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**FOSTERING CREATIVITY THROUGH LEADERSHIP: ROLE OF
CREATIVITY IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND EMPLOYEE
PERFORMANCE**

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this master's thesis/non-thesis master's term project titled as "Fostering Creativity through Leadership: Role of Creativity in the Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Employee Performance" has been written by myself in accordance with the academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that all materials benefited in this thesis consist of the mentioned resources in the reference list. I verify all these with my honor.

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ABSTRACT

Master's Thesis

Fostering Creativity through Leadership: Role of Creativity in the Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Employee Performance

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Transformational leadership, which is defined as the leadership style that promotes change in the workplace by uniting workers around a compelling vision of the future, has emerged as one of the most prominent theories in leadership literature in recent years. Effects of transformational leadership on the job performance of employees, and factors that might mediate this relationship, have been a point of interest for scholars. Present study suggests transformational leadership will have a positive relationship with the task performance of employees and puts employee creativity forward as a potential mediator between these variables. Creativity was chosen as a mediator because of its potential to facilitate change and innovation in the workplace, qualities which transformational leaderships arguably promotes. Moreover, creative requirement of a job, which assesses employees' perception of how creative their jobs demands them to be, was hypothesized to have a moderating effect in this relationship; meaning in jobs with higher creative requirement, creativity was expected to have a stronger mediating effect between transformational leadership and task performance.

To test these hypotheses, data was collected through surveys and analyzed using various statistical methods. Results offered support for the hypothesized relationships between transformational leadership-creativity and creativity-task performance. However, findings contrary to initial expectations regarding the moderating effect of creative requirement on creativity as mediator, suggested

other factors such as the ceiling effect must be considered to better understand this relationship. The study concludes by discussing these findings and offering potential directions for future research.

Keywords: Transformational Leadership, Creativity, Creative Requirement, Task Performance



ÖZET

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

**Yaratıcılığın Liderlikle Teşvik Edilmesi: Yaratıcılığın
Dönüşümcü Liderlik ve Çalışan Performansı İlişkisindeki Rolü
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Çalışanları olumlu bir gelecek vizyonu etrafında birleştirerek işyerinde değişimi teşvik eden liderlik tarzı olarak tanımlanan dönüşümcü liderlik, liderlik literatüründe son yıllarda öne çıkan teorilerden biridir. Dönüşümcü liderliğin çalışanların iş performansı üzerindeki etkileri ve bu ilişkiye aracılık edebilecek faktörler, pek çok çalışmaya konu olmuştur. Mevcut çalışma, dönüşümcü liderliğin çalışanların görev performansı ile pozitif bir ilişkisi olacağını öngörmekte ve çalışan yaratıcılığını bu değişkenler arasında potansiyel bir aracı olarak incelemektedir. Yaratıcılık, iş yerinde değişimi ve yeniliği kolaylaştırma potansiyeli nedeniyle aracı olarak seçilmiştir, ki dönüşümcü liderliğin bu nitelikleri teşvik ettiği bilinmektedir. Ayrıca, yaratıcılık gereksinimi kavramının bu ilişkide düzenleyici bir etkiye sahip olacağı öngörülmüştür. Bu kavram, çalışanların işlerinin kendilerinden ne kadar yaratıcı olmalarını gerektirdiğine ilişkin algılarını değerlendirir. Daha yüksek yaratıcı gereksinime sahip işlerde yaratıcılığın dönüşümcü liderlik ile görev performansı arasındaki aracılık etkisinin daha güçlü olması beklenmiştir.

Bu hipotezleri test etmek için anketler yoluyla veri toplanmış ve bulgular çeşitli istatistiksel yöntemler kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Sonuçlar, dönüşümcü liderlik-yaratıcılık ve yaratıcılık-görev performansı arasında öngörülen ilişkiler için destek sunmuştur. Ancak yaratıcılık gereksiniminin yaratıcılığın aracılık etkisi üzerindeki düzenleyicilik rolüne ilişkin öngörülerle çatışan bulgular, bu ilişkinin daha iyi anlaşılabilmesi için tavan etkisi gibi diğer faktörlerin dikkate

alınması gerektiğini ortaya koymuştur. Çalışma, bu bulguları tartışarak ve gelecekteki araştırmalar için potansiyel yönler sunarak sona ermektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Dönüşümcü Liderlik, Yaratıcılık, Yaratıcılık Gerekliliği, Görev Performansı



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ABBREVIATIONS

CAT	Consensual Assessment Technique
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CI	Confidence Intervals
CPSS	Creative Product Semantic Scale
CPAM	Creative Product Analysis Matrix
df	Degree of Freedom
LBDQ	Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire
LMX	Leader-Member Exchange
LPC	Least Preferred Co-Worker
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SRMR	Standardized Root Mean Square Residual

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INTRODUCTION

The relationship between leadership styles and workplace performance have long been a subject of interest for scholars. The direction and strength of the relationship, as well as the moderating factors between these constructs, have garnered considerable attention and resulted in significant research outcomes. The interest of scholars is rightfully placed in this area of study, as it has been shown time and time again how important leadership is for organizational and individual performance, and how success of organizations is intimately tied to the nature of these relationships (Al-Malki and Wang, 2018: 3; Iqbal et al., 2015: 1). A primary motivation in this area of research is to understand the effect of different styles and philosophies of leadership on the performance of employees. This endeavor requires an accurate assessment of various leadership traits and behaviors, analyzing them against different contextual elements that may be present at the work environment, assessing the compatibility and efficacy of each leadership style within these contexts and ultimately commenting on the suitability of each style for the specific requirements of given businesses and environments.

Among these various leadership styles, one that has garnered significant attention in recent years is undoubtedly transformational leadership (Bass, 1999: 9; Yukl and Van Fleet, 1992: 1). Transformational leadership can be seen as the latest iteration of a long tradition in leadership research that foregrounds the importance of people relationships and affectual elements in work environment to increase the motivation, commitment, and effectiveness of employees. The mechanics of transformational leadership works through a number of interrelated components that create its overall effect. The main components of this leadership style consist of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation (Bass and Avolio, 1993: 49). On a more holistic level, transformational leadership has been defined as channeling employees and organizations to perform beyond expectations by appealing to more than their individual self-interest or monitoring day-to-day transactional activities. Transformational leadership style shows little interest in maintaining the status-quo and (as the name implies) is better suited for creating change in organizations or

heightening the innovation level. This effect is achieved by aligning employee goals with organizational goals by presenting a vision of the future that is embraced by the employees. This, coupled with increased autonomy and support, allows employees to take initiative that is geared towards implementing change in the organization.

The link between transformational leadership and employee performance is well documented (Podsakoff et al., 2000: 531). Transformational leadership has been linked to an increase in both task and contextual performance in the past. To make the distinction clear, task performance refers to how well employees fulfill the formal requirements of their jobs, whereas contextual performance is related to extra-role behavior that is not enforced, thus cannot be measured or rewarded in the short term. Various studies in the past have examined and confirmed the link between transformational leadership and both dimensions of job performance (Christian et al., 2011: 89; Zhu et al., 2009: 590).

The next question that confronted researchers was to identify the mediators between transformational leadership and job performance to better grasp the nature of this relationship. Various constructs have been proposed in the past that aimed at explaining the directionality and strength of this relationship. Some of these mediating constructs include work engagement, organizational justice, and public service motivation (Jankingthong and Rurkkhum, 2012: 115). Another mediating factor that has received considerable attention in the literature is creativity (Gumusluoglu and Ilsev, 2009: 461; Mahmood and Fan, 2019: 1). On a broad level, creativity can be defined as the production of novel and useful ideas at the workplace (Kaufman and Sternberg, 2007: 55). It has been proposed that transformational leadership's positive effect on the organizational and individual performance can be attributed in part to the increased levels of creativity and innovative behavior by the employees. This would emerge as a natural consequence of less transactional supervision and more autonomy and support transformational leadership affords to employees compared to some other styles of leadership. It has been shown by studies in the past that while the optimal leadership style can be beneficial for the proliferation of creativity in organizations (Li et al., 2015: 1149), leadership styles that do not match the contextual requirements of a workplace can negatively affect the creativity of workers (Liu et al., 2012: 1187). Studies in the past have also hypothesized that the link between transformational

leadership and creativity can be explained by other mediating factors such as trust and job autonomy (Saleem and Mahmood, 2018: 1).

The construct of creativity is also tied to performance in significant ways as it was shown that it can be a crucial factor that contributes to the competitive advantage of a firm (Amabile, 1988: 123). Moreover, it has been demonstrated also that innovation, new product strategies and process improvements are important elements that determine companies' success especially in highly dynamic business environments (Andrews and Smith, 1996: 174).

Moving from these antecedent studies in the literature, the link between transformational leadership and creativity, and their subsequent effect on employee performance is logical to suggest. But another important factor that must be considered is the individual requirements of specific jobs. Different work areas and job titles will require an uneven level of creative input by the employees. Moreover, the extent to which their performance at workplace is affected by the creativity they demonstrate is also contingent on how much creativity is needed to be successful at the given job. Therefore, a blanket statement that links transformational leadership and employee performance with creativity as a mediator, although logical in its theoretical foundation in the literature, will lack sufficient nuance to explain the variance of this effect between different job groups. It follows that, an examination that measures the relationship and effect of these constructs, will not account for the full effect without showing regard for the characteristics of this contextual factor. This is an especially important consideration to make, since it has been demonstrated in previous research that the effectiveness levels of various leadership styles are closely connected to the contextual factors present at the work environment (Busse, 2014: 52).

a. Significance

In contrast to the importance of this consideration, the studies that have examined the variance of the transformational leadership-performance effect across various job groups (each with their own unique demand for creativity) have been limited in the literature. The present study aims to address this gap through incorporating the moderating effect of the creative requirement of various job groups

into the analysis of creativity's effect on transformational leadership-performance relationship. The significance of this approach will be manifold. First, it will aim to investigate and potentially confirm the relationships that exist between transformational leadership and creativity, creativity, and employee performance, and through the mediation effect of creativity, transformational leadership and employee performance. The testing and potential verification of these relationships within the social context of this study will yield important insight concerning their validity and generalizability. Moreover, as mentioned above, by addressing the gap in the literature concerning the variance of the strength of this relationship across job groups with differing creative demand, this study will contribute to the understanding of these constructs in a more detailed way. It is deemed especially important that the effects of creativity will be contrasted with the creative requirements of a job, in that this will allow for a more accurate assessment of transformational leadership's ability and potential to increase performance in a workplace through its influence on these contextual elements.

In order to investigate these relationships, the research model of this study will incorporate four main elements; firstly, transformational leadership in organizations will be analyzed, then employee creativity and task performance will be measured to study the relations that exists between these constructs, how they are related to one another and the direction and the strength of this relationship. Lastly, the construct of job creative requirement will be investigated to better understand the demand for creative input within the context of each profession that is studied. Through this analysis, the variance in the strength of relationships between above mentioned elements will be reviewed to comment on the effect of a job's creative requirement on this process.

CHAPTER ONE

LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1. FROM EARLY LEADERSHIP THEORIES TO TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

In this section, a literature review with a general focus on the evolution of leadership research and with a specific focus on transformational leadership is presented.

1.1.1. Evolution of Leadership Theories

Over the years there has been a growing body of research on leadership. However, it is hard to say there is a consensus between scholars as to how exactly to define a leader; as Stogdill (1974: 7) points out “there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept.” This perhaps can be attributed to the dynamic and contextual nature of leadership as pointed out by the contingency theory (Barbour, 2008: 25). Kouzes and Posner (1995: 30) define leadership as the “art of mobilizing others to want to struggle for shared aspirations,” while Cohen (1990: 9) maintains it is “the art of influencing others to their maximum performance to accomplish any task, objective or project,” and Rost (1991: 11) claims it to be “an influence relationship among leaders and collaborators who intend significant changes that reflect their mutual purposes.” These and other definitions point at certain commonalities that merge as the foundational elements of leadership; they can be said to include an influence on others, creating mutual relationships and inspiring change in the circumstances. The nature of these elements and the conditions under which they flourish have been topics of debate and scholars have attempted to address them through various theories.

1.1.1.1. Great Man Theory

Some of the earliest academic discourse on the topic of leadership can be traced back to the “great man” theories of the 19th century (Spector, 2016: 250). This school

of thought, generally attributed to Thomas Carlyle, asserts that certain individuals are born with the necessary attributes that naturally make them great leaders. The main focus is identifying the characteristics and traits that make these individuals particularly suited for leadership roles to better understand the nature of these individuals and leadership as a whole. This approach can be said to adopt a mythical or heroic perspective to leaders and views them as figures of a higher calling that have the right to rule over the remainder of the population.

1.1.1.2. Trait Theories

In continuation of this tradition, trait-based leadership theories came to forefront in the field (Bowden, 1926: 149; Kohs and Irle, 1920: 73), which initially sought to identify characteristics of leaders to improve the selection process of personnel (Hernandez, 2011: 1165). Similar to the previous approach, theorists believed there to be a set of qualities shared by all those who excelled at leadership roles and strove to identify them in a systematic manner. Research in this vein tended to adopt a holistic view of leadership traits and look for universal commonalities rather than inspect each component individually like previous approach. Generally, the traits required to become a successful leader were grouped into four main categories; Technical skills (knowledge of components and each area of work), conceptual skills (ability to analyze complex problems and conceptualize effective solutions), interpersonal skills (maintaining good relations within a group, ability to empathize) and administrative skills (ability to perform managerial functions like planning and delegating). The degree to which a leader would need to possess skills from any one of these groups would depend on the type of organization and the nature of position (Yukl and Van Fleet, 1992: 147).

One of the key aspects of the trait theory was balance between multiple traits; a trait that is useful for a leader in moderation may work against him in excess amounts. The idea of using one trait to balance and tempering another has received attention. However, it is difficult to say this supposed curvilinear relationship was backed up by empirical evidence. This, combined with the rather abstract nature of traits has provoked criticism from scholars. Trait theories did not result in a widely accepted set

of criteria for explain success of leader, as identifying a single set of criteria that is applicable in all situations proved troublesome (Jenkins, 1947: 54). Criticism was leveled at this approach for assuming leadership to be a “passive status” that merely relied on possessing certain traits (Stogdill, 1948: 35).

In more recent years, there has been a renewed interest in analyzing core traits required for leaders. Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991: 48) have described these traits not a prerequisite for becoming a successful leader but merely preconditions. A more psychological approach was adopted by researchers in this era who strove to apply Big Five personality framework to the leadership traits to better understand the mechanisms through which these traits translated into actionable leadership qualities (Judge et al, 2002: 765). However, there remains questions about this approach in regard to its seeming neglect of situational and contextual influences on the leader’s success. Understanding these mediating variables is a vital part of evaluating the potential success of leaders, and moreover they help account for how certain traits result in leadership behavior. Therefore, a new strand of research was called for that focused more on these behavioral aspects of leadership.

1.1.1.3. Behavioral Theories

Behavioral strand of leadership theories thus aimed to address these deficiencies by focusing on the actual behavior of leaders on the job rather than certain intrinsic qualities (Dunnette and Hough, 1992: 75). The primary concern of theorists in this tradition was to identify which patterns of behavior led to higher success in leadership positions by recognizing, categorize and analyzing types of behaviors exhibited by leaders on the job. These attempts have led to the identification of leadership behavior models such as authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire (Lewin, Lippitt, and White, 1939: 271). Hernandez et al. (2011: 1165) cite three major research efforts as being significant in the advancement of behavioral leadership theories; firstly, Ohio State University leadership studies explored the idea of establishing descriptive dimensions of leadership behavior which culminated in the creation of Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). This framework showed there to be a consistently measurable difference between dimensions of

leadership behavior. Second significant research effort in this field came from University of Michigan, which in similar fashion demonstrated how leadership behavior differed in their focus on employee of products. Third research strand came from Harvard University and focused on the collective nature of leadership in group and organizational contexts.

The common thread that runs along these research results is their broad distinction between product versus people focus leadership behavior, without a consensus on the superiority of either one. This distinction in behavioral leadership theories is particularly significant when viewed from the lens of transformational leadership literature. What scholars laid out as transformational and transactional leadership types decades later bears noticeable resemblance to these preliminary theories of behavioral categories. With its focus on process and product, transactional leadership can be said to be a continuation and development of product focused leadership behavior, while primarily concerned with people and intangible qualities like motivation and vision, transformational leadership seems to have its roots in firmly planted in the people focused approach of behavioral theories. This simile is all the more meaningful when considering the contention between scholars on their relative merits; as outlined above, behavioral theorists were not in agreement as to which of the leadership models were more effective. Similarly, in transformational leadership literature, although there seemed to be an initial preference towards transformational over transactional in terms of its relative effectiveness, researchers in later studies have demonstrated in different setting and contexts transactional leadership styles can yield more desirable results than transformational leadership (Judge and Piccolo, 2004: 755).

The behavioral approach made significant contributions to the leadership theory while having multiple shortcomings. Primarily, diverging from previous research, the importance of context within which the behavior takes place started to receive attention in this line of research (Fleishman, 1953: 1). Nevertheless, the major focus of this type of research was examining the behavior rather than context to differentiate between effective versus ineffective leadership. This approach has received criticism for simplifying the complex issue of leadership into a few

predetermined factors and only researching the effectiveness of those variables (Dunnette and Hough, 1992: 75).

In the tradition of the behavioral approach, several studies that put forth a variety of views on leadership were published. Theory X and Theory Y (McGregor, 1960: 28) postulates a dual view of human behavior and argues workers at an organization falls under either category; therefore, leaders must adopt the style most suitable to the needs of that group. The continuum of leader behavior (Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1958: 95) proposes a model where even consecutive steps lie in between two diametrically opposed leadership styles (autocratic and participative) and leaders choose where to situate themselves on this continuum according to the situational and individual needs of their working environment and followers. The managerial grid (Blake and Mouton, 1964) further visualizes the leadership models by placing them on a two-dimensional grid. The theory, which is strongly influenced by the previous Ohio State studies, identifies “people orientation” and “task orientation” as the two main indicators of leadership performance and groups leadership behavior into five main categories according to the points scored on these variables (higher the score the better the leader). Scoring highly on both fronts leads to what is named “participative team leadership,” which is akin to what is described as ideal leadership style in previous studies. The relevance of this theory as a predecessor of transformational leadership theory is evident in its continuation and further nuancing of the distinction between the people and performance focus; which can be said to be the earliest foundation between the transformational and transactional leadership models.

Last to be mentioned in this tradition is the three-dimensional theory (Reddin, 1970) which can be seen as a transitional study into the next phase in leadership research with its emphasis on the context within which interactions take place. Reddin’s theory adds the third dimension of “leadership effectiveness” to the two previously identified aspects of relationship orientation and task orientation. The theory scores leadership behavior and provides a hierarchy much like the previous research, but its distinction of suggesting the effectiveness of these approaches will vary depending on the environment is a significant one, as this heralds the next wave of research that is to come in leadership studies.

1.1.1.4. Contingency Theories

Contingency theories grew out of a need in previous strand of research to reconcile inconsistent findings obtained in empirical studies and more precisely define leadership characteristics (Hernandez et al., 2011: 1165). The difficulty in showing the effectiveness of identified traits and behavior in different contexts led researchers to think about incorporating opportunities and challenges presented by the environments in which leaders work to better assess the main predictors of leadership success. This line of research rejected the idea of a single ideal leadership model that will be prevalent in all situations and instead suggested the effectiveness of a leaders will be determined by a variety of situational factors such as leadership styles, follower qualities and situational features. This reasoning draws attention to the importance of designing the right organizational structure and finding the right managerial fit for it, as ultimately the effectiveness of the leader will depend on the right fit between these two factors (Amanchukwu, 2015: 6).

One of the first theories that sought to bridge the gap between situational elements and leaders' innate ability and style to lead was the contingency model of Fiedler (1967). In it, similar to Reddin's three-dimensional theory, Fiedler assumes there to be three main elements that determine leadership success, namely task orientation, human relation orientation and situational favorableness. The effectiveness of the first three components would depend on the last one, which was Fiedler's novel contribution to the literature. More specifically, Fiedler proposed assigning characteristic attributes to leaders according to their interactions with "least preferred co-worker" (LPC). With this logic, leader who assess their LPC positively would receive a high LPC score, which would mean a more human relation oriented approach. In the case of scoring a low LPC score, that would dictate a more task oriented leadership style. Then, to assess the situational characteristics the work environment, factors such as follower cooperation, task clarity and leader's formal authority would be factored into the analysis (Fiedler et al., 1976). The result of this situational analysis would yield the situational control variable. To bring the individual and contextual characteristics together, the theory suggests leaders with low LPC scores will be more effective in either very high or very low situational control

environments, while leaders with high LPC will be more effective in environments with moderate situational control. In short, Fiedler's theory says task oriented approach is better suited for very favorable or unfavorable situations while human orientation is better for more average situations. The novelty of this theory is suggesting a different types of leadership styles may be preferred depending on the environment and group characteristics and that the job must present a fit with the leadership style of a manager.

Another theory that focused on the impact of moderating factors to theorize about leaders' effectiveness is the path-goal theory (House, 1971: 321). The theory entails that the leader's job is to make create an alignment between employees' personal goals and organization's goals, and make the path to both those outcome clear and attainable. Once employees realize working towards the clearly laid out corporate goals also leads to the attainment of their personal goals, the efficiency of the employees and the success of the organization will increase. The degree to which leaders are able to effectively clarify those paths, however, depend firmly on the follower characteristics and organizational situation. In agreement with these factors, the most effective leadership style will be determined out of the following list; directive, supportive, participative and achievement-oriented (House and Dessler, 1974: 29). Situational factors like task structure determine which of the leadership style will be more effective; for example, in a high structured task environment, the path to the goal will already be defined and therefore directive leadership style will not be perceived favorably by the employees and thus a more supportive approach will be more effective, whereas in a low structure and low clarity situation, directive leadership style's effectiveness will be higher as paths to goals will need to be clarified (Busse, 2014: 52). Path-goal theory takes three aspects (leader traits, follower characteristics, organizational situation) of the work environment into account to assess the effectiveness of leadership styles and emphasizes the right fit between these components for the maximum results for the organization.

Another noteworthy theory belonging to the contingency approach is the normative decision model (Vroom and Yetton, 1973; Vroom and Jago, 1988). In this model, leadership style are grouped into five categories ranging from autocratic to participative, which determine the level of involvement of the employees in managerial decision making. In order to decide which approach to take, leaders are advised to use

a decision tree that helps them decide which leadership style is most appropriate for their organizations. Ultimately, what determined the suitability of leadership styles is the organizational context and follower behavior, and therefore this model finds its home within the contingency theories with its emphasis of environmental factors to determine the most appropriate way to lead an organization.

Hersey and Blanchard (1977) brought a new perspective to the contingency theories with honing their focus on the situational character they dubbed follower maturity. Drawing from earlier work by Ohio State studies and Blake and Mouton's managerial grid, this situational theory identifies job ability and psychological willingness as the main factors that determine employee maturity, which is proposed to be the main predictor of performance. According to their scores on these two variables, employees are assigned to one of four categories that indicate employee maturity; lowest being unable and unwilling, and highest being able and willing. In the two middle categories, precedence is given to ability over willingness, in that employees who are able but unwilling are deemed more mature than those who are unable but willing. This approach favors ability over willingness and establishes ability as the main determinant of performance. The lack of reasoning for this distinction has led to some criticism towards this situational theory as there have been arguments towards the contrary (Graeff, 1983: 285). Nevertheless, building on this distinction, the theory proposes four distinct communicational methods leaders should employ while interacting with followers; telling, selling, participating and delegating – each coinciding with the expected readiness of the follower to receive direction. For example, at the lowest rank of follower maturity employee will need to be told what they must do as they will lack the knowledge and willingness to perform these activities, and therefore a more directive approach must be employed. As the maturity level grows, other social and emotional concerns will need to be taken into account when interacting with followers, and at the highest maturity level, employees will be aware of their responsibilities and task direction will not need to be given in order for them to perform their duties (Hernandez, 2011: 1165).

1.1.1.5. Relational Theories

In preceding schools of thought, attention was given first to the individual characteristics of the leader and then to the organizational factors that take effect in determining the effectiveness of these styles and traits of leadership. However, these approaches make little distinction between followers within the organization and assume leadership styles' effectiveness to be homogenous for each individual within the team. Relational theories can be seen as a response to these earlier tendencies within the scholarship as it shifts the focus to relations each follower have with the leader as the determining factor for the leader's effectiveness. Thus, dyadic relationships within the organization are foregrounded over group dynamics in this line of research (Krishnan, 2005: 14).

In an early attempt at making the case for relational theories, Jacobs (1970) takes issue with the negligence of earlier theories when it comes to the individual relationships within the group and draws attention to dyadic nature of these relationships. It is emphasized that individual contributions to the group are effective in determining group dynamics and the leaders' role can be better understood when viewed in this context.

Dansereau, Graen and Haga's (1975: 46) vertical dyad linkage model is an influential study that served as basis for later research in this field. According to this model, followers within the group are separated into two psychological groups by the leader, stemming from the need for a practical way to handle interactions with followers. The outer group consists of followers who are at a greater distance to the leader and the relationship with followers in this group are more formal; while the inner group is comprised of followers with whom the leader has a longer standing relationship and more informal relationships. It is argued that followers may move from the outer group to the inner after an initiation process. The existence of a third group is theorized by other researchers (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1991: 33) where the leader and the follower establish a relationship based on mutual trust and support. While only a few followers are in this third group, the high-quality relationships produce highest levels of motivation and performance.

Building on the vertical dyad linkage model, researchers have developed the leader-member exchange (LMX) theory, which further theorized on the in-group out-group dynamics by analyzing the social mechanisms that lead to the formation of these circles. LMX theorists propose two distinct styles of leading within the group; “influence with authority” and “influence without authority” (Dansereau et al., 1975: 46). According to this theory, a leader who is able to influence followers without authority creates relationships based on trust, loyalty and support; while influence with authority is deemed more suitable for more formal and supervisory roles. Researchers have argued these dynamics that form at the early stages within the group can lead to the formation of in-group out-group distinctions.

As it relates to transformational leadership, it is evident that LMX theory builds on previous research that makes a distinction between human versus task focused leadership styles by theorizing about the social and psychological dynamics that contribute to the formation of these styles, and further speculates about the impact each approach has on the dyadic relationships and follower performance. The influence of this foundational work in the current leadership research can be traced while studying the transactional versus transformational leadership styles. While earlier trait and behavior based approaches examined the innate characteristics and work place actions of leaders, relational theories shift the focus to the social exchanges that result from these factors; nevertheless the distinction made in the leadership styles is reminiscent of the one observed in transformational and transactional leadership research. It can be said that while transactional leadership fits well with the task-oriented approach that uses authority to create influence, transformational leadership is more akin to the human-oriented style that does not rely on authority to influence followers, which holds all the ore true when considering transformational leadership works through creating a vision and bringing followers around it and thus requires little authority to function, the major dynamic at play in transactional leadership is that of a reward-punishment system and is therefore indeed more based on influence through authority. Being able to place these theories within the context of their antecessor is useful not only to better grasp the theoretical and historical phases that lead to their emergence but also to obtain a more holistic view of them in relation to their place the continuum of leadership research.

Relational theories and LMX holds a unique place in leadership studies with its focus on social relationships within the group as the main factor that dictates leaders' success. While this approach has brought a valuable perspective to leadership research, it can also be criticized for its seeming lack of consideration for situational factors (Busse, 2014: 52). However, researchers in the recent years have evolved LMX theory by shifting the focus from individual follower-leader relationships to social dynamics at a broader scale (Sparrowe and Liden, 1997: 522). Researchers have argued that it is imperative to consider the collective dynamics within the group to fully analyze leader-member exchange in context. It is suggested that both leader and follower's social networks within the group will have a determining effect on how the leader-member exchange will take shape, and further suggest the relationship will go through three phases which are identified as development, sponsorship, and assimilation.

1.1.1.6. Other Perspectives in Leadership Theory

Along with the more influential theories that have defined the general trajectory of leadership research, there have been a number of other theories conceived around the same time which have challenged their assumptions and contrasted their findings. One of the most noteworthy examples of these efforts is the implicit leadership theory (Lord, 1977: 114). This theory assumes there to a set behavioral cues that leaders display that signal to their followers their statues within the group. It is proposed that when faced with adverse situations, followers will look to others for affirmation and individuals who display cues that are assumed to be associated with leadership will be perceived among other as the leader within the group. This theory is significant in that it places special emphasis on the importance of perception and cognition within groups for determining leadership dynamics.

Another study that deserves mention in this category is Kerr and Jermier's (1978: 375) efforts to upend the leadership field by presenting a set of factors that prevent the effectiveness of leaders instead of facilitating it. This study asserts there to a number of situational and relational factors that, if in place, serves to nullify or dampen the effectiveness of leadership qualities exhibited by the leader. This approach

is significant in that it deals mainly with certain contextual elements as the predictor of leader's effectiveness. With this view, even if the leader possesses the right attributes for the task, the presence of these elements will make it impossible for them to succeed. Therefore, this theory takes the fate of the leader out for the domain of their inherent traits and behavioral choices and instead chooses to place it in the possible interfering effect of environmental factors.

Meindl and colleagues' (1985: 78) theory presents a differing view which posits that the leadership status in groups is often romanticized and happens through a process of attribution. It is argued that workers within an organization attribute certain collective dynamics to the leader when it becomes difficult to explain and account for the complex workings of the organization. This process is especially effective when the performance of the organization is either extremely high or extremely low. When trying to make sense of these situations, it is argued that the followers will use the figure of the leader to attribute the successes and failures. In explaining leadership dynamics, this theory pays equal attention to the perception of the followers and the contextual predicaments that trigger the attribution process.

1.1.2. Transformational and Transactional Leadership

As leadership theories evolved, emergence of a novel approach that draws from these diverse strands of research was called for. Briefly recounted above, these theories focused on specific aspects of leadership and placed those aspects as the primary points of interest within their research agenda to explain the phenomenon of leadership, its predictors, and its effects; trait theories placed its focus on individual characteristics of individuals in leadership positions, contingency theories placed its focus on the contextual factors that determine the effectiveness and applicability of these traits for specific organizational environments, while relational theories focused on the importance of the individual and collective ties between leaders and followers and inspected the psychological and social dynamics at play in determining these relationships. Transformational leadership theory, unlike its predecessors, incorporates these various aspects within its consideration of leadership as dominant factors. As a result of the historical and theoretical evolution process of leadership theories,

transformational leadership represents the next phase in which many dynamics at play when considering leadership are all taken into consideration to reach a more holistic view of the phenomenon. This can be argued to be a result of the leadership theories becoming increasingly more detailed and comprehensive to account for the leadership constructs becoming more complex in organizations in the modern context (Hernandez et al., 2011: 1165).

1.1.2.1. Emergence of Transformational Leadership

Many social, economic, and cultural factors can be considered when endeavoring to explain the dynamics at play within society that necessitated the emergence of this new approach in leadership research. Bass (1999: 9) argues that the market dynamics called for a shift towards the transformational leadership style in organizations as automation replaced run-of-the-mill jobs and the remaining ones required more skill and education. Thus leaders were encouraged to empower followers with increased autonomy and control, which caused the responsibility within the organizational hierarchy to move towards the lower rungs of the ladder. In keeping with this trend, employees started viewing their relations with the leaders not as subordinates but colleagues, and a leadership style that places emphasis on this on these dynamics became increasingly important for the job satisfaction of employees.

Going beyond the market dynamics, Bass (1999:10) investigates the shift in the collective psyche of society as an important consideration for the emergence of the transformational leadership style. It is argued that society in general has moved from the more conformist point of view of 1950's that placed high value in respecting authority and not questioning superiors to a more skeptic one in the new millennium that encourages individuality, taking responsibility of one's own actions and accepting new challenges. This societal shift also impacts the alignment of self-interest of employees with the organizational values and goals; while it was the norm for workers to declare such alignment publicly no matter the private reservations they might have, in modern work environment, it is the leader's duty to ensure employees' and organizations' goals are aligned to make sure employees can go beyond their own self-interest and display organizational citizenship behavior.

1.1.2.2. Foundations of Transformational Leadership Theory

An early antecedent of transformational leadership theory can be found in Weber's writings on charismatic leadership, however the idea of a leader with the power to transform organizations did not come to the forefront of academic inquiry until 1980s when companies found themselves in the need of updating their policies in the face of increased foreign competition (Yukl and Van Fleet, 1999: 173). Weber's theory on charismatic leadership outlines a view of leadership based on followers' perception of the leader, maintaining that charismatic leaders inspire devotion and loyalty through their larger than life image, similar to earlier "great man" theories of leadership. The leadership mechanism according to this theory relies on the characteristics of the individual leader to create certain emotional and behavioral responses in the followers. Qualities followers ascribe to the leader play an important role in crafting the image and attributes of the leader. In the resulting relationship between the leader and followers, values and affect emerge as prime predictors of the effectiveness of leadership.

House's (1977: 191) theory of charismatic leadership furthers the findings from previous work by inspecting the differentiating characteristics of charismatic leaders and the ideal conditions under which these characteristics take effect. As in previous theories, the emphasis is placed on the perception of the leader through followers' point of view. The theory outlines leadership traits that increase the likelihood for leaders to be perceived as charismatic and identifies behavioral patterns that are commonly seen in such leaders. The behavioral patterns identified are significant as they represent an early model for the transformational leadership theory to follow. The main leadership behaviors identified are follower confidence in leader, laying out a clear vision for the future, effectively communicating expectations to followers and expressing confidence in followers to build self-confidence. The work that follows by transformational leadership scholars use this blueprint of charismatic leadership to produce a deeper understanding the processes behind leadership mechanisms.

Conger and Kanungo (1987: 637) focuses on the perceptual aspects of charismatic leadership in that they maintain it is an attributional phenomenon and it stems from qualities attributed to leaders by followers. It is therefore argued that the

charismatic leadership qualities will not be found ubiquitously in every leader and will depend on the attribution of followers. The leadership behavior outlined by this theory again emphasizes the importance of presenting a clear vision to the followers, making sacrifices to achieve that vision, and having the ability to work in unconventional ways to achieve success. The common thread found in charismatic leadership theories which carries on to transformational leadership studies as one of its defining characteristics is clearly the vital importance of presenting a clear vision of the future to followers. This stands to reason as the primary goal of leaders who are tasked with “transforming” their organizations should be to identify and communicate their vision for the future and get the followers in their organization to believe in and work towards achieving that vision. Conger and Kanungo also outline a number of traits and situational variable that affect the operationalization of leadership qualities. Traits identified in this theory includes confidence, management skills, cognitive ability and social sensitivity. As for situational variables, it is argued that charismatic leadership will be most effective in times of crisis where employees are unsatisfied with the status quo. In such situations, the leader will be able to showcase their superior skills by dealing with the problem effectively and establishing an improved environment in the organization.

1.1.2.3. Early Theories of Transformational Leadership

Burns’ (1978) study on leaders in political arena can be considered a major foray into the domain of transformational leadership theories as it represents an exploratory effort in defining the scope and characteristics of this area of research. In this study, Burns describes how effective political leaders interact with and shape their follower base. Leadership in this theory is conceptualized as an exchange between the leader and the followers, where the leader influences followers through interrelations which are constantly evolving in their nature, and in turn leaders are influenced and shaped by these interactions and modify their behavior in the future accordingly. The theory is significant in its attention to both individual relations on the micro level and social and political effects on the macro level. According to Burns, one of the distinguishing behaviors of transformational leaders is that they appeal to higher emotions and ideals (such as justice, freedom, equality) in their followers in order to

inspire them for greater mobilization and change, rather than speaking to and making use of lower level emotions (like greed, fear, hatred). This theorized appeal to higher emotions in followers and the attention paid to its role in shaping the future of organizations in certainly shows early signs of what later theorists of transformational leadership will label “presenting a clear vision of the future.” The core of both these approaches is a uniting the followers around the ideal of a better future in order to align their personal goals with the organization’s and create greater mobility around the causes championed by it. Through this mechanism of idealization, Burns argues, followers raise themselves from their ordinary, everyday selves to better selves, which explains the gratification followers get from coalescing their self interest with organization’s goals. Burns suggests that transformational leadership behavior is not exclusive to those who are in leadership positions and can be exhibited by individuals at any rank within the organization to influence and mobilize those around them. Another important contribution of Burns’ theory of transformational leadership is its definition of transactional leaders. It is argued that, in contrast to transformational leaders, transactional leaders endeavor to mobilize their followers through appealing to their self-interest rather than trying to sell them on the bigger organizational goals. Burns also marks a differentiation with bureaucratic leaders, who try to exert power and influence through the power of hierarchy, authority, and rules.

Following Burns’ footsteps, the next seminal effort in transformational leadership studies came from Bass (1985) in a work that is often quoted as an important milestone in the development of the field. In his treatise on transformational leadership, Bass takes a more in-depth look at the mechanisms behind leadership within organizations and distinguishes between several types of leaders. The main categories Bass puts forth are transformational, charismatic, and transactional leadership styles. Transformational leadership is described in terms of the leaders’ influence on followers. Similar to Burns’ approach, Bass maintains that transformational leadership works through creating awareness about the value of task outcomes, appealing to the higher self of the followers and thus inducing them to put organizational goals in front their self-interest. This type of approach to leader-follower relationships creates a respect for the leader and importantly, motivates followers to go beyond their task description and perform beyond expectation.

An important distinction Bass makes is the one between transformational and charismatic leadership approach, which until then have been used somewhat interchangeably. For Bass, transformational leadership goes beyond merely exhibiting charisma, which is defined as having a strong appeal to followers' emotions that creates a sense of identification with the leader. It is argued that while the emotional appeal is a part of transformational leadership, two additional main aspects are identified to distinguish it from charismatic leadership.

The first of the two aspects is identified as creating intellectual stimulation for followers. This aspect of transformational leadership leads with making followers aware of various dimensions of a given problem and helping them see it from new perspectives to create novel ways of solving problems. Second differentiating factor of transformational leadership is identified as individualized consideration. This aspect of transformational leadership behavior focuses on leader-follower exchange and draws attention to the importance of providing support, encouragement and development experiences for followers.

A combination of these three aspects of leadership (charisma, intellectual stimulation and individualized support) creates a unique effect on followers and distinguishes transformational and charismatic leadership styles. It is argued that these two leadership approaches can be fundamentally divergent in some of their main aspects, in that transformational leadership seeks to "empower and elevate" followers while charismatic leadership can in times work in the opposite way as it may depend on keeping followers dependent and loyal to leader through keeping them in a less empowered state (Yukl and Van Fleet, 1999: 176).

Bass also furthers the transactional leadership theory outlined in Burns' work by describing its workings in more detail. The idea of motivating followers through self-interest and individual incentives are maintained, but some light is also shed on the work that is needed to be done on the followers' part in order to obtain those incentives. Bass lays out transformational and transactional leadership as two separate and distinctly defined entities, however it is not suggested that they are mutually exclusive; a leader may use them interchangeably as the environment and task at hand calls for different approaches.

1.1.2.4. Definitions of Transformational and Transactional Leadership

To fully illustrate the nuances within the transformational-transactional leadership scale, Bass (1999: 11) uses a scheme that is referred to as “the full range of leadership model.” In this model, Bass places different forms of leadership approaches on a two dimensional matrix based on their effectiveness and activity. All approaches mentioned in the model fall under the broader categories of either transformational or transactional leadership.

On the bottom right part of the matrix, where both effectiveness and activity are at the lowest level, there is “laissez-faire” leadership style. This transactional leadership style is defined by its reluctance to take any action in face of the problems that arise within the organization and therefore is the least effective. On the second tier of transactional leadership there is “passive management by exception,” where leader do not make an active intervention until a problem arises, which makes this approach one tier above laissez-faire in terms of its level of activity and effectiveness. In this style of leadership goals are often not clearly communicated, agreement between the leader and the followers are specified and there is a general lack of willingness to engage with the process. One tier above this is “active management by exception,” which is another form of transactional leadership. This style of leadership is distinguished from its passive counterpart by the fact that it involves a constant monitoring of the workers and an active intervention in the case of failure to meet standards. Active management by exception also requires a high level of trust in the employees and the system as it predicts things will run in their normal course. This leadership style requires little risk-taking and aims more at maintaining the status quo of operations.

The last form of transactional leadership which is placed the highest in the effectiveness-activity matrix is the “contingent reward” approach, which entails leadership behavior that clarifies what is needed to be done by the workers in order to achieve desired rewards through either direction or participation. Worker who are motivated to obtain the rewards are expected to perform to the exceptions of the firms. This form of transactional leadership is the most effective and requires the most activity by the leader in order to be functional. Contingent reward approach relies on

appealing to want and needs of followers and creating compliance in them through appealing to those desires as an effective way of achieving organizational results. It is important to present well-defined, tangible incentives to followers in order to ensure their compliance. It is the leader's job to effectively communicate that these rewards are tied to achieving performance objective and providing direction for followers.

Placed at the highest tier of the effectiveness-activity matrix is the "four I's," which is also the only style of leadership that falls under the category of transformational leadership. This successive hierarchy of leadership style invoke a sense of progression that managers must work their way up in order to achieve the most effective approach to lead their organization, however the importance of the context and the situational requirements of organizations must also be considered before drawing such overarching conclusions. The four I's mentioned in this leadership category are also the founding blocks of what constitutes a transformational leadership, as laid out by Bass.

The first "I" refers to the idealized influence of the leader and is tied to the earlier theories of charismatic leadership. Idealized influence works to assure followers are invested in the goals of the organizations and they regard those goals as having more value than their personal self-interest. Idealized influence is closely linked to the concept of charisma and works through instilling confidence in followers to inspire them to make self-sacrifices to achieve collective goals. Leaders with idealized influence are also role models for their followers and may engage mentoring behavior. The second "I" refers to inspirational leadership. This aspect is crucial to motivate followers and unite them around a shared vision. Inspirational leadership deals more closely with organizational existence than the personality of the leader. It gives followers more autonomy to take actions contribute to the achievement of organizational goals. The first two "I's" are essential when the leader strives to communicate their vision to the followers, and in order to do so they must be able to articulate it clearly, set examples for ways of achieving it, place the performance standards high in the organization and work towards them with determination and will (Bass, 1999: 11). Such leadership behavior is argued to inspire commitment to and identification with the leader.

The third “I” of the transformational leadership is designated for intellectual stimulation, which is a crucial aspect for inspiring creativity and innovativeness in the organization. Leaders must be able to unravel the problems presented to them, provide clear direction to followers to guide them to solve the problems and give feedback for growth and development of followers. Fourth and last “I”, individualized consideration, is about having knowledge of the followers’ personalities, goals and abilities in order to provide them assistance and support tailored to their individual needs. This allows the followers talents to flourish and their full potential to unfold. Leaders must monitor and support the development of their followers and use tasks as opportunities to spur on their growth.

To take a more in-depth look at transactional leadership and its development stages, an appropriate starting point will be Burns’ (1978) study on leadership. As recounted in previous chapters, Burns’ theory of transformational and transactional leaders in the political arena and Weber earlier writings on charismatic leadership presented a foundation block for later studies to build on. To understand the workings of transactional leadership, parallels can be drawn with expectancy theory of motivation, as the primary task of the leader is to communicate to followers that their personal self-interests will be fulfilled in return of completion of task requirements (Hernandez et al., 2011: 1172). To be able to achieve this outcome, transactional leaders must be constantly aware of their followers needs and expectations, and make sure followers understand the fulfilment of their needs is tied to the successful completion of their tasks. This approach thus facilitates mutually beneficial relationships between leader and followers. Benefits followers can gain from cooperating with leaders can come in many folds; they can take the form of gratitude, merit bonuses, promotions, further collaborations, work achievement. An important consideration for transactional leaders is the attention paid to achievements rather than errors. As been recounted in the four tiers of transactional leadership, leaders may choose to wait until a problem arises to intervene or take a proactive approach and aim to prevent problem before they arise. The difference in the perception of followers can be substantial between these approaches one may induce a feeling of reward for success and the other may punishment for failure. Therefore it is a worthwhile consideration for transactional leaders to focus on the positive aspects of follower

performance rather than highlighting errors. As Bass and Avolio (1994: 25) observes transactional leadership have desirable effects on overall follower performance when the focus is placed on rewarding positive achievements of followers.

Another important consideration for transactional leadership is the ability to clearly convey performance expectations to followers and rewarding them with appropriate incentives for good performance. The effective communication of tasks and rewards is crucial for transactional leadership as it relies on a contractual agreement between leaders and followers to produce desirable results for both. The role of the context and the nature of the task should also not be neglected. Different kinds of tasks may call for different management and leadership styles. For instance, it is argued that for technically intense jobs that have time constraints and requires high levels of expertise may benefit from a transactional leadership approach; whereas work environments with a higher human focus may benefit more from motivating followers to achieve common goals through appealing to their values and affect, which may favor a transformational leadership approach (McGregor, 2003: 186).

In contrast to transactional leadership theory, Bass (1985) maintains transformational leadership works through leader's influence on the followers and permeates to the organization. Leader's influence on followers inspires trust and loyalty, which allows them to perform above expectations and exceed the requirements of their jobs. Similar to charismatic leadership, this process works through an attribution where followers assign leadership qualities to the leader as the situation requires. Therefore, followers' perception of the leader and emotions leader is able to inspire in them plays an important role in explaining the workings of leadership. Having earned the respect and admiration of their followers, leader's behavior acts as a model for followers to replicate and sets the standard for others within the organization. Followers' belief in the leader, their identification with leader's values and affectual ties they have with the leader emerge as the defining characteristics of the model. Diverging from previous theories on leadership, the emphasis is placed more on the feelings of affect and value rather than more rational judgement processes. To create such responses in followers, one of the chief attributes that transformational leadership theory foregrounds is inspirational leadership. This aspect of the leader is crucial to create the emotional bonds with followers necessary to motivate them and

help them perform beyond the expectations of their position. Such conditions are achieved as followers identify their personal goals with the organizations goals and feel a sense of pride with the results of their work.

Some of the key components of transformational leadership involves working towards a common greater good that will yield superior social outcomes for both the leader and the followers, as this type of leadership raises the motivation and morale of both parties (Khan and Nawaz, 2016: 4). It is therefore imperative to effectively communicate these shared values and goals to followers and unite them around the common vision. Transformational leadership distinguishes itself from the transactional reward incentives of lower tiers of leadership by appealing to higher social and personal needs of followers that go beyond their self-interest. In this way followers value the organizational goals over their self-interest and perform beyond the task descriptions. Followers are empowered to take initiative in order to achieve organizational goals and become leaders in their own right. This type of leadership ideal to create change in organization as it works through having followers buy into leader's vision and creating collective commitment and attachment in followers to that vision. Individualized consideration to help followers improve themselves to achieve these results increases followers' involvement and commitment to organizational goals. Therefore leaders relationships with their followers is a priority for this style of leadership.

Research has also shown that transformational and transactional leadership are not mutually exclusive constructs (Avolio and Bass, 2002: 53). It has been proposed that these two styles of leadership can be mutually supportive of each other to meet the demands of various tasks and work situations. Although it is maintained that transformational leadership is more effective to induce higher levels of performance, both leadership styles have been shown to produce positive impacts on the overall output of organizations. Transactional leadership can present a base for leaders to improve on the four "I's" of transformational leadership can in time can contribute to the building of mutual trust which escalates to emotional bonds necessary for the transformational leadership. The important consideration is the possibility of such evolution to that place in leadership styles. As individual leaders can apply more transformational qualities in their interactions with their followers to increase the

effectiveness of the leadership, transformational leadership then presents itself as a construct that can be trained in and achieved over time. Indeed, research supports the findings that transformational leadership is trainable and individuals can become transformational leaders with the right training and mindset (Barling et al., 1996: 827). This underscores the importance of transformational leadership literature for practical uses and shows why it is important for companies to devote resources to develop their managers.

1.2. CREATIVITY

Study of creativity is a burgeoning field within social studies that has received increasing attention academia in recent decades. Many aspects of this complex phenomenon are studied to better understand the workings of concepts such as innovation, creative behavior, product creativity and more. It is argued that the field of creativity research first entered into the academic agenda in widespread fashion after the presidential address J. Paul Guilford gave at the American Psychological Association in 1950, calling researchers in the field to turn their attentions to studying creativity (Kaufman and Sternberg, 2007: 55). Since then, there has been a considerable amount of research has been done in the field, bringing various perspectives to understanding creativity.

1.2.1. Definitions of Creativity

To be able to reach a holistic definition of creativity various components that affect the phenomenon must be considered. Piirto (2004: 30) narrows the concept to its essence by suggesting a seven-part model of creativity that includes seven I's; inspiration, imagery, imagination, intuition, insight, incubation, and improvisation. Sawyer's (2006: 75) point of view differs from Piirto's in that it suggests creativity can only be truly understood in its social context and therefore emphasizes the socio-cultural aspect of the phenomenon.

Kaufmann and Sternberg (2007: 55) argue that, when considered together, most definitions of creativity tend to include the following three elements; first, the

idea presented must new and innovative, must present a break from what came before. Second, along with begin new, the idea must be of high quality, meaning it must deliver desired result while dealing with the problem at hand. Lastly, the idea must be appropriate, meaning it must suit the task that it strives to solve or explain and be uniquely equipped to do some more than others. Put together, the concept suggest creativity requires at its core ideas that are new, effective and appropriate.

Going beyond these broad definitions, it is hard to say a common consensus exists to define and measure creativity and all its components. Various cognitive test methods, such as divergent thinking, remote associates, and word associates have been employed by researchers to link the concept of creativity to numerous other aspects of human psyche; these include personality, affect, motivation, culture and so on (Ivcevic, 2009: 17). There have also been different measurement methods that relied on other conceptualizations of creativity, and these focused on the skills and attributes creative people may possess. Such skills include personal preferences for complex tasks, their belief in their own creative powers and how much they endorse these given traits.

It has been shown that these measures possess explanatory power when it comes to distinguishing creative behavior from the rest. Merten and Fischer (1999: 933) have found that artists have more unusual results than general public and are able to identify and elaborate on these variances in their preferences. These results indicate that such test may indeed be useful in predicting one's potential for creative behavior, however little attention is given to the surrounding factors that may facilitate or inhibit the potential of individuals to come to realization. At this point an important distinction that needs to be mark should be how creativity is defined which therefore must dictate its measurement method. For instance, as mentioned above, the distinction between personal traits and potential, contrasted with the actual observable results that are produced by them must be marked before any attempt to measure the concept.

Of course, this multiplicity of meanings partly stems from the fact that the concept of creativity is an all-encompassing term and may be applied to various aspects of the phenomenon such as products, process, persons, and so on. Therefore, it is commonly accepted that creativity may be categorized into four "P's"; creative person, product, process and press (last item with reference to the environment within which creativity takes place) (Ivcevic, 2009: 17). This broad distinction becomes helpful

when trying to categorize many strands of research into order. For example, the creative person category of the research agenda will be tasked to look at the aspects of creativity that are relevant to the inner psyche of the person such as motivation, intelligence, imagination and so on.

Other research deals with the generalizability of the construct, i.e. whether it is more appropriate to study creativity as an individualized phenomenon only a few distinguished people exhibit or should it be approached as collective phenomenon at can be studied at a group level. Kaufman and Baer (2005: 110) break the process of creativity into two main parts. Firstly, it is argued that there must exist the “initial requirements” for the creative act, which stands for the basic conditions that must be in place for creative acts to take place. This part of the equation looks closely at the personality traits that are important when dealing with how creative acts are initially formed, such as intelligence, motivation, support etc. Second part of the model deals more closely with the environmental factors that are prevalent in determining the way and shape the creativity will find embodiment in a given situation. These situational concerns, called “micro-domains,” are determined by the individual scenarios that give shape to how creativity may find expression in specific environments.

One theory that has been suggested to explain the process of creative individuals in the idea of “flow” (Csikszentmihalyi, 1996: 25). The concept of flow deals with individuals being acutely engaged with their work at a given moment, and the sensory experiences one undergoes when experiencing such phenomena. It is argued that the state of flow can be attained by practitioners of any trade, so long as their capabilities are matched with the difficulty of the task at hand.

Yet another attempt at describing the concept of creativity comes in the form of “geneplore” model proposed by Finke et al. (1996: 1). Similar to the model proposed by Kaufman and Baer, this theory breaks the process of creativity into two main part; the generative and exploratory phases, hence the name geneplore. The first phase of the model the creative individual occupied themselves with the generation of ideas; often novel solutions to problems that demand new ways of thinking. The second phase of the process comes when the creator explores and evaluates the ideas they have put forth in the generation process, and may decide which one stands out as the superior

alternative to other. Or, they can choose to go back to the generation phase, and the cycle may repeat itself a few times before an idea is settled on.

Beyond the personality traits that appear as creative, products that result from such initiatives are also points of interest for creativity research. The theory named “propulsion model” summarizes possible outcomes of creative endeavors into eight main categories (Sternberg et al., 2002: 10). The first four of the eight categories involve creative work that stays within the existing frame of knowledge and contributes to it by small measures. The “incrementation” category is an example of this category of creative contributions, in that it modifies the existing knowledge and therefore pushes the field forward in small increments. The latter four categories deal more closely with creative products that alter the existing paradigm in more radical ways and replace the existing knowledge or point of view with a wholly novel approach. “Reinitiation” is an example of such works, which seek to move the starting point of an existing debate or field of knowledge to an entirely new perspective.

The effects of the environment on an individual’s ability to be creative is also studied in the field of creativity research. This strand of academic inquiry fits in with the “press” category of the four P’s of creativity outlined above. The main question that motivates this research is understanding the context’s role in enhancing or inhibiting the creative potential and output of a person. Among such studies, Csikszentmihalyi’s (1996:150) systems model stands out as a primary example of the field. This model investigates the inherent ties between the creator and his surroundings, and lays out a number of interactions that occurs between this constructs that are influential in determining the size and the direction of this relationship. These hypothesized interactions take place between the domain, the field, and the person. To expound on these constructs, domain refers to the discipline in which the individual produces work. The nature of their area of work naturally has consequences on their ability to produce creative work. Second, the field refers to the conditions within this given discipline. Which outside influences are the most effective, what role people within the discipline hold are determined by the field aspect of the model. Lastly, the person dimension deals with the inherent qualities within a person that may facilitate or inhibit their ability to be creative at their line of work.

Other models also exist in the environmental research strand of creativity studies. One such example is Amabile's (1996: 89) work in the field, which places intrinsic motivation as the primary research goal of the model. This approach examines individuals' internal desire and drive to produce outstanding and novel work. Other factors are also at work and must be considered as a part of this model. These factors include domain relevant skills, meaning the extend of one's ability and knowledge within the boundaries of their field; and creativity relevant skills, meaning one's inherent willingness to explore new and untried methods of accomplishing tasks and their aptitude in these endeavors. Considered together, these factors yield the result for an individual's potential for producing creative work.

1.2.2. Measurements of Creativity

Assessing creativity is an issue on which scholar have offered a multitude of views. This can be attributed to the fact that just like its definition, creativity's assessment is also subject to a variety of interpretations. One of the most widely recognized methods is consensual assessment technique (CAT) proposed by Amabile (1996: 35). CAT involves gathering a group of experts and have them assess the creativity and innovation aspects of a given product and maintains that their opinions will be in agreement and yield an accurate creativity score for a product. This subjective method of assessment that relies on the expertise of the judges who are tasked with scoring the products, have garner criticism for its lack of practicality and applicability. Another shortcoming of this measure was its inability to echo predicted customer behavior, as the opinions of only a select few experts were utilized. Therefore, it is hard to use the assessment as an accurate tool for marketing and consumer research.

Another impactful study in this field at aims to accurately assess the creativity of consumer products is The Creative Product Semantic Scale (CPSS) (Besemer and O'Quin 1986: 115). In simple terms, CPSS aims to measure product creativity through analyzing three aspects of the construct: novelty, resolution and style. To determine the score in each criterion, raters are given semantic pairs in a various categories and asked to choose from them. Some criticism have been leveled towards CPSS for its

definitions of creativity that lack clarity, questioned the validity of its assessment techniques and criteria (Horn and Salvendy, 2006: 395).

To expound further on the properties and uses of the CPSS scale, the concept of The Creative Product Analysis Matrix (CPAM) should also be mentioned (Besemer, 1998: 333). CPAM is presented as a model to apply the understanding of creativity to a wide range of areas and constructs. CPAM posits a three-dimensional view of assessing the creative merits of products; first two are the same as CPSS, and the last one is framed as elaboration and synthesis. The model further details each one of these facets of creativity and breaks them down to a total of nine components. Falling under the novelty aspect are the items of originality and surprise. Under the category of resolution following items are listed; valuable, logical, useful, and understandable. Lastly, the components that make up the elaboration and synthesis element are organic, elegant and well crafted. Products' creativity scores are assigned in keeping with their performance across these various criteria.

Items under the novelty category are tasked with assessing the perceived newness of the product. This perception can come from the utilization of new methods, materials, processes, concepts and so on. The resolution category aims to assess the performance of the product in delivering the promised attributes. It can be taken as the degree to which the product is able to fulfill users' expectations and deliver on the requirements of its category. Lastly, elaboration and synthesis component (or style as it is referred to in CPSS) deals with the aesthetic pleasantness of the product. It looks at the ways in which a product makes an impression on users through their aesthetic qualities and distinguish itself through such considerations. Out of these three aspects of novelty, validity of the novelty aspect has been established in studies using CPSS. Considerable support for elaboration and synthesis aspect was also found, but the validity of the resolution aspect is still a question of further investigation (Besemer, 1998: 335).

CPSS was designed as a scale based on the theoretical assumptions of CPAM to quantifiably test its assumptions. The test is designed in a way that it can be completed by non-experts. It utilizes four to five bipolar adjective item pairs for each of the nine aspects listed under CPAM. The aggregate score for these aspects determine the overall creativity score.

Moving beyond the creativity of individual products, some measures aim to assess the creative capability of persons. Such scale are widely utilized in fields such as psychology and their goal is to measure a person's ability to think "outside of the box." One such measure that is commonly used in the field is Torrance Tests of Creative Thinking (Puccio and Murdock, 1999: 5). Tests who perform similar functions aim to assess in individuals what is termed as "divergent thinking." This concept refers to the ability to come up with novel and unexcepted answer for problems presented in the context of the test. This ability is usually measured with open-ended questions. There are several criteria that these answers are judged against, which reveals the participant's score of creativity. First criterion is fluency, which refers to the amount of different solutions participant is able to produce to solve the given problem. Second criterion is flexibility, which refers to the number of categories these answers came in. At its core, flexibility criterion deals with the diversity in the answer and not just the sheer volume. Participants need to give answers that are markedly differentiated from each other in terms of their approach to the questions to score highly in this category. Third criterion is originality, which assesses how divergent and different the answers are from what has been proposed before. Participants are required to give exhibit originality by exploring unthought of paths to solve problems. Lastly, the fourth criterion explores the elaboration of the responses. This category assesses how well developed the answers are and how comprehensively they are presented to the testers. To score highly, participants must conceptualize their solutions beyond mere ideas and present them as fleshed out creative ideas to the testers.

Other methods have also been suggested for the measurement of creative potential. Ideation pools (Runco and Mraz, 1992: 213) is one of the widely recognized among those effort. Ideation pools aim to evaluate the entirety of the creative output of a person to reach a conclusion on their creativity score. This method of assessment is reliable in that, in keeping with the findings of psychological research, it takes into a account a large pool of sample data. The theory of idea density is also a model worth noting (Runco et al., 2017: 26). The model of idea density uses computer algorithms to analyze written and spoken texts. The results from this method have been shown to closely correlate with results from other methods of measuring creativity.

As can be seen from this brief summary, there are various methods of measuring creativity. Paek and Runco (2017: 168) argue that this is partly due to the multi-faceted nature of creativity; it is hard to conclusively define which area of creativity is within the scope of a given study, measurement method or definitional effort. This leads to a multiplicity of measurement methods as one method that works adequately for one aspect of creativity may be insufficient for another aspect. There are also a number of other factors that plague attempts to meaningfully measure creativity; one such example is when the measurement tool relies on the views of experts (like CAT), views of different groups of experts may be diverging. Even when they are not, over time value judgements regarding creativity may change and what was once regarded as highly creative may become obsolete over time. Another issue is the relational nature of such definitions; to be able to assign value to a criterion, they relative value and meaning to other criterion needs to be established to comprehensively comment on the creativity measurement that is being used.

With all these drawbacks in mind, Hocevar's (1981: 450) study on the available methods of measuring creativity has suggested that Creative Activity and Accomplishment Checklist (CAAC) may be the most reliable and comprehensive method. Some of these reasons for the preferences for CAAC is its permissive structure to obtain domain specific results; therefore it is argued the differentiating among various aspects of quality may not be an issue. It is noted that the test can be applied to all age and demographic groups without issue and perhaps most notably, is self-reported, unlike other evaluation methods that rely on the scoring of supervisors, experts or other third persons. It is argued that the person themselves will be best qualified to judge their creative merits and that the issue of social desirability and honesty is negligible. Reliability of CAAC has been conformed in a number of studies.

CAAC scale is designed to measure the quantity and not the quality of the creative output of individuals. That is to say, participants are asked how many times they have completed tasks that can be deemed as creative rather than about the quality of those ideas. In some studies, this aspect of the scale was tried to be amended by introducing a quality oriented set of questions into the model (Runco, 1987: 122). Different scores were assigned to activities of varying creative challenge. It was found in this study that the quantity and quality aspects of creative work did not show a strong

relationship. Quantity items were also found to be more strongly intercorrelated than the quality items.

1.2.3. Employee Creativity

Another facet of creativity that requires closer inspection is employee creativity. This is not only because this is a complex and dynamic construct that incorporates many aspects of creativity, but it is also a domain within that creativity studies that have major relevance to business studies and this study in particular, given the fact that the present study aims to analyze employee creativity as one of the main components of its research model.

However, as with other facets of the definitions and measurement of creativity, understanding employee creativity requires taking into account various perspectives to get the full sense of the academic debates in the field. Especially in the last few decades, research interest in this topic have increased significantly as employee creativity emerged as a crucial aspect in many contexts (Joo, McClean and Yang, 2013: 1). To summarize these studies, it will be useful to establish a working definition of employee creativity. Jain and Jain (2016: 295) refer to the construct as the production of novel and useful ideas by workers in a workplace that must also be of importance to the business, and emphasize that it is a vital part of the human capital. Chen and Kaufmann (2008: 73) underscore that there are many individual components that play a decisive part in the formulating of creative behavior in employees, among which are “task motivation, persistence, non-conformity, field independence, cognitive complexity, breadth of experience and knowledge.”

Many researchers go beyond focusing only on individual capabilities to explain employee creativity. Csikszentmihályi (1990: 199) highlights the importance of social context in determining if an individual act will be deemed creative, and theorizes that the complex interaction between levels of social strata is ultimately what confers the quality of creativity as a perception on the acts of individuals. The “subsystems” that play a part in determining the perception of creativity are identified as the domain, the field and the individual. Domain refers to the set of rules and established practices in which the individuals operate, field is the totality of other individuals that act as

gatekeepers to the domain, and the individual refers to the person whose actions are investigated to confer judgement of creativity.

Other studies look to further deepen the understanding of the concept by adding new dimensions of knowledge. For example, there have been efforts to further analyze the social context by breaking it down into five subcategories and argue that all categories interact with each other to determine creativity (Woodman et al., 1993: 293). There also have been a considerable number of studies that inspect the interpersonal ties as the critical component of employee creativity. These studies emphasize the importance of social relations and the network within which the individual operates, and therefore places importance on the teamwork and relationships within groups at the workplace (Simonton, 1984: 1273, Chen et al., 2008: 72; Leenders et al., 2003: 69). Along with these examples, individual and social factors that affect creativity abound in the literature. In the following discussion, factors that have the most weight in the literature and the highest relevance to the present study will be overviewed.

As already mentioned, one of the main factors that researchers have focused on to explain employee creativity is personality characteristics. Characteristics such as “intellectual curiosity, intellectual honesty, internal locus of control, broad interests, highly energetic, highly intuitive, attraction to job complexity, desire for autonomy, independence of judgement, self-confidence, one’s firm sense of self of being creative, persistence and openness” can be listed among these personality qualities (Jain and Jain, 2017: 296). It is also important to note that the effect of these attributes have been found to be significant across a diverse range of domains, indicating their overall generalizability and validity.

Other important personality dimensions that have found to significantly affect employee creativity includes “creative self-efficacy,” which is defined as one’s belief in their own ability to produce works of high creative caliber (Tierney and Farmer, 2002: 1137); “proactive personality,” which is the type of behavior that identifies potential improvements in a situation and takes steps to implement strategies that bring those changes to life -such behavior is found to be highly effective to induce creativity by increasing the information flow and is especially preferred in contexts where the demand for creativity is high by the task and the supervisor (Crant, 2000: 436; Kim et

al., 2010: 37, Gong et al., 2012; 1612). Another key dimension that emerges as an important determinant of creativity is the nature of the task and the congruence between the individual and the task (Madjar and Oldham, 2006: 118). It is argued that individuals with “polychronic” orientation tend to favor working on multiple tasks at a time and achieve them concurrently, while “monochronic” orientation dictates that the individuals will want to work on one task at a time and move on to others in a subsequent manner. In keeping with this definition, polychronic individuals will display high levels of creativity when they are tasked with completing a number of task while monochronic individuals’ creativity will be higher with one task at a time. As a result of this approach, not only individuals and environments, but a fit between the two also appears to emerge as an important determinant of creativity.

Cognitive facilities of the individuals is another important dimension of the personal characteristics. In a broad categorization, cognitive capabilities can be grouped into convergent and divergent thinking practices. Although both represent important aspects of the creativity process, the importance of divergent thinking has been especially highlighted in past studies (Guilford, 1959: 444). To define these concepts, convergent thinking category includes abilities such as “the ability to make logical inferences, to compare and evaluate alternatives, to pick the best alternative, to analyze a problem into sub-problems, to bring together solutions of sub-problems into a master solution that is internally consistent, to refine a solution and to checkout its proof or to test it” (Khandwalla, 1988: 178). On the other hand, the category of divergent thinking includes constructs such as “originality, flexibility, idea fluency, problem sensitivity and redefinitional skills” (Guilford, 1950: 444). These attributes grouped under divergent thinking -along with other skills such as restructuring problems, elaboration and guessing- have been argued to be crucial for the employee creativity.

1.2.3.1. Employee Creativity and Transformational Leadership

The link between leadership styles and employee creativity has been the subject to numerous studies in the past. It has been shown that certain leadership styles can be beneficial for promotion of creativity within organizations through facilitating

favorable environments (Tierney et al., 1999: 591; Mumford et al., 2002: 705). The relationship between leadership and creativity is materialized through a number of mechanisms, some of which that have been identified in previous research are as follows: “the ability to provide goal clarity and to facilitate open interactions and trust among employees [...], encourages individuals to challenge the status quo, creates an environment that increases intrinsic motivation, works for win-win situations within the organization, eliminates rigid procedures and helps employees to be committed to work projects by modeling desired behaviour” (Jain and Jain, 2017: 299).

Among these leadership styles, transformational leadership has been cited as one of the most favorable leadership approaches for facilitating employee creativity (Howell and Avolio, 1993: 891; Jung et al., 2003: 525). The overlap between these two constructs occurs in the transformational leadership’s ability to align employee goals with organizational goals by helping employees venture beyond a self-benefit mindset, and therefore creating an environment where they can perform beyond the expectations set out in their formal job descriptions. The increased intrinsic motivation of the employees allows them to question status quo and look for better ways to perform task. In this process another important factor is employee autonomy. Transformational leadership, which tends to focus less on individual transactions and more on the overall vision and motivation, creates an environment where employees feel comfortable to not only think outside of the box to explore new ways of doing things, but also have the necessary job autonomy to be able to implement these new techniques.

Other fundamental aspects of transformational leadership are tied to boosting employee creativity as well. Sosik et al. (1998: 111) identify the main elements of transformational leadership and exhibit how they are tied to mechanisms that fuel employee creativity. For instance, individual consideration, which is one of the core elements of transformational leadership, may boost employee creativity by creating supplementary encouragement and reward for employees through giving them recognition. The intellectual stimulation aspect of transformational leadership may be beneficial in giving employee support for exploring new ways of thinking and performing tasks. Inspirational motivation aspect of transformational leadership may increase employee creativity by giving employees more incentive to engage in

innovative thinking to achieve goals of the organization which will ideally be aligned with their own goals.

Researchers have also theorized about the underlying factors that facilitate the link between transformational leadership and employee creativity. It has been proposed that the relationship can be explained by the psychological empowerment effect transformational leadership creates in followers (Gumusluoglu and Ilsev, 2009: 461). Another theory explores the effect by examining the group dynamics in the organization and posits that transformational leadership's positive influence on employee creativity can be explained by the elevated innovation levels that occur at the group level, which in turn boosts creativity of workers on an individual level (Wang et al., 2013: 334).

1.2.4. Job Creative Requirement

Although numerous studies have investigated the relationship between various factors that are present at the workplace and employee creativity, there also has been attempts to subvert these assumptions and analyze this relationship in a more holistic level. Unsworth et al.'s (2005: 541) study in analyzing job creative requirement is a step towards this direction. Rather than focusing on the interplay between factors at the workplace and how these variables impact creativity, this approach posits that there may exist an explanation for variations employee creativity more intimately tied to the inherent nature and the requirements of the work that employees perform. This logic entails that while factors within a job environment can exert some influence in understanding variances in employee creativity, closer attention should also be paid to the actual expectations and requirements of a job to more realistically account for the creative performance of employees within that work sphere. This way, understanding employee creativity would not be tied only to specific elements that are present in the workplace, but also the perception of creative requirement of the job among employees.

To define the concept of creative requirement more clearly, Unsworth et al. (2005: 542) ventures into the psychological perception of the job's demands on employees and states that the concept is closely linked to employees' perception of

expectation and requirements of a job. In a work environment with high creative requirement, the workers then would have the perception about their work that it is expected or required for them to generate new ideas or bring some changes to the work structure. This state of psychological demand can be imposed on worker through explicit cues like directions or more implicit cues such as the reception of one's work by the supervisor. Unsworth et al. cite previous theories on perceived need for change on the organizational level and how this dynamic within a work environment can be the fueling factor for implementation of novel ideas. This is due to the dissatisfaction of employees with the status quo and the desire to alter parts of the work structure to better suit the needs and demands of the business. Likewise, it is suggested that the construct of creative requirement is a similar phenomenon in that it is closely tied to the perceptions of employees for a need for change, only it takes place at an individual level rather than collective.

The construct of creative requirement is rooted in prior research in goal setting behavior in work environment and how creativity can be manipulated as a result of this practice. Namely, Locke's (1976: 15) theory on the relationship between type of goals and employee responses is taken as an important starting point. Locke argues that hard to attain yet specific and concrete goals will be more effective to motivate employees to attain those goals. Thus, it is proposed that creativity can be taken as a specific type of goals within organizations and that stating that goal to employees with clarity may induce them to work harder to attain it. This theory is backed by empirical studies in which students' creative output is increased by setting creativity as a goal to attain (Shalley, 1991: 179). Another study by Morrison and Phelps (1999: 1) inspected the relationship between the felt responsibility by employees and their willingness to engage in activities that will bring about change. It is suggested that the constructs used in this study also foreshadows the creative requirement research, as perceived responsibility and willingness to create change can be seen as antecedents of the constructs of creative requirement and employee creativity used in later studies.

Therefore, it is possible to point at a strong relationship between these constructs, however Unsworth et al. claim the previous literature had been unsatisfactory in fully exploring this relationship and therefore has put forth a model and measurement tool that can be used to more thoroughly investigate it. It is suggested

that although some studies have looked into this relationship, the methods used by them have been inconclusive.

To investigate the relationship between these constructs, Unsworth et al. (2005: 548) conceptualizes five competing models to explain the effects of creative requirement, each connecting it to various facets of constructs that have been shown to affect creative performance at workplace. Firstly, factors are identified that influence the employee creativity; these are empowerment, leader support, support for innovation and time demands. Next, creative requirement is linked to these constructs in various ways. Model 1 suggest that creative requirement will fully mediate the relationship between these constructs and employee creativity. Subsequent four models posit the relationship can be explain as additional predictor, partial mediator, antecedent of work factors or as a moderator.

In order to empirically investigate this relationship, a measurement tool for creative requirement was developed. This measurement tool, which is comprised of five items, measure to level to which employees perceive their job to require them to be creative. After the analysis of the empirical data, it was found that the model that best explained relationship between the constructs was partial mediation, as creative requirement was found to fully mediate the relationship between creativity and the constructs of leader support and role requirement, however there was only a partial mediation effect for the constructs empowerment and time demands.

These findings suggest that as important as it is to design the above mentioned factors within the workplace, an important component to boost creativity is to clearly lay out the creative requirement of the job. It is important to note for the purposes of the present study that creative requirement was found to fully mediate the relationship between leadership and creativity. This is important to note since this study examines the relationship between transformational leadership and task performance through the mediating effect of creativity and uses creative requirement as a moderating factor between leadership and creativity. As shown in Unsworth et al., there is substantial evidence that this relationship will be explained by the effect of creative requirement.

Furthermore, the study shows that creative requirement can be a boosting factor for employee creativity. This relationship can materialize in a number of ways, such a goal setting, appraisals, trainings and so on.

1.3. JOB PERFORMANCE

Better understanding how to conceptualize and measure employee performance has emerged as a critical point of inquiry in the recent years. It is an area that is deemed to be a substantial factor in determining the success of organizations as well as individuals, therefore has been the subject of numerous studies in the literature. It eludes a simple definition as it is a dynamic and multi-dimensional phenomenon. It is dynamic because it is open to fluctuations over time dependent on factors such as individuals' knowledge of the job, learning opportunities, acquired skills and habitual behaviors (Sonnetag and Frese, 2002: 3). It is also deemed a multi-dimensional construct since there are levels of performance that can be distinguished and measured; on the most fundamental level a distinction can be made between the behavioral and outcome aspects of performance (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993: 71).

To expand on the properties of these levels of performance, it is possible to say behavioral aspect refers to the totality of the actions taken by the employees while performing the job and encompasses the breadth of behavior that relates to their work (Campbell, 1990: 687). This approach is based on the assumption that behavior exhibited by the employees while on the job are goal-oriented in keeping with the requirements of the job and can be measures to assess the effectiveness. On the other hand, outcome aspect is concerned less with the nature of the actions and more with their associated outcome; so the focus is more the results more than the processes. There may be said to exist an overlap between the two approaches that regards the job performance but they are not interchangeable, as the outcome of employee behavior is affected partially by their behaviors, but there are other factors that also go into their conceptualization. Therefore it can be said that the behavior of employee is not also an accurate predictor of the results that they will attain.

Another important distinction that needs to be made while inspecting job performance is between task performance and contextual performance (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997: 99). There are a number of ways that these two constructs can be distinguished. Firstly, task performance refers to the performance of an employee at a specific task, while contextual performance is generalizable to activities that take place across the spectrum of various tasks. Second, as task performance relates to how well

an individual fulfills the requirements of an assigned duty, it is largely dependent on their abilities and skills, whereas contextual performance is more related to the employees' motivation and characteristic traits. Lastly, and very importantly, task performance refers to the in-role behavior of the employee and is concerned with fulfilling requirements set out in the formal job description. On the other hand, contextual performance deals with extra-role behavior that is not enforced by the management and thus is not directly tied to a reward or incentive scheme in the organization.

1.3.1. Task Performance

This dimension of job performance is specifically concerned with how an employee's job related activities translate to help achieve the core goals of the organization. It is important to note that these activities are comprised of what has been formally described as a part of the employee's job description, therefore is associated with their technical ability to fulfill the tasks that are expected of them. Since it deals with formal requirements of a job, this type of performance is tied to an incentive system ordained by the organization (Williams and Karau, 1991: 570). In keeping with this definition, it can be said that the main component of task performance is related to transforming raw goods into processed products or services, or heightening the efficiency of work at the organization. All such endeavors are expected to be carried out in accordance with the formal job description.

Task performance in itself can be dissected to components that have unique contributions to the effectiveness of the employee. To study each component more closely, five factors can be identified that explain various dimensions of the construct (Campbell, 1990: 687). These components are identified as "job-specific task proficiency; non-job-specific task proficiency; written and oral communication proficiency; supervision, in case of leadership position; and partly management/administration." Each of these factors can be further broken down into various subsets, which is useful for explaining employee performance at a number of different responsibilities that can be assigned to them in the organization.

1.3.2. Contextual Performance

Within an organization, it often does not suffice to perform only activities that are explicitly stated in the job definition. Employees are expected to perform beyond such formal definitions to contribute to the organizational performance in various indirect ways. Such contributions can take the shape of adding to the quality of organizational environment in psychological and social forms. These activities are often not stated explicitly in the job descriptions, but they are effective in increasing the overall organizational performance by allowing task performance related activities to be carried out more effectively (Sonnentag et al., 2008: 427).

In previous literature five distinct elements of contextual performance have been identified (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993: 71). These elements are identified as “volunteering for activities beyond a person's formal job requirements; persistence of enthusiasm and application when needed to complete important task requirements; assistance to others; following rules and prescribed procedures even when it is inconvenient; and openly defending organization objectives.” To expand on contextual performance behavior, it can be said to include showcasing effort that is not formally required of the employing, complying with organizational policies, helping others and taking initiative for the resolution of work-related issues.

Researchers also make a distinction between types of contextual performance that differentiate from one another by their overall impact on the organization. The distinction is made between contextual performance that helps to maintain the status quo and the running of the organization smoothly (which is classified as stabilizing contextual performance), and workplace behavior that actively seeks to improve ways of doing business by implementing new strategies and innovation (classified as proactive contextual performance) (Sonnentag and Frese, 2002: 3). To explore this distinction in more detail, stabilizing contextual performance is also named “organizational citizenship behavior” (Organ, 1988: 1). This type of behavior is not part of the formal requirements of a job and there is not linked to an organizational incentive. Each individual organizational citizenship behavior is not expected to make a measurable improvement to the overall organizational performance, however the totality of the effect will make a contributing in the better running of the business.

This type of behavior can take the form of helping others, following organizational rules, being involved in the matters that affect the organization and showing other workers kindness.

On the other hand, the proactive contextual behavior takes the form of taking personal initiative, taking charge in tasks and proactively engaging in solutions to issues (Sonnentag et al., 2008: 429). Among these activities, personal initiative is explained as not waiting for a direction to take action and engaging in solutions when deemed necessary by the worker. Such behavior is said to be exhibited when there is a clear alignment between the personal of the employee and organizational goals, so that the employee takes initiative to bring solutions that are consistent with the goals of the organization and themselves. Similarly, taking charge indicates being voluntary in engaging in activities that positively contribute to the functioning of the organization. Proactive behavior encompasses those activities that are aimed at challenging the existing work environment in order to create a more ideal situation in the future. When all these behavioral patterns that make up contextual performance are considered, it becomes clear that the concept far exceeds a single uniform set of behaviors and is instead extremely versatile and layered.

1.3.3. Job Performance Dimensions

Job performance can be studied in the two main categories of task and contextual performance. These constructs can be seen as two dimensions of the same phenomenon and therefore will have areas of overlap and conflict. One of the important ways these constructs can be seen to be at odds is their relative outcomes (Conway, 1999: 3). It is observed that although both types of employee performance are crucial for managerial success, they are differing contributions to that success. Likewise, it is suggested that these constructs are not interchangeable yet become important depending on the context of the situation (Griffin et al., 2007: 327). Therefore, it is clear that these constructs have multiple facets, each with implications for work performance of their own.

According to these findings, job performance must be viewed as a construct with multiple dimensions. These dimensions can be identified based on their origins

or their outcomes, their individual or contextual associations. Furthermore, these dimensions themselves become subject to further categorizations. The differences between such categories stem from their antecedent and consequences; and can be observed by the means of empirical studies. Nevertheless, it is clear that the accurate understanding and measurement of organizational and individual performance is crucial for the success of companies.



CHAPTER TWO

HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

2.1. TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND CREATIVITY

The link between transformational leadership and creativity has been well-documented in the literature, where it has been shown that leaders may have direct or indirect effect on employee creativity through creating favorable work environments (Jain and Jain, 2016: 299). The effect of enhancement of creativity works through several factors; some of which are “vision, support for innovation, autonomy, encouragement, recognition, and challenge” (Elkins and Keller, 2003: 587). It has also been shown that various components of transformational leadership are effective to support different parts of creativity development process; individual consideration component of transformational leadership may serve as incentive for employees to engage in creative behavior as it creates a sense recognition and reward, intellectual stimulation will boost creativity by challenging employees to think in disruptive ways that are outside the traditional ways of doing business, inspirational motivation will give encouragement to generate ideas that will help achieve organizational goals (Sosik et al., 1998: 113). The overall effect of transformational leadership will be felt as an increase in the motivation throughout the organization by the employees, which will be added incentive for the improvement of creativity (Tierney et al., 1999: 591).

Many theories exist that endeavor to explain the relationship between transformational leadership and creativity. One such theory posits that the increase in creativity is due to an elevated level of feeling of self-efficacy, which can be a result of transformational leadership in the organization (Bass, 1990: 19). Employees with higher levels of feeling of self-efficacy are argued to be more engaged in creative behavior. It has also been suggested that the effect can be due to the affectual relationships transformational leaders develop with their followers, which is also argued to be favorable for increasing creative behavior of the employees. This effect is explained by the extra effort employees will put into their creative endeavors to support the leader’s innovation initiatives.

Studies such as Shin and Zhou (2003: 703), provide empirical support for this hypothesized link, which report that employees demonstrate higher levels of creativity under transformational leaders. It is also important to note that cultural and organizational tendencies also play a part in determining the direction and strength of this relationship, as it was suggested that the effect tends to be stronger in collectivist societies than in individualistic ones (Jung and Yammarino, 2001: 3). Therefore, it would not be wrong to consider among the purposes of the present study to investigate this relationship in its own unique cultural and social context.

Recent studies have shown multiple ways leadership can increase employee creativity. Among these factors are “relational and task support, provision of autonomy, confidence enhancement, role modeling, encouraging creativity via expectations and rewards and facilitating communication and collaboration” (Tierney and Farmer, 2006: 13382). In addition to these factors, the role of motivation in the relationship between transformational leadership and creativity has been widely discussed in the literature (Bass, 1985: 1). The motivational aspect of transformational leadership has been identified as one of its chief components that contribute to the employee creativity. Researchers have indicated that self-regulatory focus can be a key aspect to explain motivations positive effect on creativity (Kark et al., 2018: 186). This theory differentiates between situational prevention focus versus promotion focus which may help explain the different effects of transactional and transformational leadership on employee creativity. These contrasting views of regulatory foci are explained in terms of individuals’ inclination to either strive to attain positive future goals or to prevent the occurrence of negative outcomes in existing situations. It is argued that transformational leadership invokes creative behavior in employees through its activation of promotion self-regulatory focus. This would also be in line with transformational leadership qualities of inspiring followers to attain a better future through appealing to their expectations and goals. Workers under such leadership focus on making changes to the status quo to create a better future, in alignment with the vision provided by the leader. This new point of view allows them to explore untried solutions and thus focus on the “ideal self.”

Other factors have also been considered to account for the relationship between transformational leadership and employee creativity. Among these factors are

“initiating structure, support, motivating tactics, and championing behaviors” (Beeler et al., 2006: 1). It is also argued that, as the relationship between leader and employees evolve, it will become more based in mutual support and trust, which will further facilitate creative behavior through increasing autonomy and initiative-taking in decision making processes.

Another study investigates both organizational and employee levels to account for transformational leadership’s effect on creative behavior (Liu et al., 2020: 36). It is suggested that the effect will be explained by transformational leadership’s formative influence on work environment at the organizational level. On the individual level, transformational leadership will be directly tied to human capital, which will heighten social interactions and mutual trust at the workplace, and through increasing knowledge transfer between employees, these constructs will trigger more creative behavior by the employees. The study argues that the construct of human capital must be analyzed as a key component in understanding the relationship between transformational leadership and creativity, as it is a chief factor to increase employees’ ability adopt new skills and knowledge, and also find new ways to improve existing business practices. It is suggested that increased human capital will allow for better network ties to be built within the organization, which will elevate knowledge transfer between individuals and department and the increased circulation of knowledge will act a catalyst for creativity in the organization. Therefore, this study foregrounds transformational leadership’s ability to increase social interactions and mutual trust between employees as the main factor that ignites creative behavior.

As demonstrated in the literature by above mentioned studies, there is ample support to hypothesize a link between transformational leadership and creativity. Moving from the existing literature, the unique properties of transformational leadership make this link a logical one. As its name implies, transformational leadership is defined by its ability to “transform” organizations to achieve higher levels of success. As a natural part of the transformation process, leaders will want employees to challenge the status-quo and produce work that brings innovation to their field of work, which may take the form of either improvements to products or processes within the organization. Consequentially, tangible and moral incentives provided to employees will be associated with rewarding creative behavior. In such a context, it

would follow that employees will be more motivated to engage in creative behavior and thus the level of creative behavior they exhibit at the work place will be higher. Thus, the first hypothesis is proposed such that there will exist a positive relationship between the constructs of transformational leadership and employee creativity.

H1: Transformational leadership will have a positive relationship with employee creativity.

2.2. CREATIVITY AND TASK PERFORMANCE

The link between employee creativity and job performance has been the subject of a number of studies. Individual creativity has been identified as a key factor for organizational innovation, which plays a major part in creating and sustain competitive advantage in the market (Oldham and Cummings, 1996: 607). The creativity-performance relationship can be better understood when components of creative behavior is dissected, which includes not only identifying new opportunities for product development, but also finding novel uses for the existing products and methods (Gumusluoglu and Ilsev, 2009: 464). This type of behavior encompasses coming-up with all kinds of novel and useful work-related ideas, and includes finding creative ways to implement solutions to problems and developing plans to see these processes through. Considering the value of these activities for the overall effectiveness of employees to fulfill the obligations of their jobs, it is small wonder that the relationship between creativity and job performance is so closely linked.

It has been argued that creative behavior in employees is tied to developing novel ideas and bringing improvements to existing work processes (Tesluk, 1997: 27). The willingness to develop ideas, explore possibilities and acquire new knowledge has been shown to have a positive effect on task performance (Amabile, 1996: 367). In other studies it has been shown that the willingness of employees to acquire new knowledge is a critical factor for performance, as it spurs individuals on to learn new skills which allows them to perform more highly in their jobs (Walumbwa, 2009: 1103). This effect can be explained also by increased motivation of employees to perform higher in face of the higher creativity standards.

There have been a number of other studies that also connects creative behavior of employees and their task performance (Gong et al., 2009: 765). Moving from these findings, it is suggested that employee creativity will be positively related to employee task performance. This proposition stands to reason when the activities that count under creativity in workplace are considered. A big part of creative behavior in a work environment is associated with producing novel and useful ideas that are of high quality. This definition can entail coming up with a new product or services, or rather improving the existing processes of the organization by inventing new uses for existing structures. Such activities are intimately tied to innovation and disruption in the work environment, which are crucial aspects for high task performance in many job sectors. It is clear that, especially in professions where such attributes of innovation, novelty, and disruption are part of the job description and are explicitly expected from the employee, an increase in these creative behavior will naturally lead to better task performance, since it will allow employees to better fulfill the requirements of the jobs. It is not suggested that this effect will be uniform for all profession and pursuits as demand for creativity will be incorporated into the requirements of a given job in various proportions. This uneven effect will be addressed in the latter hypotheses of this study. Nevertheless, it is possible to speak of an overall relationship between the constructs of employee creativity and task performance in a more general way, and it is hypothesized that this relationship will be of positive nature such that as one construct increases so will the other.

H2: Employee creativity will have a positive relationship with task performance.

2.3. MODERATION EFFECT OF CREATIVE REQUIREMENT

Effects of contextual factors on the job performance and creativity have been demonstrated in past studies. Creative requirement of the job can be counted among those factors. It has been shown that organizations and jobs that have a high requirement of creativity from their employees will tend to reward creative behavior, and this in turn will work to enhance self-determination and motivation of employees

(Eisenberger and Rhoades, 2001: 728). Additionally, other environment-specific factors such as job complexity, autonomy, time pressure, and role requirements have been shown to have a substantial effect the creativity and performance levels of employees (Hammond et al., 2011: 90). The link between contextual factors such as creative requirement and employee creativity has also been attributed to the role of intrinsic motivation in past studies.

The effect of creative requirement on employee creativity and performance may be partly attributed to perception of job obligations. It is argued that when employees are aware of higher expectations from management to be creative, they are likely to dedicate more effort and time in engaging in creative behavior. This link between job perception and creative behavior has been supported by empirical findings in past studies (Carmeli and Schaubroeck, 2007: 35; Scott and Bruce, 1994: 580). It has also been suggested that the influence of creative requirement on employee creative behavior can be explained by what is named by Tierney and Farmer (2004: 413) as the “Pygmalion Effect.” This theory posits that the increase in creativity in jobs with higher creative requirement will be linked to the creativity-related support leader provide to employees. This support will be internalized by the employees which will in turn increase their self-efficacy and allow them to engage in more creative activities. Other studies have also looked at the role of trust and job autonomy in explaining the relationship between transformational leadership and creativity (Saleem and Mahmood, 2018: 1).

The effect of contextual factors such as creative requirement is an area that is in need of further research in the literature. Most studies that investigate the relationship of transformational leadership to various ancillary factors do so in the specific context of a sample from a given job or company. A construct such as creativity, which is highly dynamic by its nature, requires a more nuanced approach as the nature of various jobs and tasks even within a given organization will vary in their requirement to be creative. Therefore it emerges the strength of the creativity-task performance relationship will depend considerably on the nature of a job. Here, the nature of the job is conceptualized through employees’ perceptions of their duties at the workplace.

Then it becomes evident that when exploring the relationship between creativity and task performance, a chief consideration must be the requirement of creativity in a given job. So it follows that, among the chief interests of the present study is to investigate the variance in the strength of this relationship across multiple job groups. It is thus proposed that, creative requirement will moderate the strength of this relationship such that, the positive relationship between creativity and task performance will be higher in job groups where creativity is a bigger part of the job requirements and therefore is more intimately connected to various tasks employees will be expected to fulfill.

H3: Job creative requirement will moderate the creativity-performance relationship such that the relationship is more positive in professions with high rather than low creative requirement.

2.4. MODERATED MEDIATION EFFECT OF CREATIVITY

The role of creativity as a mediator between transformational leadership and job performance has been previously investigated in the literature (Aryee et al., 2012: 1). It has been proposed that, through its positive effect on the constructs of meaningfulness and responsibility, transformational leadership will increase the work engagement of employees. The heightened levels of work engagement, moderated by the construct of leader-member exchange, will lead to an increase in innovative behavior in employees, which in turn will facilitate higher levels of task performance.

The link between transformational leadership and job performance is also well established. Although it is taken that transformational leadership will be positively related to job performance (Bass, 1985: 1), the relationship between specific types of performance also bears significant importance. In past studies, transformational leadership has been shown to effect both task and contextual performances (Gong, et al., 2008: 756; Shin and Zhou, 2007: 703).

Among these two dimensions, the present study investigates task performance of employees. The effect of transformational leadership on task performance has been shown to take place on a multitude of levels. First of these levels is tied to the intrinsic

motivation aspect of transformational leadership. It is suggested that, through the effect of through articulating a compelling vision for the future and aligning employees work objectives with that vision, transformational leaders increase employees' perceived value of their work, therefore encouraging them to work harder to achieve those goals (Bono and Judge, 2003: 554).

Another element of transformational leadership that positively affect task performance is the increased belief of followers in their ability to successfully carry out the requirements of their task (Shamir et al., 1993: 557). The resulting boost in employee self-efficacy has shown to be linked to higher levels of task performance.

Individualized consideration aspect of transformational leadership must also be considered to explain its relationship to task performance. Through mentoring and coaching aspects of transformational leadership, followers become better equipped with the tools they require to successfully complete tasks. Coupled with the encouragement and support transformational leaders provide for their followers, these aspects have also been linked to having positive effects on task performance of employees (Howell and Hall-Merenda, 1999: 680).

Other studies that have inspected the relationship between transformational leadership and task performance have also found supporting evidence that further validated this association (Liao and Chuang, 2007: 1006; MacKenzie et al., 2001: 115). In light of these and other studies cited above, present study posits a relationship between the constructs of transformational leadership and task performance, and hypothesizes there will exist a mediation effect between these factors by the construct of employee creativity. The relationship between the constructs is predicted to be positive, in that higher levels of transformational leadership is predicted to increase employee creativity, and increased creative behavior by employees will in turn have a positive effect on their task performance and allow them to perform more highly compared to the condition where transformational leadership does not exist.

However, the proposed model does not predict that the strength of this relationship will be same under all circumstances. Specifically, the nature of the job performed by the employee is predicted to have a moderating effect on creativity's role as a mediator. The construct that will be of concern in the study is creative requirement, which dictates how much creativity is required by employees in order to successfully

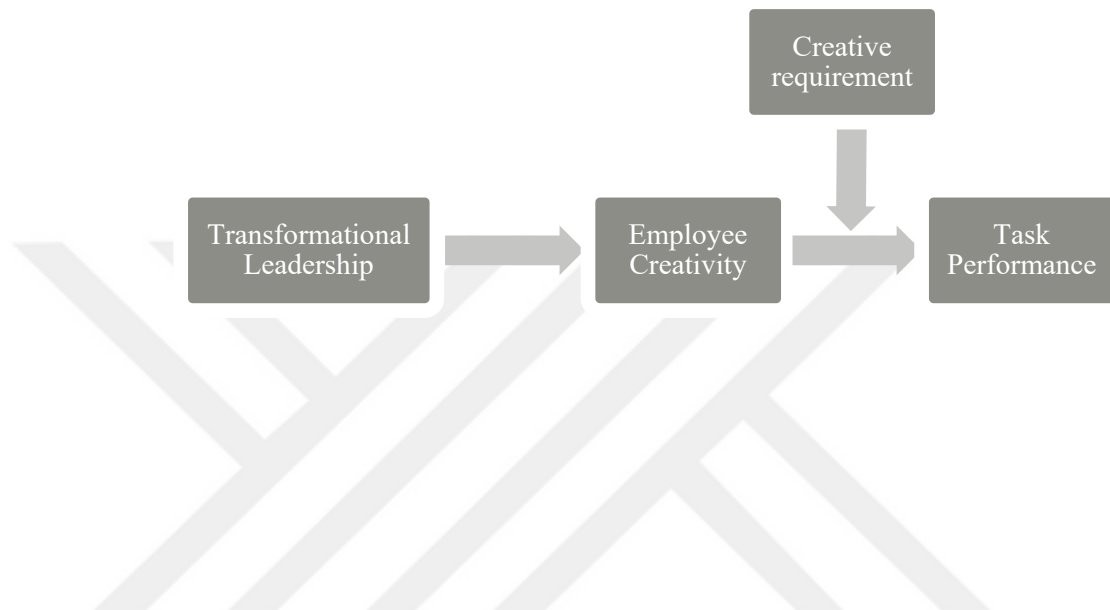
carry out their duties. It is important to note that an objective assessment that delineates points to various job categories that reflect their creative requirements is not favored by this study, as this approach overlooks the specificities of each singular job, the organizational context in which the job takes place, and the requirements of each individual task performed by the employee. An overall assessment of this type would not only be far from objective, it would also not serve the theoretical purposes of this study as the construct of interest here is the employees' perception of their jobs' creative requirement instead of an objective and standardized version of such a parameter. This becomes important in the sense that no matter the actual demands of a job or task, what creates the influence on the creativity and performance levels of the individual is predicted to be how employees perceive such demands. This perception will bear directed on the outcome of their job performances. Thus the moderating effect of creative requirement is predicted to take place such that in work environment with higher creative requirement, the moderating effect of creativity will be stronger. This suggestion also stands to reason when viewed from a logical stand point; it would be expected that, if an individual's job has explicit requirements that are perceived by the employee that states they must be creative in order to perform their duties, the individual will be expected to show higher effort to engage in creative behavior, and in relation to that, this behavior's effect on their task performance will proportionally be higher as showing more creativity in a job that requires high levels of creative output to be successful will presumably result in more desired outcomes in terms of the individual's task performance.

In line with these considerations and examples in from the literature, the following hypotheses are proposed, which suggests a stage 2 moderated mediation effect will be observed between the constructs. The model of the study is also presented in Figure 1 in visual form.

H4a: The relationship between transformational leadership and task performance will be mediated by employee creativity.

H4b: The strength of this mediation effect will depend on creative requirement of the profession such that creative requirement will moderate the path from the mediator (creativity) to the dependent variable (task performance).

Figure 1: Theoretical Model



CHAPTER THREE

METHOD

3.1. SAMPLE AND PROCEDURE

The sample for this study has been selected as working professionals from various vocational and demographic groups. The selection criteria for field of work have been intentionally kept comprehensive for several reasons. The main reason for not restricting participants to a particular job, age, or tenure category was to obtain a sample that would best serve the aims of this particular study. As one of this study's main objectives is to measure the strength of creativity-task performance relationship in various vocational fields with different requirements of creativity from the workers, it was deemed necessary to obtain information from as wide a spectrum of professions and demographics possible. This way, the more variance there was among the job groups, the more accurately various demands of creativity could be assessed to comment on the effect of this construct. It was judged that the level of variance in creative requirement between jobs would be difficult to obtain had the data been collected from a single firm or vocational group. This approach also bears the potential of producing insights about the perception of employees regarding the creative requirement of their professions, as the construct of interest is how expectations and requirements of a particular job are perceived by the employees, rather than a standardized score.

To achieve these ends, data was collected from a diverse group of participants. In the end, 272 respondents' answers were collected to be analyzed as a part of this study. Participants were reached through means of online communication and the participant number was accumulated through the snowball effect, as surveys were distributed on online platforms and participants were asked to forward the survey to their relations after answering. To ensure the diversity in responses, as many demographic and vocational groups were targeted as possible.

In the resulting data, participants were divided into 21 main job categories. Among these categories, the highest percentage was taken up by participants in the education sector with participants in this job category making up 26.1% of the entire

sample. Second highest percentage in job categories belonged to health sector, which trailed education closely with 25.7%. Placing third among the job categories was engineering and manufacturing with 12.7%, and fourth was accountancy, banking, and finance with 6%. Rest of the sample was divided among the remaining job categories.

Among these job categories, participants reported a wide range of perceived creative requirement for their jobs. Taking into account job categories with 4 or more participants, highest reported creative requirement was from the sectors of human resources management, information technologies, and engineering and manufacturing. On the other side of the spectrum, participants reported the lowest levels of perceived creative requirement for the job categories of public relations, law, and accountancy, banking and finance. Highest range of response for creative requirement came in the job categories of health, public services, and education.

The sample of the study comprised of 57% male participants and 43% female participants. Most participants in the study came in the age range of 25 to 39 year old, as 47.6% of the participants belonged in this category. Next highest group in the age categories was 40 to 60 year old participants with this age group making up the 41% of the whole sample. Following these groups were the age brackets of 18 to 24 year old with 7.7% of the sample, and 60 plus year old participant with a percentage of 3.7%.

Most participants in the study have reported to be university graduates, with 50.7% of the population of the sample belonging to this group. Following this group was participants with a postgraduate degree, who made up 43.4% of the entire population belonging to this group. These two categories put together made up 94.1% of the entire sample, which indicates a significant majority of the participants of the study were graduates of higher education institutes. This does not come as a surprise, since the primary target group of the study were working professional, who presumably are in possession of university diplomas in order to qualify for their professions. High percentage of participants with postgraduate degrees indicates an above average level of education for the participants of the study in contrast to the general public.

Tenure of the workers who participated in the study was also of interest, since this construct could potentially be of effect in terms of the relationship employees

could have built with their supervisors, which in turn could either enhance or inhibit the effectiveness of transformational leadership's influence on employee creativity. In keeping with this logic, tenure of the participants at their workplace was recorded and it was found that 42.3% of the participants had 10 years or more at their current workplace. This finding was meaningful in that it eliminated the drawbacks that might come with workers who have not worked long enough at the job to have acquired the needed skills and social networks in order to perform highly. Next in this category were the participants who had worked between 1 and 5 years at their workplace, with the percentage of 25.7%. Following this group was worker who had been at their workplace between 5 and 10 year with 21% and those who had less than 1 year with 11%.

However, tenure at the workplace may not be enough to comment on the quality of the relationships workers have with their supervisors, as (especially those workers who have been at the same workplace for a long time) workers may work with multiple supervisors during their tenure at a given workplace. Therefore it was also of importance to collect data on how long workers had been working with their current supervisors at their workplace. As the result of this inquiry, it was found that 44.1% of the participants had been working with their current supervisors between 1 and 5 years. 20% of the participants had been with their current supervisor between 5 and 10 years. 18.5% of the participants had been with their current supervisor under 1 year and 17.4% over 10 years.

The study was done by administering surveys to participants. Participants were asked to select from a scale of responses that best represented their views and attitudes towards the statement given in that question. At the beginning of the survey, participants were informed about the purposes and goals of the study. It was communicated that the collected that was to be used only for academic purposes, and their responses were collected in full anonymity. After a brief description of the content of the study, participants were directed to complete the questionnaires.

The survey comprised of 5 individual parts, each with its own section. Participants could move to the next section after completing the questions at their current one. Before each section, brief and clear directions were provided to assist participants in correctly completing the surveys. Out of the 5 sections mentions, first

4 were dedicated to measure the 4 constructs that are of interest to this study, namely transformational leadership, creativity, creative requirement, and task performance. Last section was dedicated to collecting demographic data from the participants. Surveys were administered to the participants in one session, and all relevant data was collected from the individuals participating in the survey. This research design was selected instead of identifying a single firm and collecting data from workers and their corresponding supervisors, because the aim of the study was to collect data from as diverse a range of professions as possible, which dictated that the data collection process could not be confined to a single firm and thus the practicalities of identifying supervisors to collect data about workers would be problematic, since there were a wide range of workers coming from multiple sectors. All questionnaires were distributed digitally and responses were collected in digital format.

3.2. MEASURES

3.2.1. Transformational Leadership

In order to analyze transformational leadership, the 7-item scale developed by Carless et al. (2000: 389) was used for the purposes of this study. Carless et al. identifies main components of transformational leadership as “vision, staff development, supportive leadership, empowerment, innovative thinking, lead by example and charisma.” The scale measures each item with a unique item in the questionnaire. Previous transformational leadership scales such as Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes and Posner, 1990: 1) and Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Avolio et al., 1995: 1) were utilized in the forming of the scale. It was identified that Leadership Practices Inventory measures 5 main dimensions of transformational leadership and Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire measures 3 dimensions. In order to attain a more global yet compact scale, the dimensions that are measured were increased and the number of items for each dimension were minimized to the statement that bears the most explanatory power for the dimension. Sample items from the scale can be given as “communicates a clear and positive vision of the future” and “treats staff as individuals, supports and encourages their development.”

The approach of the scale presented a number of advantages for the purposes of this study. Firstly, it presents a more compact version of a transformational leadership scale that is easier for participants to comprehend and complete. This becomes important for retaining the attention and participation of survey participants, especially in online environment where the supervision over participants is minimal and the incentive for completing the survey is also small; therefore it helps to use a compact survey to keep participants involved in the study. Secondly, the compact nature of the survey helps clarify the purpose and weight of each item. With each statement dedicated squarely to a single dimension analyzed, the survey presents practical advantages when administering and analyzing the questions.

The scale was used by numerous studies in the literature and has been widely cited in the past. The items of the survey were obtained from the original study and were translated to Turkish carefully for the purposes of this study. In the data analysis, the reliability of the scale (the Cronbach's alpha) was found to be .960, therefore sufficiently reliable. A 5-point Likert scale was used in collecting responses from participants, with 1 corresponding to "strongly disagree" and 5 corresponding to "strongly agree."

3.2.2. Employee Creativity

To measure employee creativity, a scale developed by Ettlie and O'Keefe was utilized (1982: 163). This scale comprised of four items serves as a practical tool to measure various facets of employee creative behavior such as product and service development, problem solving and inventing new methods. One advantage of this scale was that it was designed as a self-report instrument, therefore its reliability for collecting data from employees was of lesser concern. This consideration was especially important when methodical concerns such as common method bias are taken into account. Items in the questionnaire was designed in a way such that it was suitable to administer to employees. Sample items from the questionnaire can be cited as "I find new uses for existing methods or equipment" and "I try out new ideas and approaches to problems." In data analysis, the Cronbach's alpha score for the scale was found to be .810, therefore it is suggested that the scale has demonstrated suitable

reliability. The items of the survey were obtained from the original study and were translated to Turkish carefully for the purposes of this study. A 5-point Likert scale was used in collecting responses from participants, with 1 corresponding to “strongly disagree” and 5 corresponding to “strongly agree.”

3.2.3. Job Creative Requirement

To assess the creative requirement of each job category, the measurement tool developed by Unsworth et al. (2005: 541) was utilized. The Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was found to be .872 in analysis of the data collected. The scale is comprised of 5 items and measure the creativity requirement of a job in its various facets. The answers were collected using a 5-point Likert scale with responses ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.” The scale measures areas of work in which employees may be expected to exhibit creative behavior, and assess the perception of the employees about the creative requirement of their jobs. It is important to note such perceptions are constructed as a result of the expectations and demands from the employee that may be put to them both in explicit manner (in their job description or part of the formal briefing they get from their supervisors) or in more implicit and implied ways (such as responses and feedback they may get for a task they competed or though in-group communications at the work environment).

The scale is designed in a way that the construct of creativity is not limited to just innovation in product or suggestion of novel ideas. Multiple ways in which their jobs may demand employees to be creative are considered in order to create a more unbiased and inclusive definition of the construct. Some of the ways in which the creative demand is predicted to take place is through bringing changes to work structures such as facilities, organization of work, goals, procedures, and work environment. Therefore, multiple conceptualizations of creativity have been taken into consideration while constructing this questionnaire. Sample items that can be cited include “my job requires me to have ideas about changing ways of organizing work” and “my job requires me to have ideas about changing the environment in which I work.” Scale items were obtained from the original version of the measurement tool and were translated to Turkish carefully for the purposes of this study.

3.2.4. Task Performance

To assess the task performance exhibited by the participants, a performance scale developed by Williams and Anderson (1991: 601) was utilized. This study defines task performance as interchangeable with in-role performance, which encompasses all activities that are listed under the formal requirements of the job and is considered to be an essential part of the “role” of the employee within the organization. Study differentiates this type of performance with organizational citizenship behavior, which is more akin to the contextual aspects of job performance identified in the literature. The study analyzes a number of items and explores their explaining power for different types of job performance identified. 7 items that have shown to exhibit highest explanatory power for in-role behavior are included in the scale developed to assess task performance of employees. For the purposes of this study, 2 items that have shown to have lower explanatory power for the construct has been omitted and a total of 5 items were administered to participants, one of them being a reverse question.

Items in the questionnaire evaluates how well employees fulfill various aspects of their job descriptions. These aspects include meeting the performance requirements of the job and fulfilling the obligations associated with the job. The questionnaire was administered to participants directly through online methods. Some sample items from the questionnaire are “I perform tasks that are expected of me” and “I adequately completes assigned duties.” Through analysis of the data collected, the Cronbach’s alpha score for the scale was found to be .753. The items of the survey were obtained from the original study and were translated to Turkish carefully for the purposes of this study. A 5-point Likert scale was used in collecting responses from participants, with 1 corresponding to “strongly disagree” and 5 corresponding to “strongly agree.”

3.2.5. Control Variables

Data for a number of additional control variables were collected as a part of this study. Collection of data for these control variables served to explain any effects these constructs may have on the relationships that are analyzed as part of this study.

These control variables include education level, organizational tenure, and tenure with the current supervisor. The effect of transformational leadership has been shown to work through affectual ties with employees, and certain aspects such as individualized consideration requires a good working relationship to be built between the leader and the follower in order to fully take effect. Considering this, how long a worker has worked with their supervisor may have direct implications for the potential effectiveness of transformational leadership, which is among the chief constructs studied in this research. Moreover, the quality of transformational leadership will have a role in determining the level of correlation that may take place with creativity, therefore it is considered important for the purposes of this study to collect data that relates to the tenure of the employees within the organization.

Another way tenure in an organization or with a supervisor may be significant for this study is its potential effect on task performance of the employees. Since task performance measures how well employees are able to perform duties associated with their jobs, how long they have been doing it may have a direct relationship with how well they are able to perform. In this line of thinking, level of education is also a construct that must be considered while investigating these relationships between constructs, since it might be expected that a higher level of education in a job may result in demonstrating higher performance in fulfilling requirements associated with that job.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

Table 1 shows zero-order correlations among study variables. As seen from the table, and as expected, all substantive variables have positive correlations.

Table 1: Correlations, Means, Standard Deviations and Reliabilities

	Mean	S. D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Ed. Level	3.38	.594	-						
2. Job ten.	2.94	1.06	.047	-					
3. Sup. ten.	2.36	.976	.006	.630**	-				
4. Creativity	4.19	.647	-.084	.030	.140*	(.81)			
5. Task perf.	4.43	.567	-.057	.142*	.156*	.398**	(.75)		
6. Tr. lead.	3.38	1.24	-.006	-.191**	-.022	.292**	.113	(.96)	
7. Crea. req.	3.52	1.03	-.052	-.003	.006	.382**	.218**	.228**	(.87)

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. N = 269. Education level numeric code: 1: Primary school, 2: High school, 3: Bachelor's degree, 4: Postgraduate degree.

4.1. DISCRIMINANT VALIDITY

Before hypothesis testing, discriminant validity of the study measures was examined using Mplus version 8.4 (Muthen and Muthen, 2019: 1). Accordingly, the hypothesized four-factor model that treats transformational leadership, creativity, creative requirement, and job performance variables as distinct constructs was compared to the following three alternative models: 1) a three-factor model that consisted of transformational leadership, job performance, and the combination of creativity and creative requirement variables into a single factor (Chi-Square = 714.165, $df = 186$, $p < .01$, CFI = .86, RMSEA = .10, SRMR = .096); 2) a two-factor model that consisted of TL and the combination of other variables into a single factor, (Chi-Square = 1119.703, $df = 188$, $p < .01$, CFI = .76, RMSEA = .14, SRMR = .11); and 3) a one-factor model that combined all four variables into a single factor (Chi-

Square = 1948.794, $df = 189$, $p < .01$, CFI = .55, RMSEA = .19, SRMR = .19). The hypothesized four-factor model had the best fit to the data (Chi-Square = 411.223, $df = 183$, $p < .01$, CFI = .94, RMSEA = .068, SRMR = .058), and had significantly better fit than the alternative models, as indicated by significant chi-square difference tests (all p 's $< .05$) and better fit indices. As such, these results support the discriminant validity of the constructs measured in the current study.

4.2. HYPOTHESIS TESTS

The hypotheses of the study were tested using Process macro for SPSS (Hayes, 2012: 1). Because the overall model refers to a second stage moderated mediation, Model 14 of the Process Macro was suitable for the analyses. Becker (2005: 274) argues that when testing hypotheses, only the control variables that have significant zero-order correlations with at least one endogenous variable in a model should be controlled for. In keeping with this recommendation, in the current study, tenure with organization and with supervisor were controlled for in all hypothesis tests, as they were correlated with at least one endogenous variable (i.e., creativity or job performance, see Table 1). Further, all hypotheses' tests were performed with and without these control variables and the findings were not different. For completeness of information, results involving control variables are reported. The results of hypotheses tests are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Results of Hypothesis Tests (Process Model 14)

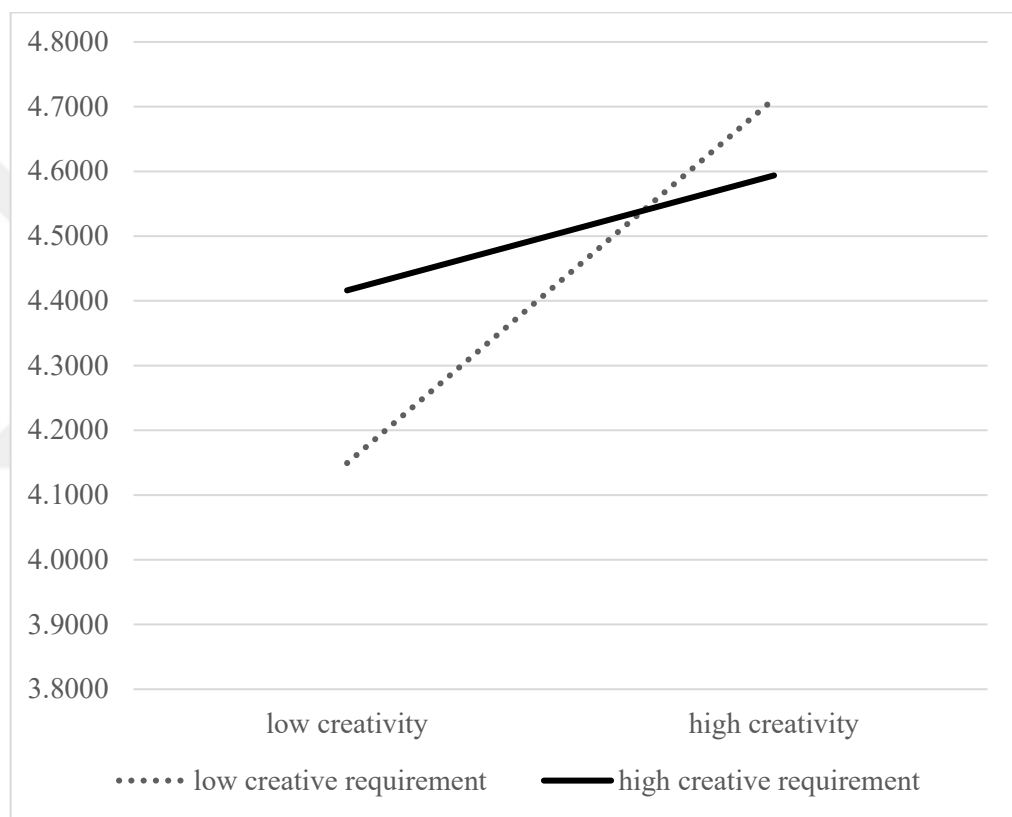
	Outcomes	
	Creativity	Job Performance
Intercept	-.74 (.17)**	4.22 (.14)**
<i>Controls</i>		
Tenure with organization	-.00 (.05)	.05 (.04)
Tenure with Supervisor	.1 (.05)*	.03 (.04)
<i>Predictor variables</i>		
Transformational Leadership	.15 (.03)**	.01 (.03)
Creativity	-	.28 (.05)**
Creative Requirement	-	.03 (.03)
Creativity x Creative Requirement Interaction	-	-.14 (.04)**

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, $N = 269$.

Firstly, transformational leadership was found to have a positive relationship with employee creativity ($B = .15$, $p < .01$). Moving from this result, it is possible to say the Hypothesis 1 of the study was supported by the empirical findings. Further, in support of Hypothesis 2, creativity was positively related to self-reported task performance ($B = .28$, $p < .01$). Hypothesis 3 predicted that the positive relationship between creativity and task performance would be stronger to the extent that creative requirements of a job is high. Creativity and creative requirement variables were grand mean-centered prior to analyzing their interaction effect. The creativity x creative requirement interaction effect on task performance was significant, $B = -.14$, $p < .01$, and explained 3.6% of the total variance in job performance, $R^2 = .036$, $F(1, 264) = 12.15$, $p < .01$. Next, the nature of this interaction effect was examined through simple slope analysis using the procedure described by Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken (2003: 267). Accordingly, the effect of creativity on task performance was examined

separately at one standard deviation below and one standard deviation above the mean of creative requirement. In contrast to Hypothesis 3, creativity was positively related to job performance when creative requirement was low ($b = .43, p < .01$), but not related when creative requirement was high ($b = .14, ns$). Thus, Hypothesis 3 was not supported. The simple slope graph of this interaction effect is shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2: The Relationship Between Creativity and Performance at Low and High Levels of Creative Requirement



The next hypotheses, Hypothesis 4a and 4b, predicted mediation and moderated mediation effects respectively. Specifically, Hypothesis 4a stated that creativity would mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and job performance. On the other hand, Hypothesis 4b predicted that this mediation effect would be moderated in the second stage (that is, the path from creativity to job performance) by job's creative requirement. To do these analyses, a bootstrap analysis with 10000 bias-corrected bootstraps was performed in Process macro. The indirect

effect of transformational leadership on job performance through creativity was positive and significant, effect = .04, standard error = .01, bootstrapped 95% CI = .02 and .08. Thus, Hypothesis 4a is supported. Further, the moderated mediation effect was significant (index of moderated mediation = -.02, Bootstrapped SE = .009, 95% CI = -.04 and -.01). On the other hand, the pattern of the moderated mediation showed that the mediation effect of creativity in the relationship between transformational leadership and job performance was significant when a job's creative requirement is low (effect = .07, standard error = .02, bootstrapped 95% CI = .03 and .11), but not significant when a job's creative requirement was high (effect = .02, standard error = .01, bootstrapped 95% CI = -.003 and .05). This finding was in contrast to the prediction of Hypothesis 4b. Thus, Hypothesis 4b was not supported.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

5.1. DISCUSSION

Analysis of the data suggests a number of insights concerning the construct investigated in this study. Firstly, transformational leadership and employee creativity was found to be positively related, and this finding offers support for the relationship stated in Hypothesis 1. Next hypothesis suggested a positive relationship between creativity and task performance. Empirical evidence was parallel to this prediction, therefore was in support of Hypothesis 2. Hypothesis 3 predicted job creative requirement will have a moderating effect on the relationship between creativity and task performance, suggesting in jobs with higher creative requirement, creativity's effect on task performance would expected to be higher. Observances from data suggested that creative requirement's moderating effect existed, however it was in the reverse direction of the initial predictions, meaning in jobs with lower creative requirement, creativity seemed to have a more substantial role in determining task performance of employees. Consequently, since the effect expected in Hypothesis 3 was observed in reverse direction, it was not supported by the empirical data. Hypothesis 4a which looked at creativity's mediating role between transformational leadership and task performance was sufficiently supported as transformational leadership was found to be positively and significantly related to task performance. Lastly, Hypothesis 4b which predicted job creativity requirement would have a positive moderating effect in the mediating role of creativity was not supported as evidence obtained from data suggested a reverse directionality for this construct.

Through negation and verification of the preconceived ideas about the relationships that were expected to be overserved between these constructs, a new level of comprehension is reached which suggests numerous new possibilities for their explanation and new avenues for future research. Among chief of these considerations, the relationship that was observed in relation to the mediation effect of employee creativity and the moderation effect of job creative requirement must be counted. In contrast to some of the preliminary theories that were proposed by this study,

relationships that were observed between these constructs suggests new possibilities for their understanding. Specifically, alternative routes to explain the effect of creative requirement on the relationship between creativity and task performance at workplace must be considered.

Based on the effects that were observed in relation to task performance of employees, it is fitting to propose a model that looks at the construct of creativity in light of these findings. Firstly, it was this study's preliminary assumption that employee creativity would positively predict task performance of employees, especially in jobs that had high requirement for creativity, meaning the task involved in these jobs would be inherently connected to exhibiting creative behavior in order to do fulfill them successfully. This proposed mediation and moderation effects were based on prior findings in literature and also an inherent understanding about the nature of these constructs. Although theoretically feasible, there are a number of factors that may come into play in these processes that were outside the consideration of this study's research design which may have played a role in swaying the results of the analysis in a way that materialized them further away from the initial assumptions than expected.

First among these constructs that deserves mention in discussing the results of the study is a potential ceiling effect that may be observed in these work environments. Garin (2014: 1) describes this phenomenon as the decrease in variance of data obtained from a measurement when all participants score near the highest possible achievement. When the findings tend to cluster towards the higher end of the spectrum in such a manner, it is observed that the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable diminishes to an insignificant amount, due to the saturation effect that take place in the results. That is to say, when all participants tend to score highly in the measurement of a given construct, the explanatory power of this variable is lost because it no longer has the ability to distinguish between participants of the study.

In this light, the results obtained in this study has newfound significance. It is clear to observe that, jobs with high creative requirement will be populated by individuals with higher levels of creativity. These results will be due to both the selection of individuals of these jobs because they more closely match their abilities, and also the recruitment preferences of the employers, since, knowing the job requires

high levels of creativity to be successful, they will be more inclined to hire individuals that are able demonstrate high levels of creativity at workplace. As a result of this dual selection process, people who end up working in jobs with high creative requirement will also naturally have high levels of creativity.

Therefore, when creativity is taken as a distinguishing factor between these individuals in correlation with task performance, lower levels of explanatory power may be found due to this saturation effect. Which is to say, when it is expected for individuals to exhibit creative behavior at work and it becomes the average behavior and not a distinguishing feat of achievement, the variance in task performance will depend on factors other than creativity, since it no longer represents an advantage for any of the employees. As a result, it is intriguing to speculate that, through the ceiling effect observed in the organizations, creative requirement may have a reverse effect than what was initially expected. It is not far-fetched to presume that, when the playing field is level in terms of employee creativity, other factors besides creativity will have a bigger effect on explaining the task performance.

5.2. IMPLICATIONS OF FINDINGS

This new line of thinking has a number of significant outcomes. Firstly, it becomes important to evaluate ancillary employee traits in jobs with high creative requirement to explain variances in employee performance. If creativity fails to explain why certain employees perform more highly than others, factors that may work to support and enable creative traits must be considered to explain such variances. Traits such as commitment, social abilities, and work habits are a few that come to mind as first possible factors that may be considered to explain this relationship.

Another important consideration is about the fit between employees and jobs. Conventional wisdom would dictate that creative individuals will tend to favor jobs with high creative requirement and will perform better at them since it suits their abilities. But in light of the findings, it is also possible to suggest that after a certain threshold where all employees exhibit such behavior, creativity ceases to be the main indicator of success and other factors start bearing more heavily for their explanation. As such, it may be argued that creative individuals may perform more highly in jobs

that have lower creative requirements, since their creativity will then be a distinguishing factor from other employees and will allow them to achieve higher levels of task performance.

Also of note are the recruitment choices of employers in light of the findings of this study. As discussed above, seeming congruence of employees with the specified job descriptions may not be the sole factor in determining the task performance they will exhibit at workplace. After a certain threshold, it must be considered that the ceiling effect may come in play and the primary success factor for the job may cease to be able to distinguish between employees in terms of their job performances. Therefore, it would be fitting for employers to seek out employees that are multifaceted and are able to exhibit proficiency in areas that are beyond the formal job descriptions. Such considerations would also be true for employers for jobs with lower levels of creative requirement. For them, employees that have creative capabilities may just be the resource they need to push the performance of their organizations to the next level, as these individuals will likely exhibit performance that exceed the expectations of their employers.

On theoretical level, there are other possible explanations that may account for the results observed in data analysis. One such explanation is the consideration of multiple conceptions of job performance at workplace. Present study examined the connection between creativity of individuals and the creative requirements of their job in relation to the task performance. Reasons for this theoretical choice, as recounted above, has to do with the intimate relationship between requirements of a job and the tasks employees are obliged to perform in order to be successful at them. Higher the creative requirement of a job, more the employees will be entrusted with tasks that requires them to be creative in order to successfully fulfill them. Although the relationship between these three constructs is clear to see, it must also not be forgotten that the fourth component that is researched as part of this study is transformational leadership. Therefore it is equally important to theorize about the implications of transformational leadership on these constructs as it is important to analyze the internal relationship they have amongst themselves.

That is to say, employee creativity is not only expected to have a positive relationship with task performance, it is also expected to function as a mediator

between transformational leadership and task performance. It is then important to assess the areas of potential interest between transformational leadership and task performance to accurately comment on the findings of this study. It has been discussed in the preceding sections of this study that there is ample support in the literature to hypothesize a connection between transformational leadership and task performance. Theories in this line of thinking assert that transformational leadership will enhance many attributes and skills employees need to perform more highly in tasks, and will create an environment that is conducive to elevate employees' task performance.

While that is true, it is also of importance that transformational leadership is predicted to have a positive relationship with other dimensions of employee performance as well. Besides task performance, the other dimension of job performance that scholars have extensively elaborated on is contextual performance. The construct, which is at times referred to as organizational citizenship behavior or extra-role performance in various parts of the literature, accounts for a large part of the overall job performance employees exhibit at the workplace. As discussed in preceding chapters, contextual performance refers to activities that are outside the formal description of an employee's job and therefore is not rewarded through formal mechanisms within the organizations nor can they be enforced on employees if they do not exhibit the behavior. It encompasses all the activities that serve as an enabling factor for task performance of employees to be elevated.

As the definition implies, the contextual performance deals with aspects of performance that are above what is formally expected of them. When this definition is contrasted with how transformational leadership is defined, certain overlaps may be observed. From its inception, transformational leadership has been defined as the leadership style that motivates employees to "perform beyond expectations." So, the formal requirements of a job would form the expectations of organizations from their employee. They are the set of activities employees are contractually obliged to perform, and would be penalized in the case of their failure to successfully carry them out. But what lies beyond this formal definition, what is not expected by the employers but nevertheless is exhibited by the employee is categorized under contextual performance, and it could be argued that this is the area where transformational leadership promises to be more effective. The definition does not promise having

employees meet the formal job expectations, it promises to elevate them beyond those expectations and perform above what is formally required of them. By definition, this process would seem to be tightly interconnected with what falls under the definition of transformational leadership. Therefore, it can be suggested that the link between transformational leadership and employee contextual performance must be considered alongside the task performance in order to more accurately assess the variances observed in overall job performance. Such an approach might be more advantageous for explaining aspects of job performance that has not been adequately explained only by task performance.

The importance of contextual performance is also salient when it is considered that the other constructs that are examined in the scope of this study are to do with creativity. It is commonly agreed upon that creativity is a dynamic concept that is hard to pin down to a particular activity or behavior. It is closely related to the complex combination of qualities exhibited by the employee that allows them to produce novel ideas at the workplace. Given this definition, it is not far-fetched to suggest creativity and its impact on job performance will have a lot to do with the contextual factors that are available at the workplace. Such factors may work to enhance or inhibit an individual's ability to produce novel ideas related to their work. Therefore, it emerges that contextual factors are important to consider in relation to construct such as creativity.

Moving from these implications, it also emerges that the relationship between transactional leadership and task performance must be considered. Transactional leadership is defined by its ability to keep workers on track to ensure performance goals are met. It has much less to do with articulating a vision for the future like transformational leaders does, and much more with clarifying the benefits employees can reap from meeting the formal expectations of their jobs. It is a leadership style that is focused more on the transactions that take place within an organization as part of employees' formal tasks and ensures these transactions are carried out to satisfy the requirements of the job. When thought in relation to task performance, both constructs work through incentives that are expected to be obtained by the employees in return for their activities. The aspects of the job performance that transactional leadership may more effectively boost compared to transformational leadership may be those

areas that belong to the domain of task performance. It is clear that the aim of transactional leadership is to elevate the performance of an organization while maintaining the status-quo, as change is more closely connected to the effects of transformational leadership. Therefore, one question that might arise would be how creativity fits into that relationship between transactional leadership and task performance, given that transactional leaders do not tend to have a particularly close effect on increasing employee creativity or innovation. While this logic seems to rule out creativity as a possible mediator between transactional leadership and task performance, earlier discussion of ceiling effect is also of note here. While it seems plausible that since transactional leadership does not promote change, creativity would have no significant effect in its relationship to task performance, it is also possible to suggest that through ceiling effect, individuals with high creative potential will be able to distinguish themselves in such environments because how scarce these traits are observed in these contexts, and therefore creativity may just be the deciding factor that determines whether individuals will exhibit high levels of task performance.

5.3. LIMITATIONS

This study is not without its limitations that are imposed by the practical means of collecting data. Since the data regarding the construct in the study were collected from participants, results may arguably have been subject to the effects of common source bias. However, although nothing can completely eliminate common source bias in all self-report designs, there are points that must be considered to explain the use of the research and data collection method that was employed by this study. Firstly, it must be mentioned that the research model of the study made it practically difficult to obtain data from multiple sources within a single organization, which would have made it more convenient to collect and match data from workers and supervisors. As the aim of the study was to reach as wide a job spectrum in the population as possible, the surveys were distributed to the general public as widely as possible. This method, although increasing the diversity of data regarding job groups, limited the control that could be exerted on individual participants. As it would be difficult to reach the correct supervisor for each participant of the study, it was deemed more efficient to collect

data directly from the participants. Therefore, it could be said that this method of data collection was chosen for the feasibility and practicality it provided for the process.

However, validity was as important a consideration as practicality while conducting the study. The scales that were included in the survey were almost entirely designed in their original forms to be self-report instruments. This is true for the transformational leadership, creativity, and creative requirement scales, which makes up the majority of the data that was collected for the purposes of this study. The task performance scale has also been used frequently in the literature to collect data from workers and has been reported to have sufficient reliability, therefore it was deemed suitable for the purposes of this study to include it in the survey. All in all, the measurement tools that were utilized in the study were selected for their suitability for the method of data collection that was used, in order to minimize the bias that may be associated with the data collection methods. With this way, it is also possible to argue the effect of social desirability was combatted, since the items in the surveys were all from previously validated measures.

Among the limitations of the study the cross-sectional research design can also be counted. This research method, which involves obtaining data at one point in time to make inferences about the population, has the potential of causing certain biases in the data. Although care was taken with the selection of measurement methods in order to minimize such effects, benefits and drawbacks various research designs offer should be subject to minute scrutiny to completely eliminate them. Possible research designs that may be of benefit to future studies will be discussed in the following section.

5.4. SUGGESTION FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Through exploring the relationships that exist between the selected constructs, this study suggests new conceptual possibilities and avenues for future research. Firstly, as one of the chief insights produced by this study, the ceiling effect and its impact on job performance must be further explored by future research. This would require paying attention to more than the main success factor for individuals in a given job and diverting necessary attention to supplementary traits and behaviors that may be the key to success in these professions. This approach would pay dividends for both

researchers and managerial practitioners in multiple ways. For researchers it would paint a more accurate picture in terms of explaining employee job performance and may account for the variances that are not explained through the analysis of the primary traits. For managerial practitioners, especially for the recruitment process, this would also bring significant new updates. If the importance of supporting factors were established for increasing job performance in the workplace, businesses could start fostering these abilities through training. More importantly, in the recruitment process companies may start looking at a wider range of traits that may predict the future success of the candidate at the given job.

In terms of research design, present study offers an exploratory effort to investigate the relationships that exists between the constructs within its scope. Studies that are to follow would benefit from evaluating and further testing the findings offered in this study by means of other research designs. Among these possibilities, collecting data from both supervisors and employees, and conducting analyses by matching the results obtained from these sources should be counted. This method could further test the validity and replicability of the results demonstrated in the present study by approaching the data collection process in a different way. Also of note is the number of times data was collected in the present study. As mentioned in the previous section, a cross-sectional research design meant that data used in this study was collected at one point in time. Studies that are to follow could reach various new insights by increasing the number of times data are collected. Such a longitudinal research design would serve to verify the inferences made using a more abundant source of data. It would also facilitate the possibilities of conducting new methods of analysis that may offer insights about the causal relationships that exists between the constructs.

Another important implication this study has for future research would be the need for inspection between transformational leadership and contextual performance, and consequentially transactional leadership and task performance. Although there is support in the literature for the effects of transformational leadership for both these types of performance, this study suggests the need for a closer inspection between these leadership and performance types. It would appear that, through the results observed in this study, the aforementioned relationships between the leadership and performance types may be subjected to further study and the results may help us better understand

the correlation between them. An important consideration in this line of research would be diversifying the mediating constructs that are examined in these relationships. As demonstrated in previous sections, supplementary employee traits may be of high relevance in explaining job performances, therefore it would stand to reason that more constructs should be analyzed as potential mediators for the relationships that exists between leadership styles and performance dimensions. This approach would help better understand mechanisms through which leadership styles affect workplace performance.

Studies in this vein would help better our understanding of the constructs of transformational and transactional leadership, and which dimensions of the job performance they are closely related to. Potential relationships that could be demonstrated between these constructs would suggest insights regarding which leadership types are more suitable to use in different work environments.

CONCLUSION

This study has investigated the hypothesized relationships between transformational leadership and employee task performance, with employee creativity as a mediator between the constructs and job creative requirement as a potential moderator for their relationship. It was expected that higher levels of transformational leadership would increase employee task performance through its effect on creativity, and that this relationship would be observed more strongly in jobs with higher creative requirement. Previous studies and theories in the field were summarized and the hypotheses were formed after analysis of the existing literature and empirical studies done regarding the constructs. Data was collected from a wide range of job categories and was analyzed with various statistical analysis methods. It was demonstrated that while data offered support for the hypotheses regarding the mediation effect of creativity between transformational leadership and task performance, moderation effect of job creative requirement in this relationship was observed in reverse direction than expected. Potential explanations such as the ceiling effect and other leadership-performance relationship were proposed. Limitations and potential directions for future research were discussed.

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