

Leadership

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It is hardly a bold statement to argue that leadership is one of the more foundational topics in organizational behavior. Every organizational behavior text has at least one, and often two, chapters on leadership, and leadership concerns are regularly at the forefront of business organizations and social policy debates. In all societies – human and nonhuman alike – individuals organize themselves into groups, and leaders emerge. Leaders are, by definition, at the pinnacle of these groups and organizations, and their actions, while not occurring in a vacuum, often change the course of the groups and organizations they lead and, in some cases, entire societies. Although the stakes are high, and the importance of their decisions are fundamental, effective leadership is all too often in the eye of the beholder. For instance, in a recent three-day period, one prominent Princeton historian proclaimed George W. Bush the worst US President in history (Wilentz, April 21, 2006), whereas a former deputy prime minister of Israel and survivor of the Soviet Gulag argued that Bush is a modern

dissident whose doctrine is likely to forever change the international political landscape (Sharansky, April 24, 2006). It sometimes seems, to paraphrase Shakespeare, ‘There is no good or bad leader but thinking makes it so.’

It might be argued that two of the greatest difficulties that undermine rational discourse are naïve realism and hindsight biases. Both have special significance to leadership research. If one defines naïve realism as the assumption that things are as they seem (Russell, 1940), we often find that it is generalized, so that we assume that others see things as they appear to us. Ichheiser (1949) notes:

We tend to resolve our perplexity arising out of the experience that other people see the world differently than we see it ourselves by declaring that these others, in consequence of some basic intellectual and moral defect, are unable to see things ‘as they really are’ and to react to them ‘in a normal way.’ We thus imply, of course, that things are in fact as we see them, and that our ways are the normal ways. (p. 39)

One can quickly see how naïve realism poses special problems for leadership research. We tend to fall into the solipsism of arguing that an effective leader is one who is seen as effective. Like all solipsisms, at a practical level, this is an intellectual dead-end – impossible to refute, and impossible to validate. However, the problem is even greater than that. Because people tend to rationalize their naïve realism, they tend to assume that their subjective appraisal is the ‘right’ appraisal – that no reasonable person could see it any other way.

With respect to the other psychological-philosophical difficulty that we raised – hindsight bias – we often succumb to the tautology of judging effective leadership by the results. If one admits that many outcomes are beyond a leader’s control, then one must wonder how history might have judged a leader quite differently if fate had twisted a different way. It seems that the perception of leadership is not merely immersed in our own values, but in the perceived outcomes under a leader’s watch, irrespective of the leader behaviors that may or may not have produced the outcome. Moreover, we also tend to confuse leadership emergence with leadership effectiveness. According to Fortune magazine’s poll of businesspeople, the world’s five most-admired corporations are: General Electric, Toyota Motor, Procter and Gamble, FedEx, and Johnson and Johnson. How would we measure the effectiveness of the leaders of these organizations? Most of us seem to measure effectiveness by either ascendance (the leader of General Electric must be a good leader or he wouldn’t have become a leader), or by the results (any leader who doesn’t produce results is a poor leader).

Thus, the leadership scholar’s task is a difficult one. We study an important concept. In theory, most of us would agree that Carlyle was telling the truth when he wrote of the importance of great leaders to societies. However, in applying that concept, we should not lose sight of conceptual and empirical difficulties in the study of leadership. Not every scholar agrees on what is effective

leadership, or the behaviors that produce this effectiveness. Moreover, the situation can become even more muddled when one seeks to apply the concepts empirically. Our point is not to suggest that effective leadership is impossible to define or measure. Rather, our point is that unless we discipline ourselves to recognize these conceptual traps, we run the risk of doing more harm than good. This is the path taken by most of the business process: Carly Fiorina is a hero and great leader one minute and, once she is deposed at Hewlett-Packard, she is a poor leader or, worse, a corporate villain.

Keeping these difficulties ever in mind, there are and have been, we believe, important insights to be gleaned from the study of leadership. In this review, we focus our attention on a concept of leadership – charismatic or transformational leadership – which has been the dominant focus of contemporary leadership research. One may well question the wisdom of confining our analysis to only one theory of leadership when indeed there are scores of studies on many different theories of leadership. We do for several reasons. First, there is the simple issue of length. Given the (understandable) desire of the editors to keep each review relatively brief, there is simply not sufficient space to give anything but a superficial review of other leadership theories. Forced to choose between complete omission and superficial treatment, we chose the former sin over the latter. Second, charismatic/transformational leadership is the dominant conceptualization of leadership in organizational behavior. It has been for the past several decades, and promises to be so even when this review is outdated.

Accordingly, in this article we review the charismatic/transformational leadership literatures. In so doing, we discuss measurement, validity, moderating factors, and finally return to some of the issues above in offering an agenda for future research. Although we do not explicitly consider other theories of leadership, we will in several places make reference to either classic or what we see as emerging leadership concepts.

REVIEW OF CHARISMATIC AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP RESEARCH

Charismatic leadership

Although the term has ancient origins ('kharisma' appeared in Ancient Greek, meaning 'divine favor'), the first scholar to discuss charismatic leadership was Max Weber. Weber argued that in organizational systems, there are three types of authority to which people will submit: traditional, legal/rational, and charismatic. Weber (1922/1947: 358–359) defined charisma as being 'set apart from ordinary people and treated as endowed with supernatural, superhuman, or at least specifically exceptional powers or qualities...regarded as of divine origin or as exemplary, and on the basis of them the individual concerned is treated as a leader.' Despite Weber's importance as a sociologist and political economist, his work on charisma lay mostly dormant until the mid 1970s.

House (1977) further developed Weber's concept in articulating a theory of charismatic leadership that, at its core, argued that followers are motivated by leaders based on the attributions they make about them (which in turn are based on certain leader behaviors). House focused specifically on behaviors that followers attribute as extraordinary or heroic. Based on House's theory, researchers then began to uncover and identify key characteristics of charismatic leadership. Conger and Kanungo (1998), for example, argued that charismatic leadership is typified by four behaviors:

- possessing and articulating a vision;
- willingness to take risks to achieve the vision;
- exhibiting sensitivity to follower needs; and
- demonstrating novel behavior.

Three interesting conceptual issues are worthy of discussion here. First, much of the work on charismatic leadership has eschewed the Weberian perspective that charismatic leaders are rare or extraordinary. Conger (1989: 161),

for example, opined that charisma 'is not some magical ability limited to a handful.' As Trice and Beyer (1986) and Beyer (1999) argue, such approaches 'tame' charismatic leadership in that they assume that charisma is a property possessed by all individuals (to a greater or lesser degree). On the one hand, if we are to empirically study charismatic leadership, we cannot do so based on the assumption that it is a quality held by a handful of individuals (there are not enough such leaders to study). Moreover, most human characteristics seem to follow a normal distribution, or some semblance of one. Why should charisma be any different? On the other hand, if charisma is seen as relatively commonplace, have we damaged the concept? Clearly, the charismatic qualities of political leaders from Lincoln to Hitler, religious leaders from Martin Luther to Pope Jean Paul II, and business leaders from Estée Lauder to Jack Welch, do not seem to be a general commodity.

Second, some researchers would distinguish charisma as a trait or personal quality from the charismatic leadership process. House, for example, argues in favor of the latter. Locke and colleagues, conversely, clearly distinguishes a charismatic communication style from other leadership qualities. These approaches are not necessarily in conflict – charismatic leadership may be a particular type of influence process, but that does not necessarily mean that some individuals are more predisposed to use this form of influence, or use it effectively, more than others. This is a topic to which we return later.

Finally, though Conger (1990) has written extensively about the dark side of charismatic leadership, judging from the research literature, he seems like a lone voice. As the aforementioned examples of charismatic leaders suggest, however, charismatic leadership seemingly can be used for either good or bad ends, depending on one's perspective and the hindsight of history. It seems obvious that charismatic leadership is neither inherently good nor evil, but the implicit assumption in the literature has been that it is a positive force in organizations. Our own view is that

if we are to resist tautological thinking, we must distinguish charismatic behavior from its outcomes. In so doing, we recognize that if charisma is a form of influence, it can be used for good or ill. Moreover, we are not talking about lawful relations here – one can find many examples of ineffective charismatic leaders, and effective non-charismatic leaders.

Transformational leadership

At nearly the same time that House (1977) was developing his theory of charismatic leadership, Bass (1985) – drawing from Burns' (1978) book on political leadership – was developing his theory of transformational leadership. Subsequently, Bass and Avolio joined forces, and developed a revised model of transformational and transactional leadership. The Full Range Leadership model,

developed by Bass and Avolio (see Avolio and Bass, 1991), contains both transactional and transformational leadership (see Figure 1). Components of transactional and transformational leadership are arranged in two-dimensional space, where the vertical axis is leadership effectiveness (rising from ineffective to effective), and the horizontal axis is involvement (moving from passive to active). Transactional leadership styles tend to fall in the ineffective and passive quadrant, while transformational leadership styles largely fall in the effective and active quadrant of the model. Although this seems to indicate that transformational leadership is superior to transactional leadership, transformational leadership researchers argue that the two may actually complement each other.

The four dimensions of transactional leadership are contingent reward, management by exception (active), management by exception (passive), and laissez-faire.

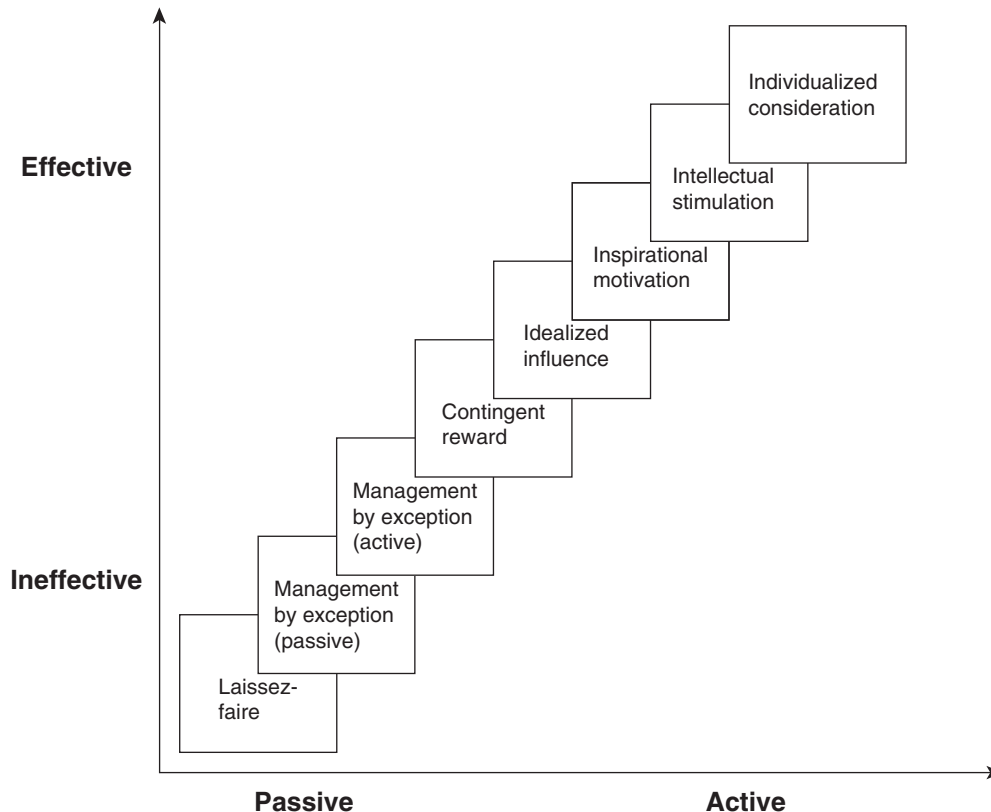


Figure 1 The full range leadership model (adapted from Bass and Avolio, 1991)

(passive), and laissez-faire. In contingent reward leadership, leaders provide resources in exchange for follower support (Bass and Riggio, 2006). Management by exception has two aspects – active and passive. In the active case, leaders monitor followers' performance and take corrective action when needed. In the passive case, known as management by exception-passive, leaders do little monitoring and only intervene when the problem becomes serious. In laissez-faire leadership, leaders simply avoid leadership responsibilities. These transactional leadership behaviors become decreasingly effective as leader participation declines. Thus, contingent reward is thought to be the most effective form of transactional leadership whereas laissez-faire is considered the most ineffective, the latter so much so that some argue it is not even transactional leadership (see Judge and Piccolo, 2004).

Transformational leadership supplements the characteristics of transactional leadership, and followers are inspirationally influenced. Bass (1985) explained that transformational leadership is accomplished through the four I's:

- idealized influence;
- inspirational motivation;
- intellectual stimulation; and
- individualized consideration (Bass, 1985).

Idealized influence is demonstrated when the transformational leader serves as a charismatic role model to followers. By articulating an inspiring vision to their followers, transformational leaders are said to foster inspirational motivation. Intellectual stimulation is generated when transformational leaders stimulate followers' creativity by questioning and challenging them. Finally, attending to individual needs of followers allows transformational leaders to promote individualized consideration. It is argued that the effects of transformational leadership actually augment the effects of transactional leadership, which suggests that the best leaders tend to be both transactional and transformational (Bass, 1985).

Charismatic and transformational leadership

Some debate exists regarding the synonymy or interchangeability of charismatic and transformational leadership. House has argued that the two are more similar than different, with the differences being relatively small. House and Podsakoff (1994), for example, characterized the disagreements among authors of these theories as 'modest' and 'minor' (pp. 71–72). Conger and Kanungo (1998) appear to agree, noting, 'There is little real difference' between charismatic and transformational leadership (p. 15). On the other hand, the main developers and proponents of transformational leadership, Bass and Avolio (1994), argue that charismatic leadership is a lower-level component of transformational leadership, so that transformational leadership is a broader concept than is charisma. Bass (1985), while arguing that charisma is part of transformational leadership, also argues that it, in and of itself, is insufficient to 'account for the transformational process' (p. 31). While scholars may still disagree on the specifics of these two types of leadership, scores on the measures are very highly correlated, meaning that in the vast majority of the cases, a leader who scores high on one measure type is very likely to score high on the other, and vice-versa. We now turn to a discussion of such measures.

Measurement

Bass and Avolio's (1990) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) is the most extensively validated and commonly used measure of transformational and transactional leadership, so much so that one is hard-pressed to point out a viable alternative. Several different versions of the MLQ exist, such as the MLQ-Form 5R and the MLQ-Form 10. The former addresses both leadership behaviors and effects and has been therefore criticized (see Hunt, 1991). The latter, however, only examines leadership behaviors. For these reasons, the MLQ-Form 5X has been established in order to

replace the MLQ-Form 5R and resolve several inadequacies.

There are several important, unresolved issues in measuring transformational leadership. First, there is some debate about whether the MLQ dimensions are distinct. Some writers argue that the evidence supports the distinctiveness of the dimensions (e.g., Avolio et al., 1999). However, the dimensions are highly correlated (the correlations among the dimensions are nearly always greater than 0.70, and often in the 0.90 range), and many researchers combine the dimensions into a single factor (see Judge and Piccolo, 2004). Yukl (1999: 288) concluded, 'The partially overlapping content and the high inter-correlation found among the transformational behaviors raise doubts about their construct validity.'

A second and perhaps an even more disturbing problem is the distinctiveness of the transformational and transactional leadership dimensions. Judge and Piccolo (2004) found, in a meta-analysis of 87 correlations, that transformational and contingent reward leadership correlated 0.80 (the 80 per cent credibility interval was 0.65 to 0.95, meaning that 80 per cent of the individually corrected correlations were between 0.65 and 0.95). Since this correlation is roughly the same as the correlation among the transformational leadership dimensions, this calls into question the distinctiveness of the measures of transformational and contingent reward leadership. Third, although charismatic and transformational leadership may be conceptually distinct, we are not aware of distinct measures of charismatic leadership. Conger et al. (1997) did develop a measure of charismatic leadership. However, their measure appears quite similar to measures of transformational leadership such as the MLQ, and it has not achieved widespread adoption. More work comparing and contrasting measures of charismatic, transformational, and transactional leadership is needed.

Finally, perhaps explaining the aforementioned result, there is the continuing problem measurement problems endemic to all such rating instruments. Specifically, there is little

doubt that, to a moderate or even strong degree, such instruments suffer from halo effects. If a rater has a positive attitude toward one aspect of a leader, or toward the leader overall, it is likely that this attitude spills over and contaminates the ratings of other specific dimensions. There may be a general factor in leadership, independent of halo effects, as has been found in the job performance literature (Viswesvaran et al., 2005). However, this does not mean that halo is not a serious problem in the leadership literature. Positive halo occurs when raters' general impression affects their ratings of specific behaviors. As Palmer et al. (2003) noted with respect to performance ratings, 'Positive halo means a reduction in the specificity of performance ratings, making assessment of individual strengths and weaknesses, and thus performance feedback, difficult' (p. 83). We see no reason why this problem is any less significant in the leadership literature.

Second, the attributional biases we noted at the beginning of this review loom large. Some evidence suggests that once individuals form an impression of leadership effectiveness, they then attribute characteristics or behaviors to those leaders based on their implicit theories (which may be culturally conditioned) of leadership (Lord and Hall, 1992). As noted by Brown and Lord (1999), because experimental research designs can obviate or even eliminate this problem, more experimental leadership studies need to be conducted. Unfortunately, as has often been noted in organizational psychology (Locke, 1986), many have biases against experimental research, despite its many advantages, including its ability to address the attributional bias.

OUTCOMES: VALIDITY OF CHARISMATIC AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Examinations of the validities of charismatic and transformational leadership reveal that both have important effects on criteria of interest to organizational behavior researchers.

In ameta-analysis of the relationship between transformational leadership, as measured by the MLQ, and leader effectiveness, Lowe et al. (1996) found validities of 0.71 for charisma, 0.62 for individualized consideration, and 0.60 for intellectual stimulation. In contrast, contingent reward and management-by-exception exhibited validities of 0.41 and 0.05, respectively. Corrected correlations were significantly higher for follower ratings of effectiveness ($\rho = 0.81$) than organizational measures ($\rho = 0.35$). Two other meta-analyses provide equivalent results, albeit with minor variations (DeGroot et al., 2000; Fuller et al., 1996).

The most recent meta-analysis of transformational leadership is by Judge and Piccolo (2004). This study differed from the previous meta-analyses in several ways. First, it included a larger number of studies than the others. Second, it tested the hypothesis that charismatic and transformational leadership have similar validities, seeking to add clarity to the long-running debate about the difference between them. Third, consistent with Bass' (1985) augmentation hypothesis, Judge and Piccolo sought to establish whether transactional leadership behaviors offer unique contributions to outcomes or recede entirely in significance when transformational leadership is controlled.

The validities Judge and Piccolo (2004) found are displayed in Table 1. All confidence intervals for transformational leadership excluded zero, as did all credibility intervals except the one for longitudinal designs, meaning that the average validities can be distinguished from zero, and the vast majority of the individual correlations in each study were nonzero. Supporting the view that measures of charismatic and transformational leadership are functionally equivalent, there was no significant difference in the overall validities of charismatic versus transformational leadership. Judge and Piccolo also found that measures of transformational leadership were substantially correlated with several dimensions of transactional leadership, most notably with contingent-reward (0.80) and laissez-faire

Table 1 Transformational leadership validities

	\bar{r}	ρ
<i>Overall</i>		
• Average across all conditions	.38	.44
<i>By Criteria</i>		
• Follower Job Satisfaction	.49	.58
• Satisfaction with Leader	.64	.71
• Follower Motivation	.46	.53
• Leader Job Performance	.23	.27
• Group/Organization Performance	.21	.26
• Leader Effectiveness	.56	.64
<i>By Data Collection</i>		
• Cross-Sectional	.44	.50
• Longitudinal	.23	.27
<i>By Source of Data</i>		
• Same-Source	.48	.55
• Multi-Source	.24	.28
<i>By Study Design</i>		
• Laboratory	.35	.40
• Field	.39	.45
<i>By Leader Level</i>		
• Lower- or supervisory-level	.41	.47
• Mid-level	.33	.37
• Upper-level or CEO	.48	.56

Notes: \bar{r} = uncorrected average correlation.
 ρ = correlation corrected for measurement error.

leadership (−0.65). Notably, the differences in validities between transformational leadership and contingent-reward leadership were fairly small. Contingent-reward even displayed somewhat higher validities in studies of business (as opposed to military or educational) organizations, and with follower job satisfaction, follower motivation, and leader job performance. However, the validities of transformational leadership were stronger under better research designs and were more consistent across study settings. Finally, with the exception of leader job performance, transformational leadership positively predicted all criteria in regressions that entered all of the leadership types, though the validities were quite a bit lower than the zero-order relationships. Contingent reward also positively predicted the criteria, though

the magnitudes of these relationships were considerably lower than those of transformational leadership.

Beyond these meta-analyses, recent research has sought to link charismatic and transformational leadership to other criteria. These criteria can be broadly grouped into:

- (a) follower attitudes and psychological states;
- (b) follower behaviors and specific performance dimensions; and
- (c) group processes.

In the first category, transformational leadership has been consistently positively associated with commitment (Meyer et al., 2002); self-efficacy (e.g., Dvir et al., 2002); psychological empowerment (Avolio et al., 2004; Hepworth and Towler, 2004); organizational identification (Epitropaki and Martin, 2005); and safety consciousness (Barling et al., 2002). It has also been negatively associated with employee cynicism about organizational change (Bommer et al., 2005).

With regard to specific performance dimensions and behaviors, transformational leadership positively predicts organizational citizenship (e.g., Podsakoff et al., 1996). Little work has been done on the influence of transformational leadership on counterproductive behavior, though one study (Hepworth and Towler, 2004) found a negative relationship with workplace aggression while another (Walumbwa and Lawler, 2003) found that followers of transformational leaders were less likely to exhibit job and work withdrawal. Several experimental studies have also examined the effect of transformational leadership on creativity and creative performance. Most have found that, relative to transactional leadership, transformational leadership has a significantly more positive impact on creative performance (e.g., Hoyt and Blascovich, 2003; Jung, 2001), although one found the reverse (Kahai et al., 2003).

There have also been numerous experimental inquiries into the impact of transformational leadership on group processes, providing substantial evidence that charismatic

leaders enhance group cohesiveness (e.g., Bass et al., 2003; Hoyt and Blascovich, 2003); group potency (Bass et al., 2003; Lester et al., 2002); and collective efficacy (Kark et al., 2003). One study, furthermore, found that social loafing was less likely in groups led by transformational leaders (Kahai et al., 2003).

Falling somewhat outside of these three categories, another study (Bono and Anderson, 2005) examined the influence of transformational leaders on informal network positions of leaders and followers. They found that managers scoring higher on transformational leadership were more central in advice and influence networks. Moreover, their direct and indirect reports were more central in advice networks, while their direct reports were also more central in influence networks. These findings are interesting because they illuminate a previously unconsidered mechanism by which transformational leaders may exert influence on their own and their followers' outcomes.

There is sufficient laboratory and field evidence to convince us that transformational leadership has important effects on criteria of interest to organizational behavior researchers. There is still much to be learned, however, about the process by which transformational leadership exerts influence, its relative validity, and its generalizability across cultures. We examine these issues in the following sections, beginning with what influences charismatic and transformational leadership and moving to variables that may moderate their effectiveness.

INFLUENCES ON CHARISMATIC AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Over the past decade, a number of influences on transformational and charismatic leadership have been identified. The antecedents studied are separated into individual and contextual variables for the purpose of this review. Transformational leadership has recently been the subject of two large-scale meta-analyses examining dispositional and

demographic antecedents: one summarizing its relationship with gender, and the other with personality. According to Eagly et al. (2003), women are more likely to exhibit transformational leadership behaviors than men, though the average difference is quite small ($\bar{d} = -0.10$, meaning that women, on average, score one-tenth of a standard deviation higher on transformational leadership than do men). In terms of personality, Bono and Judge (2004) reported that extraversion is the strongest predictor of transformational leadership behaviors, ($\rho = 0.24$) although all of the Big Five, except for conscientiousness, exhibit significant relationships with transformational leadership (neuroticism: $\rho = -0.17$; openness: $\rho = 0.15$; and agreeableness: $\rho = 0.14$).

Other individual differences variables that have been found to positively influence charismatic and transformational leadership are proactive personality (Crant and Bateman, 2000); traditional, self-transcendent (altruistic) and self-enhancement (egotistic) values (Sosik, 2005); and, somewhat ominously, narcissism (Judge et al., 2006) and Machiavellianism (e.g., Deluga, 1997; 2001). Also, Bommer et al. (2004) found that leaders who are cynical about organizational change are less likely to be judged as transformational.

Several contextual antecedents of charismatic and transformational leadership have also been the subject of research. The presence of peer leadership behaviors increases the likelihood of a leader exhibiting transformational leadership (Bommer et al., 2004). In a 'meso' level examination of charismatic leadership, Pillai and Meindl (1998) report a positive relationship between organic structure (as opposed to mechanistic) and charismatic leadership and between collectivistic cultural orientation (as opposed to individualistic) and charismatic leadership. These, in concert with Sosik's (2005) findings that charismatic leadership is positively predicted by collectivistic work characteristics, support additional examination of contextual factors related to charismatic leadership.

MODERATORS OF CHARISMATIC AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

In addition to influences on transformational and charismatic leadership, recent research has begun to identify moderators of the relationship of charismatic and transformational leadership with various outcomes. The five leader-or follower-level outcomes most investigated are:

- (a) effectiveness (e.g., Fuller et al., 1996; Spreitzer et al., 2005; Wofford et al., 2001);
- (b) performance (Fuller et al., 1996; Whittington et al., 2004);
- (c) motivation (Felfe and Schyns, 2002);
- (d) satisfaction (Fuller et al., 1996); and
- (e) commitment (Meyer et al., 2002).

Individual differences variables that have been found to be moderators of transformational leadership are goal setting, growth need strength, need for autonomy, and values. These variables reflect characteristics of the rater or the follower that influence the effects found for transformational leadership. One study, for example, found that goal-setting moderated the effects of transformational leadership on both affective commitment and performance such that, for both, goal-setting enhanced the strength of the relationship (Whittington et al., 2004).

Growth need strength and need for autonomy also appear to enhance the effects of transformational leadership. Wofford et al. (2001) found that, when need for autonomy and growth need strength of the employee are high, transformational leadership leads to greater group effectiveness. They also found that growth need strength enhanced the effects of transformational leadership on satisfaction with the leader.

Other research has investigated individual differences that suppress the effects of transformational leadership. Spreitzer et al. (2005) found that valuing traditionality (emphasizing respect for hierarchy) moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and ratings of effectiveness by superiors, such that transformational leaders are perceived

to be less effective when the superior is a traditionalist in both the US and Taiwan.

Contextual variables also may moderate the relationship of transformational leadership with various outcomes. The effects of transformational leadership have been found, in particular, to vary by organizational sector. Lowe et al.'s (1996) meta-analysis revealed that relationships between transformational leadership behaviors and effectiveness were significantly higher in public than private organizations. Fuller et al. (1996) found that validities for performance were significantly higher in student and military samples than in civilian samples, while the validity for perceived effectiveness was higher in military than in civilian samples. Likewise, Judge and Piccolo (2004) found that transformational leadership was more valid in military settings.

Meta-analytic evidence also suggests that leader level moderates the effects of charismatic and transformational leadership. Fuller et al. (1996) found that the relationship between charismatic leadership and performance is somewhat stronger for upper-level leaders, and Judge and Piccolo (2004) showed that transformational leadership has a stronger impact on performance for leaders at the supervisory level ($\rho = 0.48$) than for those in middle- or upper-management ($\rho = 0.37$). Further supporting the moderating effects of leader level, Avolio et al. (2004) found that the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment is more strongly positive when the supervision is indirect (i.e., leader-follower structural distance is high).

Job characteristics also moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. Whittington et al. (2004) found that job enrichment substitutes for the effect of transformational leadership on organizational commitment, and the relationship is more positive when the supervision is indirect (structural distance is higher). Additional evidence that job characteristics act as moderators of transformational leadership effects was offered by Felfe and Schyns (2002). They found that high task

demands neutralize the relationship between transformational leadership and self-efficacy, such that the relationship is zero when task demands are high and negative when they are low (Felfe and Schyns, 2002).

Finally, the internal and external organizational contexts influence the effects of transformational leadership. Felfe and Schyns (2002) found that climate moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and self-efficacy, such that the relationship is positive when climate is good and negative when it is bad. With regard to external context, another study found that high levels of environmental uncertainty strengthen the positive relationship between CEOs' charismatic leadership and subordinates' perception of their performance (de Hoogh et al., 2004). Furthermore, the relationship between charismatic leadership and firm profitability was stronger when the CEO was a firm owner rather than a managing director.

There is a potpourri of evidence that individual differences and contextual factors moderate the effects of charismatic and transformational leadership. Yet, systematic study and integration are still needed. Shamir and Howell (1999) advanced a model of organizational and contextual influences on the transformational leadership process, which suggested that factors like situational strength, organizational governance, and linkage of organizational goals to dominant society values should influence whether transformational leaders emerge and their likely effects. Their framework may be useful in guiding future research on contextual moderators as well as inspiring further specification of a model of individual differences moderators and the relationships between the two.

CROSS-CULTURAL EVIDENCE

Bass (1997) has posited that the effects of transformational leadership are universal, generalizing across cultures. This is a strong assertion given that cultural values vary as, presumably, do implicit assumptions about leadership. While some research

supports the universality of charismatic and transformational leadership (e.g., Walumba et al., 2005), other studies challenge the role charismatic leaders may play in different cultures (e.g., Zagorsek et al., 2004).

The GLOBE studies – a study of leadership, organizational culture, and national culture in three industries across 62 nations – are particularly noteworthy with regard to the cross-cultural relevance of transformational leadership (e.g., Dorfman et al., 2004; Den Hartog et al., 1999). Although there is some variation in the findings across countries, in general, the results support the importance of charismatic or transformational leadership across cultures. Den Hartog et al. (1999: 250) conclude, ‘The combined results of the major GLOBE study and the follow-up study demonstrate that several attributes reflecting charismatic/transformational leadership are universally endorsed as contributing to outstanding leadership.’

Broad and convincing support exists for the relevance of transformational and charismatic leadership in various cultural settings, yet some characteristics of national cultures that can influence the emergence, perceptions, and effects of these leadership styles. For example, Stajkovic et al. (2005) examined data from senior managers in the US (an individualistic culture) and China (a collective culture). Results suggested that culture moderated the positive relationship between charismatic leadership and social network extensiveness. In similar fashion, Walumbwa and Lawler (2003) found that collectivism moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and several job outcomes such as job satisfaction, withdrawal behavior, and organizational commitment in a sample of Chinese, Indian, and Kenyan workers; the form of the interaction was such that the relationships were stronger for collectivists. Finally, Javidan and Carl (2004) compared Iranian and Canadian managers and found the former to be significantly lower-rated, suggesting a difference in either manifestations of leadership behaviors or in the ways in which such behaviors are interpreted.

In addition to culture at the nation-state level, culture may also be considered at the organization level, wherein organizational cultures may vary in their charismatic or transformational styles. For example, although Carly Fiorina was hailed as the first ‘rock star’ CEO when she became head of Hewlett-Packard in 1999, when she was ousted in 2005, people argued that she may have been too flashy for HP’s conservative culture (though HP’s 50 per cent drop in stock price during her tenure certainly precipitated her fall; Cowley and Rohde, 2005). A theoretically-relevant cultural attribute may thus be analyzed at the national or organizational level.

Kotter and Heskett (1992) offered a perspective of adaptive and non-adaptive cultures. Adaptive cultures are more prone to emphasizing innovation, integrity, enthusiasm, teamwork, frank communication, and risk taking. On the contrary, non-adaptive cultures do not promote risk taking, innovation, or change and are instead focused on efficiency and order. Based on these characteristics, adaptive cultures may be more amenable to the emergence and effects of charismatic leadership compared to non-adaptive cultures.

DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

As is true of any literature that has reached a certain stage of maturation, the low hanging fruit has been picked, which leads to the paradox that the most important topics to be researched are also the least tractable.

Causal inference

Although there have been some studies of charismatic leadership that would satisfy the reader skeptical of causal inference, the literature is dominated by cross-sectional correlational designs, where causal inferences are highly suspect. Alternatively, some studies that would support causal inference are often conducted in the laboratory, which often constitutes a ‘weak’ situation in leadership research (Judge et al., 2002). To be sure, some

field studies do support causal inferences to varying degrees. However, we think the problem is a greater one than that often recognized in the literature. The reason for our concern is a research stream showing that individuals have implicit stereotypes of charismatic or transformational leaders, meaning that, if a leader is deemed to be effective, attributional labels comporting with stereotypes of charismatic, transformational, or visionary leadership often will be invoked (Epitropaki and Martin, 2004). Although we realize it is much easier to call for rigorous designs than it is to design and execute rigorous studies, we do not think the ease of the call renders it invalid. To repeat an earlier refrain, we think laboratory studies have much to offer here.

Distinction between charismatic and transformational leadership

As noted by Hunt and Conger (1999), the vast majority of leadership research uses the terms charisma and transformational leadership interchangeably. However, we tend to agree with Hunt and Conger (1999: 340): ‘We conclude that there needs to be more differentiation than there has typically been in the use of the two terms’. Although we agree with Conger (1999) that various models of charismatic and transformational leadership (e.g., House’s model, the Bass-Avolio model, Conger and Kanungo’s model, Shamir and associates’ model) share more similarities than differences and that the models appear to be converging, we are not altogether certain this is a positive development.

We think there is a clear distinction to be made – at least in concept – between vision (a desired end-state) and charisma (a personal quality that is manifested in a dynamic, expressive communication style). A vision may transcend an individual, and be passed on from leader to leader (Collins and Porras, 1991). Charisma, conversely, is necessarily a personal quality. This is not to say that individuals who are charismatic might not be more likely to also have a vision. We suspect, measurement problems aside, that charismatic

leaders are probably more likely to develop and communicate visions. But we think these concepts have not been measured in a way that reflects their actual distinctiveness. If one examines the MLQ and other popular measures, the items often confound the two: ‘Talks *enthusiastically* about what needs to be accomplished’ (emphasis added).

The best work here has been done by Locke and colleagues. Baum et al. (1998) found that entrepreneurial visions that possessed certain attributes (e.g., brief, clear, future-oriented), were well-communicated, and focused on growth were associated with higher levels of business venture growth. They also found that the communication of a vision also mattered, though they did not measure charismatic communication style per se. Using trained actors as leaders, Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996) found that vision quality and cues for vision implementation each affected satisfaction and performance, whereas a charismatic communication style was unrelated to these outcomes. However, with the exception of Locke, Kirkpatrick and colleagues, no research has distinguished visionary leadership from a charismatic communication style.

Ignoring transactional leadership

In the largest meta-analytic review to date, Judge and Piccolo (2004) found that transactional leadership was as or more important than transformational leadership for many criteria. Collapsed across all criteria, the overall validity of transformational leadership was only slightly greater than contingent reward leadership ($\rho = 0.44$ vs. $\rho = 0.39$, respectively). Judge and Piccolo (2004) also found that the negative effects of laissez-faire leadership were far from trivial. Thus, current thinking about transformational leadership needs to take into account that, in many cases, transactional leadership may be at least as important. What are the situations in which transactional leadership may be particularly important, even more important than transformational leadership? Are there situations, as Avolio and Bass (1994) argue,

that both are needed, or are there situations when high levels of one can substitute for low levels of the other?

Mediating mechanisms

In 1999, Bass concluded, 'Much more explanation is needed about the workings of transformational leadership' (p. 24). Since that time, there have been a large number of efforts to explore mediators of charismatic and transformational leadership (e.g., Avolio et al., 2004; Bono and Anderson, 2005; Bono and Judge, 2003; Jung and Avolio, 2000; Jung et al., 2003; Kark, et al., 2003; McCann et al., 2006; Purvanova et al., 2006; Shin and Zhou, 2003; Walumbwa et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2005). However, this focus on mediators has occurred in such a rush that it is difficult to integrate and make sense of the efforts. Indeed, it is scarcely the case that any of the same mediators have been investigated across studies. It is beyond the scope of this review to provide an integration of these mediators. We call for relatively more focus on integrative efforts and relatively less focus on the continued generation of individual mediator variables. Studies that make use of meta-analytic path analyses, as has been advocated in general (Viswesvaran and Ones, 1995), and carried out in other areas (e.g., Colquitt et al., 2000), would be particularly valuable here.

Are leaders made: development of charismatic/transformational leadership

We have already noted that there is clear evidence that good leaders are born. But this does not necessarily mean that good leaders cannot be made, anymore than a genetic component to intelligence means that individuals cannot learn. There is evidence that individuals can be trained to exhibit transformational leadership behaviors (Barling et al., 1996b; Dvir et al., 2002; Frese et al., 2003). Although these studies are noteworthy for their use of control groups, there are three ways in which future research is needed to

fully validate the developmental nature of charismatic or transformational leadership. First, the longevity of training effects needs to be studied. The studies above were of relatively short duration (several months). What happens as more time passes? Is there a permanency to what is learned, or do the learning and learned behaviors decay? Second, we need to determine whether and when there are specific aspects of transformational leadership training that are meaningful. Is it possible that most *any* leadership training program would have an effect? Only through a comparison of transformational leadership training with other leadership models can this question be answered. Finally, if one is to separate a charismatic communication style from visionary leadership (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1996), then can the former be developed? Although Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996) successfully trained professional actors to display a charismatic communication style (a powerful, confident, and dynamic presence through both verbal and nonverbal behaviors, it is not clear whether the average person would similarly benefit from charisma training, nor how long such development might last.

Moral leadership

One troubling aspect of transformational leadership theory is the presumption that transformational leadership is inherently positive. Bass (1985: 21) originally argued that 'transformational leadership is not necessarily beneficial leadership.' However, he later appeared to modify that position, arguing, 'Transformational leaders move followers to transcend their own self-interests for the good of the group, organization, or country' (Bass, 1997: 133). Research on transformational leadership has overwhelmingly been based on the assumption that transformational leadership is universally positive. There is no reason to believe that all change is good, nor is there any reason to believe that persuasive leadership is always directed toward positive ends. Indeed, we would submit that in the realm of the most salient leaders in human

history, there are as many leaders deemed evil as benevolent. For every Churchill, there is a Hitler. Moreover, to most acts of transformational leadership, there is a moral ambiguity. Jack Welch may be viewed a great business leader by many, but what about the employees he was responsible for firing? Even his critics would have to acknowledge that Franklin Roosevelt was a transformational US President, but he also tried to usurp the power and independence of the judicial branch of government when they threatened his power. Our point is that we see the presumption that transformational leadership is a force for good to be heavy ontological baggage for the theory to carry.

Although not necessarily resolving this implicit contradiction, Avolio and colleagues have recently focused on a concept they term authentic leadership. According to Avolio and Gardner (2005: 321), authentic leaders are

those who are deeply aware of how they think and behave and are perceived by others as being aware of their own and others' values/moral perspectives, knowledge, and strengths; aware of the context in which they operate; and who are confident, hopeful, optimistic, resilient, and of high moral character.

Although the lines of demarcation between this model of leadership and transformational leadership are yet to be clearly drawn, it does open up the intriguing possibility of transformational leaders who project an image of good leadership, but act in the service of their interests at the expense of their followers. Avolio and Gardner (2005) further distinguish authentic from transformational leadership. In the former, 'the leader may not actively set out to transform the follower into a leader, but may do so simply by being role model for followers', thus viewing authentic leadership 'as being much more relational, where both follower and leader are shaped in their respective development' (p. 327).

Authentic leadership may or may not be the *deus ex machina* that resolves the issue of whether transformational leadership is necessarily benevolent. After all, as can be

clearly seen in the case of Osama bin Laden, whether a leader is judged as moral or evil very much depends on the perspective of the perceiver. Moreover, it is not entirely clear whether transformational leadership is a necessary condition for authentic leadership, or authentic leadership a necessary condition for transformational, or neither. Despite these difficulties, we think this is a pivotal issue for future research.

Integration with behavioral school

Yukl (1989) noted, '...most researchers deal only with a narrow aspect of leadership and ignore the other aspects' (p. 254). Only a few studies examine the relative influence of different leadership conceptualizations (Bycio et al., 1995; Howell and Avolio, 1993; Howell and Hall-Merenda, 1999; Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Jung, 2001; Seltzer and Bass, 1990), or the extent to which theories of leadership overlap. This is particularly a concern given conceptual overlap in the theories. One of the four transformational leadership dimensions – individualized consideration – appears to directly overlap with the Ohio State dimension of consideration. In transformational leadership theory, individualized consideration is the degree to which the leader attends to each follower's needs, acts as a mentor or coach to the follower, and listens to followers' concerns and needs (Bass, 1985). The Ohio State dimension of consideration refers to the degree to which a leader shows concern and respect for followers, looks out for their welfare, and expresses appreciation and support. Bass (1999) argued that these two ideas are conceptually distinct, but such a distinction is a fine one. Thus, there is a need for future research to compare and contrast transformational and transactional leadership with the Ohio State leadership dimensions.

CONCLUSION

'One of the most universal cravings of our time is a hunger for compelling and

creative leadership,' wrote Burns in his 1978 Pulitzer Prize-winning book on leadership (p. 1). Accordingly, scholars and researchers have long been fascinated with leadership concepts and continue to study effects and antecedents of the phenomenon decades after its original inception in the literature. In this review, we sought to provide an overview of current knowledge about charismatic and transformational leadership and to suggest an agenda for future research. Sufficient laboratory and field evidence convinces us of the validity of charismatic and transformational leadership across many different settings. However, there is still a need for scholars to elucidate upon some of the puzzles that remain in this literature. Carrying out some of our recommendations for future research may require more rigorous research designs and the challenging of some generally-accepted pieces of wisdom in the field. Yet, we believe that more thorough investigation of transformational leadership along these lines is critical to our gaining a thorough understanding of leadership in general.

NOTE

Some portions of this review appear in: Judge, T. A., Woolf, E. F., Hurst, C., and Livingston, B. (2006). Charismatic and transformational leadership: A review and an agenda for future research. *Zeitschrift für Arbeits- und Organisationspsychologie*, 50: 203–214.

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