

Charismatic and Transformational Leadership

A Review and an Agenda for Future Research

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Abstract. Of all the leadership theories in organizational research, charismatic/transformational leadership has captured scholars' interest most over the past decade. This article reviews what has been learned about the antecedents of charismatic and transformational leadership, their effects on individual and collective outcomes across cultures, and moderators of those effects. We conclude with a set of recommendations for moving this field of study forward, including a call for more rigorous research designs that provide greater insight into the process of transformational leadership (i.e., causal direction and mediating mechanisms), further conceptual clarifications, and further integration with other schools of leadership thought.

Key words: leadership, transformational leadership, charismatic leadership

Charismatische und transformationale Führung: Ein Überblick und eine Agenda für zukünftige Forschungsarbeiten

Zusammenfassung. Von allen Führungstheorien hat die charismatische/transformationale Führung während der letzten zehn Jahre das größte Interesse in der Organisationsforschung hervorgerufen. Dieser Artikel gibt einen Überblick über die Erkenntnisse in Bezug auf die Bedingungen von charismatischer und transformationaler Führung sowie die individuellen und kollektiven Wirkungen, wie sie sich kulturübergreifend zeigen, sowie die Moderatoren dieser Effekte. Abschließend werden eine Reihe von Empfehlungen für die zukünftige Forschung formuliert. Diese beinhalten die Forderung nach sorgfältigeren Forschungsdesigns, die einen besseren Einblick in den Prozess der transformationalen Führung erlauben (z. B. Kausalzusammenhänge und Mediationsmechanismen), die Forderung nach zusätzlichen konzeptuellen Klärungen sowie die Forderung nach einer weitergehenden Integration mit anderen Schulen der Führungsforschung.

Schlüsselwörter: Führung, transformationale Führung, charismatische Führung

Leadership is, of course, one of those topics in which interest never wanes. Leaders are, by definition, at the pinnacle of any society's largest organizations, and their actions have the potential to change the course of history. Although the stakes are high and the importance of their decisions fundamental, effective leadership is still very much in the eye of the beholder. For instance, in a recent three-day period, one prominent Princeton historian proclaimed George W. Bush the worst U. S. President in history (Wilentz, 2006, April 21), 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, 2006, April 24). It seems, to paraphrase Shakespeare, that *there is no good or bad leader but thinking makes it so*.

Even more challenging is that 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.

Thus, the leadership scholar's task is a difficult one. We study an important concept. In theory, most of us would agree that Carlyle, Nietzsche, Weber, and others were telling the truth when they wrote of the importance of heroes and great leaders to societies. However, in applying that concept, problems overwhelm us. Who are the great leaders? What makes them so? Are great leaders always good? Are great leaders always effective? Effective in whose eyes, and over what time frame? In posing questions like these, it seems leadership is as much an aesthetic phenomenon as a scientific one.

With that enigmatic preamble in mind, which must hang over all of which we are soon to speak, we do think there have been and are (conditional) truths 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. 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.

Review of Charismatic and Transformational Leadership Research

Charismatic Leadership

The first scholar to discuss charismatic leadership was Max Weber. In particular, he discussed three types of authority as forms of control that people will accept: traditional, legal/rational, and charismatic. Weber (1947, pp. 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 the important influence of Weber’s work on researchers’ thinking about organizations, his work on charisma lay dormant until the mid 1970’s.

Robert House (1977) further developed Weber’s concept in articulating a theory of charismatic leadership that, at its core, argued that followers use an attributional process regarding their leaders. Based on certain behaviors displayed by leaders, followers attribute extraordinary or heroic leadership abilities to those leaders. Based on House’s theory, researchers then began to uncover and identify key characteristics of charismatic leadership. A widely accepted framework is that of Conger and Kanungo (1998), who explain that charismatic leadership is typified by four key characteristics: possessing and articulating a vision, willing 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, p. 161), for example, opined that charisma “is not some magical ability limited to a handful.” As Trice and Beyer (1986) and Beyer (1999) noted, charismatic leadership has been *tamed* in that it is assumed 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). On the other hand, if charisma is seen as relatively prosaic, have we damaged the concept? Clearly, the charismatic qualities of political leaders from Lincoln to Hitler, religious leaders from Martin Luther to Pope John 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 (House, 1977). Locke and colleagues, conversely, clearly distinguish a charismatic communication style from other leadership qualities (e.g., see Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). This is a topic to which we return later.

Finally, though Conger (1990) has often described 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.

Transformational Leadership

The Full Range Leadership model, developed by Bass and Avolio (see Avolio & Bass, 1991) is comprised of both transactional and transformational leadership (see Figure 1). Elements of both types of leadership are arranged on a vertical axis measuring effectiveness (ineffective to effective) and a horizontal axis measuring involvement (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. To further clarify between the two, we now examine the four dimensions of each type of leadership.

The four dimensions of transactional leadership are generally referred to as contingent reward, management by exception (active), management by exception (passive), and laissez-faire. In the case of contingent reward, leaders provide resources in exchange for follower support (Bass, 1990). Management by exception has two facets, active and passive. In the active sense, leaders monitor followers’ performance and take corrective action when necessary. In the case of passive management

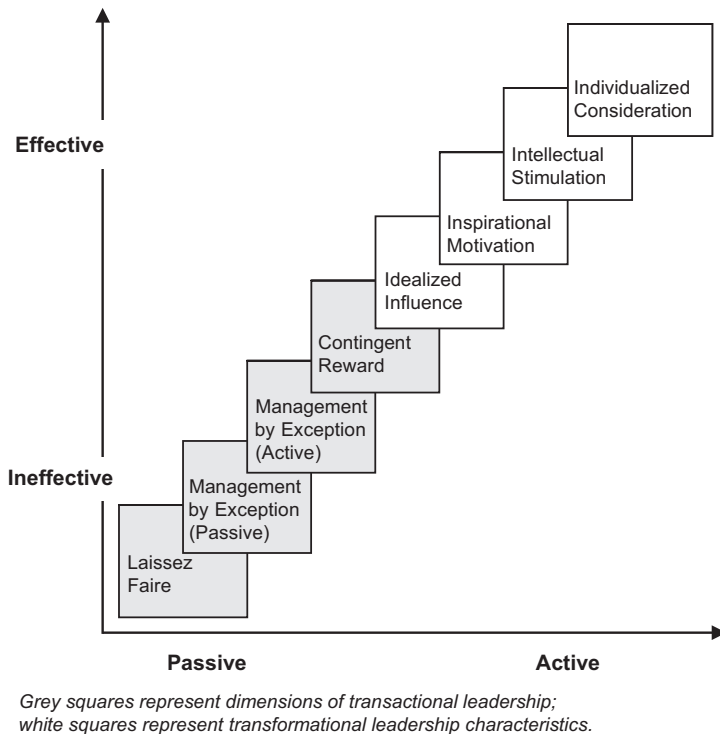


Figure 1. The Full Range Leadership Model (adapted from Avolio & Bass, 1991).

by exception, leaders do little monitoring and only intervene when the problem becomes serious. In the laissez-faire type of transactional 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 & Piccolo, 2004).

Transformational leadership supplements the characteristics of transactional leadership, and followers are inspirationally influenced. Bernard Bass, who laid the groundwork in transformational leadership research, explains 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 his or her 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 aug-

ment 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 of charismatic and transformational leadership. Robert House, organizational behavior's founding father of charismatic leadership research, claims that the two are rather tantamount with only minor and modest differences. House and Podsakoff (1994) characterized the disagreements among authors of these theories as "modest", "minor", and "fine tuning" (pp. 71–72). Conger and Kanungo (1998) noted, "There is little real difference" between charismatic and transformational leadership (p. 15). On the other hand, Bernard Bass and Bruce Avolio (the leading transformational leadership researchers) claim that charismatic leadership is rather a component of transformational leadership; thus they view transformational leadership as a broader construct than charisma (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Indeed, 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, typically individuals that score high on one measure type are likely to score high on the other measure. 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. 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, Bass &

Jung, 1999). However, the dimensions are highly correlated (generally in the .70 to .90 range), and many researchers combine the dimensions into a single factor (see Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Yukl (1999, p. 288) notes, "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 .80 (the 80% credibility interval was .65 to .95, meaning that 80% of the individually corrected correlations were between .65 and .95). Since this correlation is roughly the same as the correlation among the transformational leadership dimensions, this calls into question the distinctiveness of transformational and contingent reward leadership. Third, although we have argued that charismatic and transformational leadership are conceptually distinct, we are not aware of distinct measures of charismatic leadership. Such measures should be developed, with an eye toward distinguishing it from transformational leadership. Finally, perhaps explaining the aforementioned result, there is the continuing problem endemic to all such rating instruments – halo effects, attributional issues, and so forth. These issues may be unresolvable; solutions have not been forthcoming in the literature to date.

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 a meta-analysis of the relationship between transformational leadership, as measured by the MLQ, and leader effectiveness, Lowe, Kroeck, and Sivabramaniam (1996) found validities of .71 for charisma, .62 for individualized consideration, and .60 for intellectual stimulation. In contrast, contingent reward and management-by-exception exhibited validities of .41 and .05, respectively. Corrected correlations were significantly higher for subordinate ratings of effectiveness ($\rho = .81$) than organizational measures ($\rho = .35$). However, with the exception of intellectual stimulation, all of the confidence and credibility intervals for correlations with leader effectiveness gauged by organizational measures excluded zero. Two other meta-analyses essentially replicated these results, albeit with variations. Fuller, Patterson, Hester, and Stringer's (1996) meta-analysis found comparable relationships, focusing only on the charisma (idealized influence) subscale of the MLQ. DeGroot,

Kiker, and Cross (2000) also replicated the Lowe et al. (1996) findings, and examined additional criteria, including effort, job satisfaction, and commitment.

The most recent meta-analysis of transformational leadership is Judge and Piccolo (2004). This study differed from the previous meta-analyses in several ways. Most obviously, because it was performed later, 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 the augmentation hypothesis (Bass, 1985), 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. As expected, there was no significant difference in the overall validities of charismatic versus transformational leadership. Also, among the dimensions of transactional leadership, transformational leadership displayed the highest and most consistent correlations with contingent-reward (.80) and laissez-faire leadership (–.65). Notably, the differences in validities between transformational leadership and contingent-reward leadership were fairly small. Contingent-reward even displayed somewhat higher correlations in business settings 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 constructs denoting subordinate attitudes and psychological states, subordinate behaviors and specific performance dimensions, and group processes. In the first category, transformational leadership has been consistently positively associated with commitment (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2002); self-efficacy (e.g., Dvir, Eden, Avolio & Shamir, 2002); psychological empowerment (Avolio et al., 2004; Hepworth & Towler, 2004); organizational identification (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004); and safety consciousness (Barling,

Table 1. Transformational Leadership Validities (Judge & Piccolo, 2004)

	ρ
<i>By Criteria</i>	
– Follower Job Satisfaction	.58
– Satisfaction with Leader	.71
– Follower Motivation	.53
– Leader Job Performance	.27
– Group/Organization Performance	.26
– Leader Effectiveness	.64
<i>By Study Design</i>	
– Cross-Sectional	.50
– Longitudinal	.27
– Same-Source	.55
– Multi-Source	.28
<i>Across all Criteria and Study Designs</i>	.44

Note. ρ = meta-analytic correlation corrected for measurement and sampling error; all confidence intervals for transformational leadership excluded zero, as did all credibility intervals except the one for longitudinal designs.

Loughlin & Kelloway, 2002). It has also been negatively associated with employee cynicism about organizational change (Bommer, Rich & Rubin, 2005).

With regard to specific performance dimensions and behaviors, transformational leadership positively predicts organizational citizenship (e.g., Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer, 1996). Little work has been done on the influence of transformational leadership on counterproductive behavior, though one study (Hepworth & Towler, 2004) found a negative relationship with workplace aggression while another (Walumba & Lawler, 2003) found that subordinates 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 & Blascovich, 2003; Jung, 2001), although one found the reverse (Kahai, Sosik & Avolio, 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, Avolio, Jung & Berson, 2003; Hoyt & Blascovich, 2003): group potency (Bass et al., 2003; Lester, Meglino & Korsgaard, 2002): and collective efficacy (Kark, Shamir & Chen, 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 & 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, Johannesen-Schmidt, and van Engen (2003), women are more likely to exhibit transformational leadership behaviors than men, though the average difference is quite small ($d = -.10$, 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, ($\rho = .24$) although all of the Big Five, except for conscientiousness, exhibit significant relationships with transformational leadership (neuroticism: $\rho = -.17$; openness: $\rho = .15$; and agreeableness: $\rho = .14$).

Other individual differences variables that have been found to positively influence charismatic and transformational leadership are proactive personality (Crant & Bateman, 2000); traditional, self-transcendent (altruistic) and self-enhancement (egotistic) values (Sosik, 2005); and, somewhat ominously, narcissism and Machiavellianism (e.g., Deluga, 1997, 2001). Also, Bommer, Ru-

bin, and Baldwin (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 effectiveness (e.g., Fuller et al., 1996; Spreitzer, Perttula & Xin, 2005; Wofford, Whittington & Goodwin, 2001), performance (Fuller et al., 1996; Whittington, Goodwin & Murray, 2004), motivation (Felfe & Schyns, 2002), satisfaction (Fuller et al., 1996), and 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 employee 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 United States 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) found that transformational leadership has a stronger impact on performance for leaders at the supervisory level ($\rho = .48$) than for those in middle- or upper-management ($\rho = .37$). Further supporting the moderating effects of leader level, Avolio et al. (2004) found that the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment is more positive when the supervision is indirect (i.e., leader-follower structural distance is high).

Job characteristics also appear to 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 supervisor is indirect (structural distance is higher). Additional evidence that job characteristics act as moderators of transformational leadership effects was set forth 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.

Finally, the internal and external organizational contexts seem to 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 and, presumably, so do implicit assumptions about leadership. While some research supports the universality of charismatic and transformational leadership (e.g., Walumba, Orwa, Wang & Lawler, 2005), other studies challenge the role charismatic leaders may play in different cultures (e.g., Zagorsek, Jaklic & Stough, 2004).

The GLOBE studies are particularly noteworthy with regard to the cross-cultural relevance of transformational leadership (e.g., Dorfman, Hanges & Brodbeck, 2004; Den Hartog, House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla & Dorfman, 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, p. 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 can influence the emergence, perceptions, and effects of these leadership styles. For example, Stajkovic, Carpenter, and Graffin (2005) examined data from senior managers in the United States (an individualistic culture) and China (a collective culture). Results suggested that culture moderated the positive relationship between char-

ismatic leadership and social network extensiveness. In similar fashion, Walumba 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. 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% drop in stock price during her tenure certainly precipitated her fall; Cowley & Rohde, 2005, February 9). 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, Bono, Ilies & Gerhardt, 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 & 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.

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, p. 340) “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 [House, 1977], the Bass-Avolio model [Bass & Avolio, 1994], Conger and Kanungo’s model [Conger & Kanungo, 1998], Shamir and associates’ model [see Shamir, House & Arthur, 1993]) 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 & 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; Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1995).

The best work here has been done by Locke and colleagues. Baum, Locke, and Kirkpatrick (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 ($\rho = .44$ vs. $\rho = .39$, 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.

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, Zhu, Koh & Bhatia, 2004; Bono & Anderson, 2005; Bono & Judge, 2003; Jung & Avolio, 2000; Jung, Chow & Wu, 2003; Kark, et al., 2003; McCann, Langford & Rawlings, 2006; Purvanova, Bono & Dziewieczynski, 2006; Shin & Zhou, 2003; Walumba et al., 2005; Wang, Law & Hackett, 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.

Are Leaders Made: Development of Charismatic/Transformational Leadership

There is clear evidence that good leaders are born (Johnson, Vernon & Harris, 2004). But this does not necessarily mean that good leaders cannot be made, anymore than a

genetic component to intelligence means that individuals cannot learn. Indeed, there is evidence that transformational leadership can be learned (Barling, Weber & Kelloway, 1996; Dvir et al., 2002; Frese, Beimeel & Schoenborn, 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 & 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, p. 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, p. 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 U. S. 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, p. 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, Hackett & Allen, 1995; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Jung, 2001; Seltzer & 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 (see Fleishman, 1995). 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 James MacGregor Burns in his 1978 Pulitzer Prize-winning book on leadership (p. 1). Accordingly, scholars and researchers have long been fascinated with leadership constructs 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.

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