The Pygmalion Effect in Organizations Revisited:

The Conceptualization of the Pygmalion Leadership Behavior

and Its Impact Process in Organizations

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Most research which investigated the Pygmalion effect was carried out in field experiments to examine the effect of high supervisory expectations of a subordinate on the subsequent subordinate performance when deceptive feedback on subordinate capabilities was given to supervisors. However, this practice has two limitations. First, the Pygmalion leadership behavior (behavioral mediation of the Pygmalion effect) which explicates the induced high supervisory expectations to subordinates has not been examined systematically. The other limitation is that the non-behavioral mediational process (motivation mediation of the Pygmalion effect) playing an important role between the Pygmalion leadership behavior and the subsequent subordinate performance has been overlooked. Only the effects of employee perceived self-efficacy has been studied. Therefore, this study has two main purposes to make up for the aforementioned limitations. First, the conceptualization of the Pygmalion leadership behavior at the component level was initiated based on the extensive relevant literature review. Second, the non-behavioral mediators on the part of subordinates that play an important role between Pygmalion leadership behavior and organizational effectiveness were examined. Subsequently, five propositions were proposed for future research. Implications for leadership training programs and future directions were additionally discussed.

key words : Pygmalion effect, Pygmalion leadership, Interpersonal expectation, Expectancy effect, Leadership, Leadership training, Self-fulfilling prophecy

THE POWER OF EXPECTATION

We are social animals. We cannot live a human life without living with others. From the cradle to the grave, we cannot help interacting with others, so it is inevitable that we are affected by the expectation[1] which others hold of us (Zanna & Sheras, 1975; Rosenthal, 1993). Young kids are very susceptible to the expectation from such people with authority as their parents and teachers. However, even adults are considerably influenced by the expectation from others such as their supervisors in the workplace (Eden & Shani, 1982). And, we seek for positive expectations and try to meet those expectations with increased efforts. Therefore, the considerable part of what we are is due to the expectation from our parents, teachers, and supervisors (Harris & Rosenthal, 1985). After a lot of research results about the interpersonal expectation were accumulated in educational settings, it was adopted in managerial settings because of the similarity of teacher-student relationship with leader-subordinate relationship in terms of their significance in life (Eden, 1992,

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[1] Expectation is defined as beliefs about a future state of affairs. It can be generated not only consciously and explicitly, but also unwittingly and implicitly (Olson, Roese, & Zanna, 1996). Jussim (1990) used "intrapersonal (for example, perceived self-efficacy and effort-performance expectancy)" and "interpersonal (for example, the Pygmalion effect)" expectation to differentiate expectations of him/herself and others.

1993). Therefore, we first examine the research findings carried out in the classroom, and then examine its application in management.

Beyond the Pygmalion effect in classroom: Does it exist in management?

The Pygmalion[2] effect is the influence of one person's expectation on the self-perception and behavior of another person (Brookover, 1969; Chapman & McCauley, 1993). The studies of the Pygmalion effect in educational settings stem from the classic field experiments called "Pygmalion in the Classroom" by Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968). They went into an elementary school and administered a non-verbal IQ test before the beginning of the new school year. Right after the students completed the test, Rosenthal and his colleague selected 20% of students at random regardless of actual IQ scores and informed the teacher they were "late bloomers" who would intellectually bloom due to the high IQ during the next academic year. At the end of the school year, Rosenthal and Jacobson discovered that the "late bloomers (high-expectancy students)" showed higher gains in academic performance and satisfaction with teacher than the other students.

A few years later, King (1971, 1974)

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[2] Pygmalion is a mythical Cyprus prince and sculptor who created a statue of ideal woman called Galatea and made her come to life (Eden, 1992).

conducted an experiment similar to Rosenthal's in industrial settings. He went into a chronically high unemployment area where a government training program was about to start. Specifically, the program was supposed to teach unemployed individuals the fundamentals of welding. King, as with Rosenthal, went in prior to the program beginning and administered them a test which was to measure their aptitude for welding. Then, King selected five trainees at random and told the instructor that the test had identified five of the trainees as "high aptitude performers (HAPS)" at the very beginning of the program. Six months later, he also discovered that the "HAPS" obtained higher scores on every exam, completed the program more quickly, and they were even judged as the "most preferred coworkers."

Only a few studies (e.g., Sutton & Woodman, 1989) failed to show the typical result of the Pygmalion effect. These failures were due to weak manipulation (failure to raise a supervisor's expectation due to low credibility of the test given), ill-timed treatment (failure to administer the test in time and control supervisors' prior information about their subordinates), and the use of female supervisors (the Pygmalion effect has been found to have the very low effect with female supervisors) (Eden & Shani, 1982; Eden, 1990a; White & Locke, 2000). Overall, the power of the Pygmalion effect was successfully generalized to industrial and military settings by pioneering several researchers (Livingston, 1969;

King, 1971, 1974; Eden, 1984; Eden & Ravid, 1982; Eden & Shani, 1982).

Self-fulfilling prophecy: How does the Pygmalion effect work?

According to Merton's work (1948), self-fulfilling prophecy (SFP) is the process through which the expectation that an event will occur increases its actual occurrence. Most of human behaviors operate on the mechanism of SFP. Earlier, Thomas (1928; cited in Wilkins, 1976) pointed to the essence of SFP before we did not even conceptualize SFP by saying, "If men define situations as real, they are real in their consequences." Further, the founder of the concept of SFP, Merton (1948 cited in Wilkins, 1976; Eden, 1992) applied the Thomas' statement to this definition, "the SFP is, in the beginning, a false definition of the situation evoking a new behavior which makes the originally false conception come true." Our behavior is not always determined by the objective features of a situation. Many times they are, to the contrary, determined by the subjective meaning we have attached to the situation. We should note that SFP changes our behavior in the way that confirms our initial expectation and more importantly our behavioral change affects others interacting with us. Furthermore, our expectation works in this way, even though it's negative (Wilkins, 1976). Many concepts related to SFP have not been well

Table 1. Distinctions among SFPs

	Interpersonal expectancy (SFP)		Intrapersonal expectancy (SFP)	
	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative
With interpersonal contrast effect	Pygmalion effect	Golem effect	High self-efficacy, Galatea effect, Self-sustaining prophecy	Low self-efficacy
Without interpersonal contrast effect	Organization-wide SFP[3]			

explained and made some confusion, so we need to make a clear distinction among related concepts (see Table 1).

In terms of SFP, the Pygmalion effect is defined as a positive interpersonal SFP. As with teachers, supervisors cannot help forming expectations for subordinates. And, once supervisors form high expectations, they tend to treat the subordinates differently in the way that

makes the original expectations fulfilled. Such different behaviors displayed by supervisors usually make subordinates believe that they are confident like what the supervisors believe even though it might be erroneous (Eden, 1990a, 1992; Harris & Rosenthal, 1985; DuBrin, 1994). In sum, the improved leadership style and enhanced subordinate self-perception are two main mediational mechanisms which play key roles between supervisory expectations and effectiveness on the part of subordinates (Goddard, 1984; Eden, 1992).

3) Eden (1990c, 1992) coordinated military settings in which an instructor could have high-expectancy toward a whole group, not individuals. In this case, instructors had no individual information about their trainees. Instead, they received information from their supervisor that their group has a high potentiality and each member is very capable. The result showed that the performance of this "high-expectancy" group was better than the other groups. That is, the whole group can gain the same benefit without interpersonal contrast (see Footnote 6 for more details). This phenomenon was named "the organization-wide SFP" by Eden. Moreover, it may generalize to the nation-wide SFP. In fact, the modern Israel has got industrialized so fast owing to the positive nation-wide belief like Zionism (Eden, 1990b, 1992).

STUDY 1.

EXPLORING THE LEADERSHIP MEDIATION OF THE PYGMALION EFFECT

Rosenthal's four-factor theory

At first, the central question in the Pygmalion effect was whether it exists or not. According to many comprehensive and meta-analytic reviews done by educational

Table 2. Rosenthal's four factor theory (Rosenthal, 1993, 1994)

Factor		Behavior representatives
Central factors	Climate	Teachers appear to create a warmer socio-emotional climate for their high-expectancy students. This warmth appears to be at least partly communicated by nonverbal cues (e.g., more eye contacts, encouragement).
	Input	Teachers appear to teach more material and more difficult material to their high-expectancy students.
Additional factors	Output	Teachers appear to give their high-expectancy students greater opportunities for responding (e.g., giving a student more time to answer a question).
	Feedback	Teachers appear to give their high-expectancy students more informative and favorable feedback, both verbal and nonverbal, as to their performance.

psychologists (Hall & Merkel, 1985; Harris & Rosenthal, 1985; Rosenthal, 1994), the Pygmalion effect on academic performance has been powerful (Rosenthal, 1994). And, its effect on job performance has also proven to be robust ($d_{corrected}$ = 1.13 by McNatt's meta-analysis (2000); $d_{corrected}$ = .81 by Kierein and Gold's another meta-analysis (2000)[4]). Therefore, the interests of researchers moved to the question, "How does the Pygmalion effect work?"

According to SFP, the crucial determinant of the Pygmalion effect is the teacher or supervisor behavior displayed in the way that confirms

their expectations. The systematic answer to the question was first answered by Rosenthal and his colleague. Based on about the first 30 published studies concerning the behavioral mediation of the Pygmalion effect, a four-factor theory was theoretically proposed (Rosenthal, 1973, 1993, 1994; Harris & Rosenthal, 1985). According to the theory, teachers tend to (1) create an intimate climate such as warm socio-emotional responses for "high-expectancy" students, (2) input (teach) more and more difficult material to them, (3) give them differential feedback, and (4) provide them more opportunities to achieve more outputs (achievement) such as making them answer more times. With this theory, we can see the underneath process flowing from teachers' expectation to students' self-perception and subsequent performance (see Table 2), and apply this well to the leader-subordinate relationship though we need some translations and additions due to the difference in settings.

4) The primary two differences of two meta-analyses are due to (1) different inclusion criteria resulting in dropping several articles used by McNatt (2000) in the study of Kierein and Gold (2000) and (2) different statistical methods; Schmidt-Hunter method based on random-effect models used by McNatt and Hedges-Olkin (and Cooper and Olkin) method based on fixed-effect models by Kierein and Gold (Kierein & Gold, 2000).

About 10 years later since the four-factor theory had been proposed, Harris and Rosenthal (1985) again collected as many journal articles, dissertations, and research papers as possible and then classified them into the above four factors. Then, they implemented meta-analyses about each factor to identify which factor has a larger effect size than the others. They estimated effect sizes (meta-analytically derived correlation) of teacher expectation on four factors. The result (Rosenthal, 1994) showed effect sizes in order of input (.26), climate (.23), output (.18), and feedback (.13). However, the effect sizes of four factors on students' performance are ranked somewhat differently in order of climate (.36), input (.28), output (.16), and feedback (.08).

More than Rosenthal's four-factor theory

A few years earlier before Rosenthal proposed his four-factor theory, Bowers and Seashore (1966) also proposed similar four factors of leadership. Eden (1990c) found their four factors had very similar structures and both emphasized the importance of the positive belief of a teacher/supervisor in improving students' or subordinates' performance. These factors capture leaders' efforts (1) to coach subordinates in effective work habit, (2) to stimulate subordinates' enthusiasm for meeting a goal or obtaining superior job performance, (3) to enhance subordinates' feelings of importance and self-worth, and (4) to encourage subordinates to

form teamwork. Later, these four factors were empirically validated using an exploratory factor analysis by Eden and Leviatan (1978), though several items were not clustered as conceptualized, and named as (1) goal emphasis, (2) work facilitation, (3) interpersonal support, and (4) interaction facilitation. However, their four factors are not so comprehensive and exhaustive as Rosenthal's four factors constructed rationally based on comprehensive literature review. In our study, Rosenthal's four factors, therefore, will be used as a principal framework for the behavioral mediation of the Pygmalion effect.

Synthesizing Rosenthal's four-factor theory, other empirical findings and several theoretical models (e.g., Eden, 1988; Rosenthal, 1973, 1991, 1994; Rosenthal & Rubin, 1978; Bower & Seashore, 1966), Eden (1990c; elaborated in Eden, 1992) referred to a collection of behaviors that managers frequently use toward high-expectancy subordinates (such as in-group members[5]) as "Pygmalion Leadership Style (PLS)." According to Eden's elaboration PLS includes leader behaviors that create a supportive interpersonal climate, attribute subordinates' successes to stable and internal causes and their failures to causes that are ephemeral and external, and motivate subordinates by strengthening their self-efficacy. Regrettably,

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5) The relationship between the Pygmalion effect and leader-member exchange theory will be discussed in details in Study 2.

instead of constructing the PLS scale, Eden used a leadership questionnaire (see Eden & Leviatan, 1975) which is reformatted version of leadership questionnaire based on Bowers and Seashore' four factors (1966) to measure the effectiveness of the experimentally induced Pygmalion effect and the effect of participation in PLS training workshop (Eden & Shani 1982; Oz & Eden, 1994 Dvir et al., 1995; Davidson & Eden, 2000; Eden & Sulimani, 2000) since the early 1980's. Thus, there is a gap between PLS (new conceptualization) and the currently used leadership questionnaire (old practice).

PLS seems to have a considerable overlap with Rosenthal's four factors except for following two things. The first one is teamwork, which was not captured in Rosenthal's four-factor theory developed long time ago in educational contexts where teamwork was not so important as in organizational contexts. However, for several decades, teams have become an essential part of the business and even education. And, some evidence suggests that teams typically outperform individuals when the tasks require multiple skills, judgment, and experience (Glassop, 2002). Therefore, leaders are likely to encourage and support the subordinates of whom they hold high expectations to play important roles in enhancing teamwork. The other one is inspiration, which is the leaders' reassuringly telling a subordinate 'I know you can do this well.' Eden mentioned that "the hallmark of effective leaders is their ability to get this

message across convincingly and to inspire high self-confidence" among their subordinates (Eden, 1990a, p. 125). In line with this, Bass (1985) also pointed out that the Pygmalion effect was highly related with inspirational motivation in that both would inspire subordinates' confidence. For further discussions, various behaviors which mediate supervisors' high expectation and the subsequent subordinates' improved self-perception and performance will be called "the Pygmalion leadership behavior (PLB)" for convenience's sake.

The conceptualization of the Pygmalion leadership behavior

Most prior studies investigated the relationship between the supervisor expectation and the resulting subordinate performance after manipulating the supervisor expectation at the beginning of their relationship using the deceptive feedback on the subordinate's potential (see Eden, 1992 for a qualitative review; McNatt, 2000; Kierein & Gold, 2000 for meta-analytic reviews). This manipulation, however, is only possible in field experiments using the military training or at most corporate socialization programs. Moreover, in the case of training settings, their performance measured as a criterion is not so much a typical performance as a maximum performance because it is measured for the relatively short-term period particularly by objective criteria such as multiple-choice exam scores (McNatt, 2000) and

thus is not likely to capture long-term and multifaceted job performance in real organizational settings.

In typical organizational settings, it is impossible to manipulate the supervisor expectation due to ethical problems caused by interpersonal contrast effect[6] and prevalent existing expectations based on real information regarding subordinates. However, there are many supervisory expectations naturally occurring through real information such as past evaluation records believed to be even stronger than the experimentally induced expectations (Eden, 1990c). In fact, some researchers investigated into naturally occurring situations where high expectations might exist and found the Pygmalion effect (NSF graduate fellows; Chapman & McCauley, 1993[7]). To our regret, this was not done in organizational settings which we concern, and they did not collect and/or measure any differential behavior displayed by such people with authority as their

professors.

Kierein and Gold (2000, p. 914) mentioned that this performance difference (caused by the raised expectation) probably occurs because of subtle aspects of the manager's leadership toward them. However, we have little knowledge on the leadership behavior communicating supervisory high expectancy. Even though we have Rosenthal's four-factor theory, the theory was developed through deductive reasoning from many individual studies about teachers' expectancy communication behaviors (Rosenthal, 1973; Harris and Rosenthal, 1985). Thus, it did not provide a specific behavioral scale to measure four factors as a whole. Moreover, there has been no statistical factor analysis to confirm the actual factor structure of the four-factor theory to date. Looking closely at the implied differential behaviors discussed in many managerial studies (Bowers & Seashore, 1966; Eden, 1992), we have found additional factors, inspiration and teamwork facilitation beyond the four-factor theory which are also important in organizational settings as discussed before.

In fact, we have hardly found any scale or behavioral list allowing us to systematically measure PLBs conveying supervisory high expectations to subordinates. Only Oh and Suh (2001) developed a Pygmalion leadership behavior scale. Even though their scale was the first systematic result to measure Pygmalion leadership behavior, it has some limitations. First, though their (Oh & Suh, 2001) scale was based

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6) The Pygmalion effect has one severe disadvantage, which is the interpersonal contrast effect. Even though a supervisor expect better only of high-expectancy subordinates, the other subordinates who don't have high-expectancy from their supervisor may feel being ignored.

7) However, the result is demonstrating the power of expectations despite the fact that the graduate student-professor interaction is weak and infrequent and sometimes the authority of professors is not so influential as military trainers or direct supervisors.

on an extensive literature, they did not pay attention to the importance of teamwork facilitation and, since their publication, a number of important article has been introduced. Second, all the items were empirically created based on survey and interview results with incumbent employees. Thus, there could be some significant omissions and biases in items. Lastly but more importantly, final factors were obtained using an exploratory factor analysis with relatively small sample ($N=165$). Therefore, there is a possibility that the factor structure was biased by sampling error and the capitalization on chance because the factor structure was not cross-validated using a confirmatory factor structure with other different samples. That is why some theoretically distinct factors (output and inspiration) may have been aggregated as single factors and an

important factor (feedback) may not have emerged.

Therefore, we need to develop a scale for PLBs including teamwork facilitation and inspiration for future studies following the below rational scale construction procedure. Based on review and discussion presented above, I believe the scale will be well represented by six components: (1) input, (2) output (empowerment), (3) teamwork facilitation, (4) climate (intimacy), (5) feedback, and (6) inspiration. And, these six components seem to have two higher-order factors: (1) increased effort and (2) enhanced affect though it needs to be confirmed empirically. The conceptual model with details is shown in Table 3.

As Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) pointed out, the rational scale construction is needed for

Table 3. The conceptualization of the Pygmalion leadership behavior

Component		Definition
Increased Effort	Input	Leaders appear to assign more tasks and training opportunities to their "high-expectancy (in group)" subordinates. Learning-focused.
	Output (Empowerment)	Leaders appear to give "high-expectancy" subordinates more favorable opportunities to get them recognized. Performance-focused.
	Teamwork Facilitation	Leaders appear to encourage "high-expectancy" subordinates to work cooperatively with others and be the center of teamwork.
Enhanced Affect	Climate (Intimacy)	Leaders appear to create a supportive climate for their "high-expectancy" subordinates.
	Feedback	Leaders appear to give their "high-expectancy" subordinates more informative and try to make favorable attributions.
	Inspiration	Leaders appear to inspire their "high-expectancy" subordinate emphasizing how they and their jobs are significant in the work group and organization.

a theoretical refinement and accountability. To do this, the rational model (such as Table 3) should be constructed to direct scale construction efforts. Second, items representing the components illustrated in the conceptual model are to be generated independently by subject matter experts. Then, they need to meet to discuss which items to retain and/or revise followed by the test of the readability of the items using an appropriate sample. Sequential exploratory-confirmatory procedures need to be conducted to empirically determine the factor structure of the scales and to select final items. Lastly but more importantly, the PLBs scale should be empirically compared with other relevant well-established leadership scales (e.g., transformational leadership, transactional leadership, etc.) to show its convergence and/or divergence validities.

STUDY 2.
EXPLORING MOTIVATIONAL MEDIATION OF THE PYGMALION EFFECT

Eden (1990c, 1992) proposed the Pygmalion-at-work model: "high leader expectations→ improved leadership→augmented self-efficacy→ greater motivation→intensification of effort→ better performance." Recently, part of model (route from self-efficacy to performance) called "Galatea effect cycle" was partially confirmed in a longitudinal field experiemt (McNatt & Judge, 2004). Many empirical and theoretical research findings (Eden, 1990c, 1992; Eden et al, 2000; Oz, & Eden, 1994; Dvir, Eden, & Banjo, 1995; Davidson & Eden, 2000 McNatt & Judge, 2004) have just focused on self-efficacy as a primary and proximal consequence of PLBs. However, it seems that PLBs bring about not only self-efficacy but also other positive self-perceptions such as leader-member exchange (LMX) and interpersonal justice. Furthermore, they will altogether lead to organizational effectiveness such as competence and cooperation. With regard to this, however, there has been no research.

(Overall) job performance has been long operationalized mainly as task performance (competence) the extent to which workers fulfill their responsibilities and roles pre-specified in their job description. In this study, however, we are interested in both competence and cooperation as overall measures of performance because task performance is limited only to job-specific aspects and so it should be expanded to the broad measure which covers behavior supportive of job contexts (cf. Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Moreover, the supervisory job performance rating is likely to be affected by competence and cooperation (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

Relatedly, due to the vagueness of his original definition of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB), Organ (1997) later redefined OCB as

contextual performance (citizenship behavior): behaviors that enhance the social and psychological environment while not directly support the technical core of the organization (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Up to now, there has been no general consensus on the dimensions of OCB. Williams and Anderson (1991), however, proposed a two-component model of OCB: OCB-I and OCB-O, which is very simple but covers comprehensively most aspects of original OCB and contextual performance. Interestingly, this distinction has a similarity with the earlier conceptual model of OCB comprised of altruism and compliance by Smith, Organ, and Near (1993).

OCB-I is behavior directed towards others in organizations such as helping new employees and sharing co-workers' heavy workload. Thus, it is also referred to as cooperation. OCB-O is behavior directed towards the organization or work group such as not complaining at work and attending functions that are not required. This simple but useful distinction was adopted by many researchers (McNeely & Meglion, 1994; Lee & Allen, 2002), and chosen for this study because OCB-I well captures the essence of cooperation in organizational contexts. Additionally, OCB-I has been found more related to LMX (Wayne & Green, 1993; Wayne, Shane, & Bommer, 2002) than OCB-O And, OCB-I seems to be highly related to interpersonal justice because of a broad evidence of its strong relationship with procedural justice

and their same reference targeted to co-workers at work as well (Greenberg, 1996; Ehrhart, 2004). More detailed discussion among PLB, subordinate self-perception, and two performance measures (competence and cooperation) will be followed.

The Pygmalion leadership behavior and leader-member exchange

LMX theory is a theory which describes the development and effects of separate vertical dyads between leader and subordinate. However, the focal point of the LMX theory is that the higher quality of LMX, the more positive organizational outcomes will be produced. That means in-group members will be more satisfied with their leader, more committed to organizational goals and values, and consequently perform better and cooperate more frequently than out-group members (see Gerstner & Day, 1997 for a meta-analytic review; Graen & Ul-Bien, 1995).

What contributes to the high quality LMX? Leader liking and positive leader expectation (Turban, Jones, & Rozelle, 1990; Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993; Wayne & Ferris, 1986) were introduced as antecedents of LMX. With regard to our focus, Wayne, Shore, and Liden (1997) showed the effect of supervisor expectation on the subordinates' perception of LMX is less strong ($\gamma=.10$) than we expected. It is partly due to the fact they did not measure PLBs,

which are more proximal antecedents than expectation itself. Moreover, LMX is perception more based on concrete information such as differential leader behaviors than on leader expectations (Eden, 1992).

There are many studies noting the close relationship (or similarity) of the Pygmalion effect and LMX (Feldman, 1986; Eden, 1992; Liden et al., 1993; Wayne et al, 1997). Feldman (1986) suggested that leaders provide more time, attention, feedback, and encouragement to in-group subordinates by the provision of challenging task, feedback, and training to in-group member like the example of the Pygmalion effect described before. Eden (1992) also noted that LMX-performance hypothesis were analogous to the Pygmalion effect, which says leaders' high expectations (high quality LMX) lead to increased performance of high-expectancy subordinates (in-group members) through the improved leadership (PLB). After all, it is reasonable to propose that the differential leader behaviors toward in-group member are not so much different from PLBs.

According to House and Aditya's critical review (1997), LMX theorists implied that leaders need to be supportive (climate), delegate to subordinates a substantial amount of discretion in conducting their work (output), engage in open communication (climate), give more opportunities such as more important responsibilities and training (input), and encourage mutual influence between themselves and their subordinates (climate and inspiration) (House & Aditya, 1997). However, the LMX theory has hardly explicated differential leader behaviors toward in-group members. Thus, it is a research gap to fill in through this study. A few studies (e.g., Bauer & Green, 1996) examined delegation (similar to output in the PLB) as an important precursor to contribute to LMX development and the subsequent performance. In sum, PLBs will be more frequently experienced among in-group members, which will then increase their perception of LMX. Thus, based on our discussion above, I propose a proposition as below:

Proposition 1: The Pygmalion leadership behaviors will be positively related to the quality of LMX perceived by subordinates.

The Pygmalion leadership behavior, leader-member exchange, and organizational effectiveness

Now, our question should be focused on what high quality LMX results in. One answer is the increased cooperation caused by belongingness to the in-group (Liden & Graen, 1980; Wayne & Ferris, 1990; De Cremer & Knippenberg, 2002). As a social animal, an individual has a basic need to belong to socially desirable groups and the fulfillment of this affiliation need increases cooperation by making them highly value the interest of the group they belong to (De

Cremer& Knippenberg, 2002). Moreover, those favored as in-group members may feel somewhat guilty for others who are not in the in-group, according to equity theory (Greenberg, 1996). They might try to make up for the guilt through improving cooperation with others, as is often found in the positive relationship between the high quality LMX and OCB (Wayne, Shane, & Bommer, 2002). In line with this, Liden and Grean (1980, p. 452) earlier proposed employees reporting the high quality LMX make "contributions that go beyond their formal job duties." Later, Wayne and Green (1993) reported that LMX is modestly related to altruism ($r=.25$), but minimally related with compliance ($r=.09$). Wayne, Shane, and Bommer (2002) also showed LMX influences performance ratings and OCB measured by altruism using a structural equation modeling analysis. However, one thing we should note is that LMX was consistently related to the interpersonal part of OCB such as altruism, which reflects House and Aditya's criticism (1997) on the overstatement about the relationship between LMX and overall OCB. Therefore, in this study, we will focus on only the interpersonal facet of OCB (OCB-I; Williams & Anderson, 1991).

Moreover, in-group members, through the improved leadership, tend to show competence, which is seen in the LMX-performance relationship repeatedly proven in many studies (Liden & Graen' 1980; Scandura, Graen, & Novak, 1986; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Wayne,

Shore, & Liden, 1997). However, job performance was usually measured not by real performance records, but by supervisory ratings strongly influenced by supervisors' perception of competence subordinates had shown. Actually, the corrected correlation between performance ratings and member reported LMX ($r_c=.30$) is almost the same as that between leader-reported member competence and LMX ($r_c=.28$[8]) according to Gerstner and Day's meta-analysis (1997).

In sum, subordinates who feel (the high quality LMX) they have been well treated and supported by their leader (experience of PLBs) are likely to reciprocate that by performing competently and cooperatively with others for the group's interest. Thus, following the discussion presented above, two propositions are proposed below.

Proposition 2: The Pygmalion leadership behaviors will be positively related to the subordinate competence through the quality of LMX perceived by subordinates.

Proposition 3: The Pygmalion leadership behaviors will be positively related to the

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8) The former correlation was corrected for unreliability of both LMX and performance rating measures, but the latter correlation was corrected for only unreliability of LMX measures (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Thus, a direct comparison needs caution.

subordinate cooperation through the quality of LMX perceived by subordinates.

The Pygmalion leadership behavior, self-efficacy, and competence

The Pygmalion effect also includes the intrapersonal SFP (Eden, 1992). "Galatea effect" is another name of this intrapersonal SFP, through which the positive self-expectation engenders improved performance (Eden, 1982, 1990a, 1992). Salomon (1981) makes the terms, "self-sustaining prophecy (SSP)" to explain this phenomenon because SSP works well without another person's consistent expectation and corresponding interactions. In this case, individuals expect much of themselves, and then they act in ways that make their self-expectation realized.

This SSP was empirically verified by Eden and Ravid's field experiments (1982) using the military trainees. And, Galatea intervention was recently reported to have a lasting effect on self-efficacy and motivation, and a somewhat shorter effect on performance in a longitudinal field experiment (McNatt & Judge, 2004). However, the Galatea effect is also part of the Pygmalion effect (Eden, 1992). The Galatea effect will speed up its process when subordinates experience PLBs more frequently. With regard to arguments presented above, we need to note what Livingston (1969, 1988) mentioned earlier, "If he (a leader) is skilful and

has high expectations of his subordinates, their self-confidence will grow, their capabilities will develop, and their productivity will be high. More often than he realizes, the manager is Pygmalion (Livingston, 1969, p. 89)." Later, Eden (1990c) did replace this self-expectation with self-efficacy concept for further theoretical elaborations in his Pygmalion-at-work model.

Self-efficacy is the belief in one's capabilities to organize and execute actions required to manage prospective situations (tasks) and to obtain desired results (Bandura, 1977, 1997). Specifically, self-efficacy makes a difference in how people feel (affect), think (cognition) and act (motivation and behavior). First, a high sense of self-efficacy is associated with low depression, anxiety, and helplessness. Second, self-efficacy as a strong sense of competence facilitates cognitive processes in variety of settings, including quality of decision-making and academic and even job performance. Lastly, self-efficacy levels can enhance or impede motivation. People with high self-efficacy choose to perform more challenging tasks. They set higher goals themselves and stick to them. Moreover, once an action has been taken, high self-efficacious people invest more effort and persist longer than those who are low in self-efficacy. When setbacks occur, they recover more quickly and maintain the commitment to their goals. Self-efficacy also allows people to select challenging settings, explore their environments, or create new environments. In sum, high-self efficacy will be

highly related to people's competence or performance in the workplace (Bandura, 1977, 1982, 1997).

In addition to postulating the mechanism by which a behavioral change occurs, Bandura (1977, 1997) specified four sources through which self-efficacy is learned and modified. These sources include: (1) enactive mastery experience (seeing themselves succeed in the field), (2) vicarious mastery experience or social modeling (seeing others succeed), (3) social persuasion (receiving a verbal and/or non-verbal encouragement, "You can do it"), and (4) physiological state. Components of PLBs are very highly intertwined with the sources of self-efficacy. That is, input and output are related to mastery experience and thus contribute highly to the increased effort and overall performance level. And, feedback and inspiration are directly associated with social persuasion. Here we should note that PLBs are overlapped with components of transformational leadership to some degree and they both emphasize their impacts on the subordinate self-efficacy (Eden, 1992).

However, the PLB is more focused on the primary source of self-efficacy, mastery experience through input and output, whereas transformational leadership is focused mainly on the supplementary source of self-efficacy, social persuasion through inspirational motivation which is also a component of PLBs. (Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003). After all, following the discussion presented above, a proposition is proposed below.

Proposition 4: The Pygmalion leadership behaviors will be positively related to the subordinate competence through the mediation of subordinate perception of self-efficacy.

There is one noteworthy issue relative to the above discussion on the source of self-efficacy and its relevance to the Pygmalion effect. That is, to be a robust model of the effects of leader expectations on subordinate behaviors, actual past performance and/or experience of subordinates should be controlled for. Most managers do not develop expectations of their subordinates based on nothing, but they. in fact, do so based on past performance and/or experience of the subordinates, whether from their previous jobs or training/development programs (or during the selection process, in the interview, etc.). In line with this, Chen and Klimoski (2003) examined newcomers' work experience as an antecedent of both leaders' and teammates' expectations of newcomers.

The Pygmalion leadership behavior, interpersonal justice, and cooperation

As with the above discussion, both PLBs and transformational leadership behaviors have components of socio-emotional warmth and inspiration in common. That is, climate (intimacy) is essentially the same with the
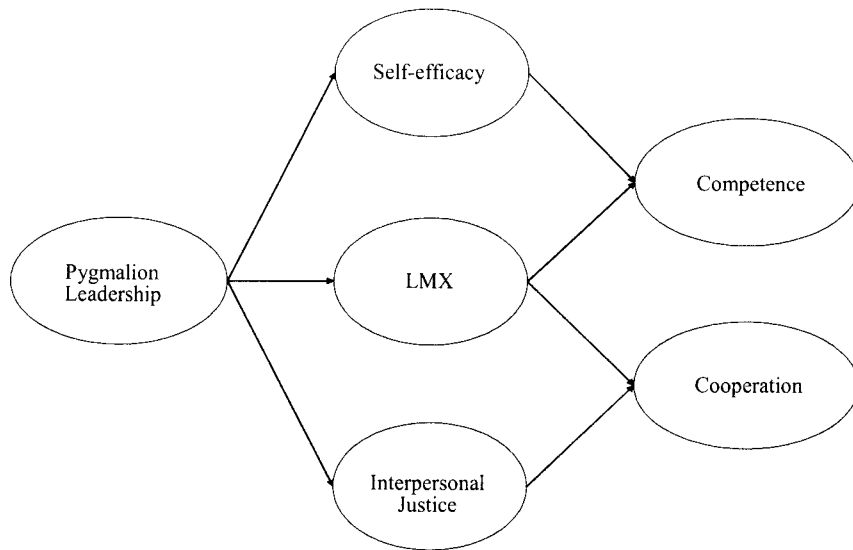
Figure 1. A path diagram of the impact process of the Pygmalion leadership behavior

individualized consideration in transformational leadership, and likewise inspiration is similar to the inspirational motivation of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; Eden 1992, 1993). These two common components contribute to increasing subordinate positive affect. Especially, this warm socio-emotional component boosts up the subordinates' perceived interpersonal justice through leaders' thoughtful and considerate treatment. Jung and Avolio (2000) showed the transformational leadership positively influenced performance and satisfaction through the mediation of trust in leader presumably due to the main contribution of individualized consideration. Looking closely at their measure of trust in leader, it turned out as interpersonal justice. That is, this enhanced interpersonal justice perception is likely to increase cooperation

as interactional justice enhances OCB (Greenberg, 1996). ver, we need some distinction among types of justice. Masterson (2001) found that procedural justice were operating mainly through the mediation of perceived organizational support whereas interactional justice through the mediation of LMX. Colquitt (2001) further differentiated interpersonal and informational aspects of interactional justice. In the study, we will examine the effect of PLBs emphasizing leaders' fair and considerate treatment on interpersonal justice. With regard to this, De Cremer and Knippenberg (2002) reported that leader charisma and procedural justice actually measured by interpersonal justice increased subordinate cooperation measured by OCB-I. Rationally, subordinates who perceive they are fairly treated by their leaders (more experience of

PLBs) tend to find ways to contribute more in a cooperative way with other members (Ehrhart, 2004). This relationship between fair treatment and improved cooperation has been evidenced by a lot of research aimed at the effect of justice on OCB (Greenberg, 1996; Ehrhart, 2004). In sum, based on this discussion, we propose a following proposition.

Proposition 5: The Pygmalion leadership behaviors will be positively related to the subordinate cooperation through the mediation of subordinate perception of interpersonal justice.

CONCLUSION

White and Locke (2000) pointed out major problems with the Pygmalion effect in organizations and suggested solutions or future research issues. All problems except the weak Pygmalion effect for female leaders were centered on the PLBs. They discussed that traditional studies on the Pygmalion effect had focused on the subconscious process elicited by experimentally induced deceptive feedback. Accordingly, they claimed that the subconscious process should be on the surface to the conscious level (the PLB) in real organizational settings. And, new and current managers should be trained in displaying specific leadership behaviors or PLBs. Therefore, the construction of the PLB scale will directly contribute to the

above arguments, and the elaboration on the mediational process between the PLB and performance. And, it will make managers understand more clearly how PLBs influence subordinates' in-role and extra-role performance.

In line with this, we need to quote Eden's conclusion (1993, p. 175), "SFP is not an overpowering fact of life that we must regard with awe and accommodate, for better or worse. Rather, it is a social process that savvy leaders can manage, at least partially, for the benefit of organizations, where members, and others whom they serve." Therefore, leaders who want to be a Pygmalion should first change their behavioral patterns into PLBs which can be displayed to all the subordinates under their supervision. Expectation itself is not usually under their control because the SFP process is quite subconscious. However, PLBs are definitely conscious, so they can be learned and exercised by every subordinate. After all, PLBs bring about the Pygmalion effect and group or organization-wide SFP as well in that they make us overcome the problem of interpersonal contrast effect described as "Robbing Peter for paying Paul."

Earlier, Livingston (1969, p. 83) noted the significance of the negative Pygmalion effect like this: "Unsuccessful salesmen have great difficulty maintaining their self-image and self-esteem. In response to low managerial expectations, they typically attempt to prevent additional damage to their egos by avoiding situations that might

lead to greater failure. They either reduce the number of sales calls they make or avoid trying to 'close' sales when that might result in further painful rejection, or both. Low expectations and damaged egos lead them to behave in a manner that increases the probability of failure, thereby fulfilling their managers' expectations." However, most studies on the interpersonal SFP have focused on the effects of supervisors' positive expectation. Actually, there is (must be) no study on the effect of the supervisors' negative expectation induced through the deceptive feedback on subordinates' performance (the Golem effect[9]) because of ethical problems related to the interpersonal contrast effect and damages to subordinates' self-image (Livingston, 1988; Harris & Rosenthal, 1985). However, there are some research about the negative expectations (e.g., problem workers and disadvantaged women workers in male-dominated occupations) naturally occurring in reality (Dvir, Eden, & Bonjo, 1995; Davidson & Eden, 2000), though their focus was not on the Golem effect (Babad, Inbar & Rosenthal, 1982; Eden, 1990a). In this case, we do not have to induce the Golem effect. All we need is to observe and collect differential leadership behaviors frequently displayed to them. We need to know more about the behavioral mediation of Golem effect

called "Golem leadership behavior (GLB)" in terms of the possibility that PLBs and GLBs do not form a single continuum but rather represent different influence processes (behavioral manifestations) of leadership.

The focus of Study 2 was on the relationship between PLBs and other related variable, so the relationship among the variables was not discussed here. However, the relationship among self-efficacy, LMX, and interpersonal justice needs to be addressed in order to build up a comprehensive relationship among proposed variables using a structural equation modeling method, which will contribute much to our understandings of the effective leadership in organizations.

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9) The Golem effect is briefly defined as the Pygmalion effect in a negative direction. It occurs when subordinates realize leaders' low expectation (Babad, Inbar & Rosenthal, 1982; Eden, 1990a).

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조직내 피그말리온 효과의 재고찰:
피그말리온 리더십 행동의 이론적 구성개념화와
조직효과성에 영향을 미치는 매개과정에 관한 탐구

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조직내 피그말리온 효과와 관련한 대부분의 연구들은 현장 실험을 사용하여 실시되었으며, 부하의 역량(능력 혹은 적성)에 대한 허위 피드백(특정 부하에 대해서 실제 보유한 역량 수준과 상관없이 그가 높은 역량을 가졌다고 상사에게 거짓 정보를 제공)을 통해서 유도된 상사의 증진된 기대가 부하의 수행과 기타 조직효과성 변수에 미치는 효과에 주목하였다. 하지만, 이러한 관행은 두 가지 제한점을 갖는다. 먼저, 이러한 연구 관행은 상사의 증진된 기대가 표출되는 피그말리온 리더십 행동(조직내 피그말리온 효과의 리더십 측면의 매개 과정)을 고려하지 않고, 상사의 기대와 조직효과성 변수간의 단순 효과만을 주목하였다. 둘째로, 상사의 기대가 피그말리온 리더십 행동을 통해 부하에게 전달되어 그들의 동기를 증진시키는 또 하나의 매개 과정(조직내 피그말리온 효과의 작업동기 측면의 매개과정)을 체계적으로 검토하지 않았다. 따라서 본 연구에서는 이러한 두 가지 제한점을 극복하기 위하여 피그말리온 리더십 행동에 대한 이론적 개념화와 이와 관련한 연구 가설을 제안하였다. 먼저 조직내 피그말리온 효과와 관련한 광범위한 문헌을 토대로 요인 수준에서 피그말리온 리더십 행동의 6요인 (목표완수 지원/Input, 성과창출기회 제공/Output, 팀워 촉진/Teamwork facilitation, 정서적 유대형성/Climate, 긍정적으로 봐주기/Feedback, 및 영감 고취/Inspiration)을 제시하였다. 또한 피그말리온 리더십 행동이 조직효과성 변수(유능과 협력)에 미치는 효과를 매개하는 작업동기 변수로서, 자기효능감, 상사-부하 교환관계의 질, 및 개인간 공정성을 검토하였고 이와 관련한 5가지 미래 연구 가설을 배경 연구와 함께 제안하였다. 추가적으로 피그말리온 리더십 행동의 리더십 교육/훈련 측면의 시사점과 미래 연구 방향을 논의하였다.

주요어 : 피그말리온 효과, 피그말리온 리더십, 개인간 기대, 기대 효과, 리더십, 리더십 교육, 자성예언