustworthiness will positively relate to workers’ OCB. Trevino and Brown (2005) argued that leaders’ trustworthiness will facilitate the reciprocation from subordinates in form of OCB. This mutual trust becomes the social glue between leaders and subordinates so that subordinates believe in the instructions and suggestions leaders offer. In this situation, subordinates will not feel panic about the possibility of jeopardizing the relationship with their leaders because they are convinced of change-oriented behaviors as being positive by trustworthy leaders (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Detert & Burris, 2007; Edmondson, 2003). Once employees perceive that leaders trust them to make change recommendations, commit to organizational success, and work toward the goal of workgroups, they will be more prone to engage in change-oriented behaviors. Hence, leader trustworthiness will buffer subordinates’ nervous feeling when they propose change oriented ideas.

Proposition 2: Leader trustworthiness will moderate the positive relationship between openness and OCB-CH such that this positive relationship will be stronger when leader trustworthiness is high.

Joint Effects of Subordinate Propensity to Trust and Openness

Propensity to trust refers to a dispositional tendency to rely on others, which can be treated as a personality variable (i.e., stable individual difference) that influences whether or not a person will be likely to trust (Colquitt et al., 2007). Propensity to trust is a driver for trust because trust is not only triggered by past experience but also by dispositional factors such as personality (Colquitt et al., 2007). Therefore, propensity to trust, as a personality variable, will influence the level of trust. Mayer et al. (1995) implied that propensity to trust will be crucial when information about trustees’ trustworthiness is absent. Bigley and Pearce (1998) similarly argued that propensity to trust will spark trust when a trustor deals with a trustee in an unfamiliar situation. Gill et al. (2005) indicated that propensity to trust associates with trust when the information about trustees’ trustworthiness is ambiguous.

Research studies also showed that subordinates with high propensity to trust will be more likely to pay attention to the positive facets of social exchanges with his or her managers while ignoring (or less focusing on) the negative facets of the exchange relationship, thus making them interpret managerial actions in a more favorable perspective (Bernerth & Walker, 2009; Colquitt et al., 2007; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Murphy et al., 2003). Thus, subordinates with high propensity to trust will be more inclined to reciprocate benefits with their leaders than naturally suspicious employees, even before the benefits and favors are returned, because they believe benefits and favors will always be reciprocated from their leaders in some way (Bernerth & Walker, 2009; Van Dyne et al., 2000). This echoes the trust definition by Mayer et al. (1995) in terms of willingness to be vulnerable and the expectation that actions will be returned back, which implies that individuals high in propensity to trust is willing to take risks to trust rather than suspect. To confirm this argument, Bernerth and Walker (2009) found that employees high in propensity to trust may always be willing to ascribe positive reasons to managerial actions. Thus, the above arguments lend supports to the assertion that propensity to trust may interact with openness to influence change-oriented behaviors because propensity to trust will enhance subordinates’ risk taking actions (Colquitt et al., 2007) and therefore make individuals high in openness be more willing to contribute innovative and challenging oriented ideas without being paranoid about potential risks.

Proposition 3: Subordinate propensity to trust will moderate the positive relationship between openness and OCB-CH such that this positive relationship will be stronger when subordinate propensity to trust is high.

Subordinate Unit Tenure

Organizational tenure is defined as the length of employment in an organization (McEnrue, 1988; Ng & Feldman, 2010). Once length of employment increases, it may positively influence work experience. For example, tenure has been treated as a qualitative indicator of work experience because when employees remain in an organization for a long period of time, they can develop a wide spectrum of working skills and accumulate sufficient knowledge about their organization (Bird, 1996; Ng & Feldman, 2010). Ng and Feldman's (2010) meta-analytic finding confirmed that general relationship between organizational tenure and OCB is positive.

Joint Effects of Subordinate Unit Tenure and Openness

As indicated above, organizational tenure will positively influence job skill accumulation and knowledge about the company (Bird, 1996; Ng & Feldman, 2010). Similarly, it is reasonable to argue that unit tenure will affect level of knowledge about the unit which an employee belongs to. Meir Shemla (2010) noted that job tenure will bring employees with improved technical skills and proficiency with the field of expertise and organizational tenure will make them gain trust among important colleagues and organizational-specific resources. Tenure also lets employees gain status, social networks, and important knowledge of a company's norm and culture (Meir Shemla, 2010; Nonaka, 1994; Tesluk & Jacobs, 1998).

Thus, before displaying change-oriented behaviors, change agents with long unit tenure may have already known something about which suggestions need to be suppressed and which suggestions will work (or even be rewarded) due to their sufficient knowledge about leaders, colleagues, and unit climate. Therefore, the acceptance rate of change oriented ideas may be much higher for subordinates with long unit tenure than these with short tenure. Hence, subordinates with long tenure will be motivated to propose creative and challenge oriented ideas if historically most of the ideas are accepted and rewarded appropriately during their tenure in a work unit.

On the other hand, Lovett and Cole (2003) pointed out that employees with long tenure will obey less to group norms because they have more power and freedom to voice their point of views. Therefore, people high in openness with long unit tenure may evolve and be much opener due to their perceptions of less limitation to voice their opinions.

Proposition 4: Subordinate unit tenure will moderate the positive relationship between openness and OCB-CH such that this positive relationship will be stronger when unit tenure is long.

CONCLUSION

Change-oriented behavior (OCB-CH) is an important form of employee behavior that helps to forward organizational goals and to improve organizational effectiveness; yet, it may be viewed as a disturbing behavior in the eyes of supervisors and other organizational members due to the challenging nature of it. Thus, subordinates may take the risk of ruining the relationships with their supervisors when they engage in change-oriented behavior. In this paper, we theoretically examine how the relationship between openness and change-oriented behavior is conditioned by four moderators, namely transformational leadership, leader trustworthiness, subordinate propensity to trust, and subordinate unit tenure. Our study suggests that if leaders want to elicit change-oriented behavior from their subordinates, they may use transformational leadership style to inspire their followers to voice out constructive suggestions that may challenge yet improve status quo. Leaders should "walk the talk" and be transparent and sincere to create a trustworthy image in the eyes of their followers to produce more change agents.

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