The Role of Nonverbal Behavior in Leadership: An Integrative Review

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The Role of Nonverbal Behavior for Leadership: An Integrative Review

One of the main activities of leaders is interacting with others (e.g., Yukl, 2010). Their interactions with followers, colleagues, or business partners happen through verbal and nonverbal behavior. In this chapter, we focus on leader nonverbal behavior (NVB). NVB plays an important role in interpersonal communication in general and accounts for a majority (about 65 to 90%) of the meaning conveyed in social interactions (e.g., Crane & Crane, 2010).

NVB refers to any behavior other than speech content. However, the distinction between verbal and nonverbal behavior is not always clear. For example, "emblems," such as nonverbal gestures like the "okay" made with the thumb and forefinger, or the "thumbs up" gesture, have a distinct verbal meaning. But most nonverbal cues are subject to interpretation. A distinction between speech-related NVB and speech-unrelated NVB can be helpful (Knapp & Hall, 2010). Speech-related NVB encompasses, for instance, tone of voice, speech modulation, and speech duration. Examples of speech-unrelated NVB include eye gaze, facial expressions, body movements, posture, touch, smell, mode of dress, and walking style (Knapp & Hall, 2010). Whether verbal or nonverbal behavior matters more as a source of information depends on the situation. In an equivocal situation, NVB is often referred to as a source of information. The more a situation is equivocal, the more important NVB is. People often turn to NVB for information when the NVB contradicts the verbal communication or when individuals doubt the honesty of a verbal communication (e.g., Mehrabian, 1972).

NVB is important for successful social interactions. Its functions include revealing personality characteristics, signaling interpersonal orientations (dominance, friendliness), or expressing emotions (Knapp & Hall, 2010). When strangers meet for the first time, the impression they form about each other is mostly based on verbal and nonverbal cues (e.g., Ambady, Hallahan, & Rosenthal, 1995; Costanzo & Archer, 1989; Hyde, 2005). Regardless of whether the formed impressions are correct or not, they affect what one thinks about the social interaction partners and how one behaves toward them. In sum, interaction partners express their states and traits – not only but also – through NVB, consciously or unconsciously, and they use NVB to form impressions about others (Mehrabian & Wiener, 1967). This process can be illustrated with the Brunswikian lens model (Brunswik, 1956) (Figure 1). Two perspectives are present in the model. On the one hand, the model depicts the perceiver who observes the target's NVB and interprets it. The perceiver forms an impression about the target, for example, regarding the target's personality, based on the target's NVB. On the other hand, the model depicts the target and how he or she expresses him or herself in NVB. The Brunswikian lens model (Brunswik, 1956) has been used extensively to explain accuracy in social perception in different situations, including the leadership context. To illustrate, in a business meeting, on the one hand a new employee typically observes the NVB of the individuals present in the meeting, and infers who might be the leader through their NVB. This refers to the relationship between the perception of leadership and the observed NVB. On the other hand, the actual leader might speak more and approach more closely than the followers. This describes the relation between an individual's actual leadership and his or her NVB. If the perception of leadership and the actual leadership correspond with each other, this is accuracy. Accuracy as we described it

here is one aspect of a person's nonverbal communication abilities (Riggio, 2006).

Nonverbal communication abilities are understood as individual differences in people's

skills to convey nonverbal messages to others, to read others' NVB, and to regulate and

control their nonverbal displays (Riggio, 2006). They are part of the domain of

interpersonal skills, which are the skills used by a person to properly interact with others

(Riggio, Riggio, Salinas, & Cole, 2003).

Figure 1

Nonverbal communication abilities and NVB play an important role in leadership

(Stein, 1975). Leadership is the process of influencing or controlling the behavior of others

in order to reach a shared goal (Northouse, 2007; Stogdill, 1950). It has even been

suggested that in the leadership context, nonverbal communication is more important than

verbal communication. When the leader's verbal and nonverbal cues are in contradiction,

the followers are more likely to trust the leader's nonverbal cues (Remland, 1981).

Individuals in leadership positions express their power and authority not only verbally but

also nonverbally to get followers' attention and exert influence over them, for example, by

being nonverbally persuasive (using greater facial expressiveness and greater fluency and

pitch variety; Burgoon, Birk, & Pfau, 1990). A number of studies have documented the

effects of leader NVB on leadership effectiveness (i.e., the evaluations of leader's

competence, supportiveness, or success and the leader effects on followers satisfaction,

motivation, and performance; Kaiser, Hogan, & Craig, 2008). For example, leaders

establish a high level of mutual trust, cohesion, and sensitivity to the follower's needs by

demonstrating abilities to communicate nonverbally (Yukl, 2010). According to Riggio and colleagues, leaders who are able to correctly read and interpret nonverbal cues and act upon this understanding are more likely to exhibit behaviors that meet the needs of their followers (Reichard & Riggio, 2008; Riggio, 1986, 2006; Riggio & Carney, 2003), ultimately resulting in more positive perceptions of the leader's effectiveness (Riggio et al., 2003). Uhl-Bien (2004) suggests that the leader's nonverbal interpersonal skills are part of the key features needed to build effective leader-follower relationships. Thus NVB is a crucial means through which interpersonal skills lead to effective leadership.

In this chapter, we present an integrative review regarding the role of NVB in leadership. We organize the chapter around the following central questions: Based on which NVB do individuals perceive or infer leadership in emergent hierarchies? Based on which leader NVB do followers perceive effective leadership in actual hierarchies? Which NVB do leaders exhibit? How does leader NVB impact leadership effectiveness? Consequently, the goals of this chapter are (1) to provide an overview of the empirical findings pertaining to NVB in a leadership context; (2) to show how individual differences affect the relation between NVB and leadership; (3) to discuss implications of the reported findings for leaders; and (4) to draw conclusions and make suggestions on how to advance research in this field.

Nonverbal Behavior and the Perception of Leadership

Nonverbal behavior plays an important part in the perception of leadership. Research on NVB and perceived leadership has focused on two distinct aspects: the role of NVB for *emergent leadership*, and the *perception of leadership* based on NVB. In this section, both aspects are presented and discussed.

NVB and Emergent Leadership

An emergent leader is defined as the person who is not assigned a leadership position but arises as a leader within a group (Guastello, 2002; Stein & Heller, 1979). The emergent leader is typically the one who has the most influence in the group (Stein & Heller, 1979). An individual emerges as a leader based on other individuals' perceptions of him or her (e.g., Gray & Densten, 2007; Schyns, Felfe, & Blank, 2007). This mechanism is explained by the Expectation States Theory (EST; Berger, Conner, & Fisek, 1974; Berger, Fisek, Norman, & Zelditch, 1977; Ridgeway & Berger, 1986). According to EST, group members form performance expectations about each other. A performance expectation is a "generalized anticipation of one's own or another's capacity to make useful contributions to the task" (Ridgeway & Berger, 1986, p. 604). To the extent that all group members share these expectations, they become self-fulfilling prophecies. Expectations are affected, especially in relatively homogenous peer groups, by the NVB exhibited by the group members (Ridgeway & Berger, 1986). To illustrate, an individual who talks a lot in a group discussion might be perceived as an expert on the discussion topic, so the performance expectations for this individual are high. As a consequence, this individual is provided with more opportunities to contribute, thus gaining more influence in the group and emerging as the group's leader.

The typical research design to assess emergent leadership is to videotape group interactions, to code the NVB of each group member, and then to compare it with the group members' ratings of each other in terms of leadership (e.g., Baird, 1977; Riggio et al., 2003). Some studies have, however, used external (non-group members) for assessing the leadership of each group member. To illustrate, in some studies (Moore & Porter, 1988;

Schmidt Mast, Hall, Murphy, & Colvin, 2003; Stang, 1973), external observers watched different targets and then rated their leadership or dominance (i.e., any behavior aiming at gaining influence over others; Schmid Mast, 2010). The observations yield information about which of the targets' NVB is used by observers to infer leadership, thus emergent leadership. There are a number of NVB that people use to infer leadership. For example, gazing more, especially at the end of a statement (Kalma & van Rooij, 1982) in order to invite others to speak up, is a behavior that emergent leaders exhibit. Also, body movements such as more or less arm and shoulder movements contribute to perceptions of emergent leadership (Baird, 1977). The choice of seating place can also affect emergence of a leader (e.g., Heckel, 1973; Porter & Geis, 1981; Ward, 1968). It seems to be normal in developed countries at least, that leaders are expected to sit at the head of the table. Speaking time has also been shown to relate to emergent leadership as demonstrated in a meta-analysis by Schmid Mast (2002). Visual dominance, defined as the ratio of the percentage of looking while speaking divided by the percentage of looking while listening (Exline, Ellyson, & Long, 1975) also shows a positive link to emergent leadership (Dovidio & Ellyson, 1982).

The most comprehensive meta-analysis on the link between NVB and emergent leadership or perceived dominance stems from Hall, Coast, and Smith LeBeau (2005)[1]. Results suggest that many different cues are assumed to be markers of emergent leadership. Individuals are perceived as emergent leaders when they show more gazing, more nodding, and lowered eyebrows. They are perceived as emergent leaders when they demonstrate less self-touching but more touching others. They are perceived as emergent leaders when they have a more variable tone of voice, a faster speech rate, and a lower voice pitch as well as

when they show more vocal relaxation. Additionally, they are perceived as emergent

leaders when they show more erect or tense postures, have more hand and arm gestures,

more body or leg shifts, as well as more body openness. Also, they are perceived as

emergent leaders when they interrupt others more often.

NVB and Perceptions of Leadership

The perception of leadership by group members is also important in established

hierarchies. The power leaders have depends on how they are perceived by followers

(Hollander & Julian, 1969; Maurer & Lord, 1991; Pfeffer, 1977).

The perception of leadership in an established hierarchy can be understood by using

implicit leadership theory (ILT; e.g., Lord, de Vader, & Alliger, 1986; Lord, Foti, &

Phillips, 1982). This theory holds that individuals develop a set of beliefs about the

characteristics and behaviors of effective and ineffective leaders (e.g., strength, charisma,

sensitivity, tyranny) based on previous experiences (Schyns & Schilling, 2010). These

beliefs are outside of conscious awareness − they are implicit. Thus, followers use their

beliefs to explain and evaluate their leader's behaviors. Research suggests that the degree of

matching that occurs between followers' beliefs and their leaders' behavior partially

determines whether followers categorize their leaders as effective or ineffective leaders

(Nye, 2002; Nye & Forsyth, 1991; Schyns & Schilling, 2010).

NVB plays a role in leadership perception. For example, Savvas and Schyns (2012)

used ILT and pictures of facial expression to investigate how leadership was perceived.

Participants reported their beliefs about the characteristics and behaviors of leaders. Then

each participant examined a photo of a man in which the facial expression differed (neutral

vs. raising/lowering and pulling together the eyebrows). Raising and pulling together the

eyebrows typically expresses sadness or fear, whereas lowering and pulling together the

eyebrows typically expresses anger (Ekman, Friesen, & Hager, 2002). The participants then

were asked to evaluate the man in the picture with respect to leadership perception using

the same questionnaire in which they reported their beliefs about the characteristics and

behaviors of leaders. Results showed that when the participants' beliefs matched how they

perceived the man based on his facial expression, the depicted man was evaluated to be

more leader-like.

In sum, the implicit theories about leader characteristics that followers harbor

influence how a leader is perceived. For all of these judgments, perceptions and evaluations

of leadership are based on the leader's NVB. In order to complete this overview, it is

important not only to understand how leadership is perceived but also how it is expressed

through NVB.

Nonverbal Behavior and the Expression of Leadership

A leader's role is to provide information, to instruct, direct, coordinate, and to give

feedback (Mintzberg, 1973). Obviously, encoding or sending of nonverbal messages to

followers, co-workers, or business partners is part of the leader role. The leader's NVB

differs according to the leadership style adopted by the leader (constructive vs. destructive).

In this section, we review studies in which NVB of actual leaders was studied in order to

identify the NVB relevant to constructive and destructive leadership theories.

One of the most effective or constructive leadership styles is the charismatic or

transformational leadership style[2] (Bass & Bass, 2008). It results in increased follower

satisfaction and more organizational effectiveness (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam,

1996). This style typically includes NVB such as animated facial expressions, faster rate of

speech, and erect posture or expansive body movements (Friedman, Prince, Riggio, &

DiMatteo, 1980; Friedman & Riggio, 1981). Charismatic leaders use these nonverbal cues

"to move, inspire, or captivate others" (Friedman et al., p. 133), to express a strong and

confident presence, and to stimulate desired responses from followers (Gardner & Avolio,

1998). Even in an experimental setting it has been shown that the expression of certain

NVB makes people judge somebody as charismatic (e.g., Awamleh, 1997; Awamleh &

Gardner, 1999; Howell & Frost, 1989; Shea & Howell, 1999). For example, Awamleh and

his colleague (Awamleh, 1997; Awamleh & Gardner, 1999) presented videotaped

charismatic speeches to participants. The actor was trained to use animated facial

expressions, dynamic hand and body gestures, to show vocal fluency, and to maintain eye

contact. Results demonstrated that leaders were perceived as charismatic when they

exhibited the above-mentioned NVB more so than when they did not. In a laboratory

experiment, Shea and Howell (1999) trained actors to be charismatic or non-charismatic

leaders. Charismatic leaders were trained to maintain direct eye contact, to have an

animated facial expression, to use a captivating voice tone, to lean forward toward the

participants, and to alternate between pacing and sitting on the edge of the desk.

Contrastingly, non-charismatic leaders were trained to maintain sporadic eye contact, a

neutral tone of voice, and a neutral facial expression. The study showed that charismatic

leaders interacting with the participants were perceived as charismatic when they exhibited

the corresponding NVB. Consistent with the experimental studies, Groves (2006) examined

actual organizational leaders and found that leader nonverbal expressivity was positively

related to follower ratings of leader charisma.

In contrast, one of the less effective leadership styles is labeled "destructive leadership" (Schyns & Schilling, 2012). Destructive leaders intentionally or unintentionally affect the activities and relationships within the team or the organization (e.g., attempting to reach higher performance or to bully a follower into leaving) (Schyns & Schilling, 2012). It results in undermining the follower's satisfaction and the organization's effectiveness (Einarsen, Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007). Many concepts have been used to describe destructive leadership, such as "toxic leadership" (Lipman-Blumen, 2005) or "abusive supervision" (Tepper, 2000). Contrary to charismatic leadership research, NVB related to this style has almost never been investigated. In his definition of abusive supervision, Tepper (2000) included the display of NVB excluding physical contact, however, he did not mention specific NVB related to destructive leadership.

Although to date no empirical research has identified the specific NVB relevant to the expressions of destructive leadership, it is of great importance to expand this research area. For instance, researchers might want to clarify which NVB refers to destructive leadership and then how destructive NVB impacts leadership effectiveness. At this point a table of the results regarding the role of NVB in leadership is provided (Table 1).

Table 1

Nonverbal Behavior and Effective Leadership

Obviously, the expression of leadership through NVB can be beneficial for leaders in order to be effective. In this section we review some of the research that demonstrates the role of NVB in leadership effectiveness, integrating both aspects of leadership

effectiveness: (1) the evaluations of leaders' competence, supportiveness, or success, and, (2) followers' outcomes such as satisfaction, motivation, or follower/team performance (Kaiser et al., 2008).

With respect to NVB and leader evaluation, research shows that leader NVB can convey supportiveness (Remland, Jacobson, & Jones, 1983) and professional success (DePaulo & Friedman, 1998; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). In an experimental study (Remland et al., 1983), undergraduate students were asked to read a scenario in which different aspects of leader NVB were described, and then the students were asked to evaluate the leaders' supportiveness. Results showed that participants perceived leaders as supportive when they touched their followers, were oriented toward their followers, spoke with a soft voice, smiled with compassion, gazed, and nodded. In contrast, leaders who kept their distance, were leaning back, spoke in a firm voice, interrupted, did not look or smile, and turned away from their followers were perceived as non-supportive. Moreover, DePaulo and Friedman's review (1998) demonstrated that the display of more eye contact, more gesturing, more smiling, animated facial expressions, and more pitch variation were related to professional success. Research on charismatic leadership shows that more expressive NVB is linked to more leader success (Bass, 1990; Riggio, 1998).

Leader NVB not only impacts the evaluations of leaders, but also follower outcomes. In a work context, according to the Pygmalion theory (Eden, 1990), leaders might adapt their behavior toward their followers in accordance with the leaders' expectations about followers' performance. This behavior, in turn, influences the followers' self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977) and performance (Sutton & Woodman, 1989). This influence can be beneficial as well as detrimental. For instance, if the leader expects increased

performance from his or her followers, then the followers indeed show that increase; and if

the leader expects decreased performance from them, then the followers show that

decrease. Research demonstrated that leaders' NVB is different when interacting with

followers of whom they have higher performance expectations than those of whom they

have lower performance expectations. However, the difference is undetectable by followers

(King, 1971). King (1971) demonstrated the Pygmalion effect in a training program for

disadvantaged people using an experimental approach. He randomly selected different

individuals as high aptitude personnel (HAPs), leading the leaders to expect higher

performance from these followers. Results showed that the HAPs showed significantly

higher performance than the other followers (control group). Post-experimental interviews

were conducted with the followers in order to better understand the effect. Two pictures of

their leader were shown to the followers: they were identical except that one was modified

to make the pupil-size of the leader's eyes larger than the other. Enlarged pupil size is

indicative of favorable attitudes toward others (Janisse, 1973). Both HAPs and control

group were asked to choose the picture that was closest to the way in which their leader

looked at them. The HAPs picked pictures with enlarged pupils significantly more often

than the control group. However, they did not notice the pupil size difference between

pictures. Thus, the way a leader looks at and to his or her followers subconsciously

influences the followers' performance.

Also, leaders' NVB can affect followers' satisfaction, motivation, and performance

(Tjosvold, 1984). In a laboratory study (Tjosvold, 1984), participants interacted with a

leader in order to complete a task. The leader was either directive or non-directive and

behaved in a nonverbally cold or warm manner. Cold NVB consisted of a tough voice,

smiling avoidance, stiff facial expression, greater interpersonal distance, and eye contact

avoidance, whereas warm NVB included soft and audible tone of voice, smiling, friendly

facial expression, closer interpersonal distance, and direct eye contact. Results showed that

participants who interacted with a warm leader were satisfied with the leader, perceived the

leader as helpful, wanted to work again with the leader, and wanted to meet the leader

socially. Moreover, leaders' warm NVB coupled with directive instructions increased

followers' productivity, whereas leaders' warm NVB coupled with non-directive

instructions decreased followers' productivity. In the same vein, Gaddis, Connelly, and

Mumford (2004) demonstrated that after a failure feedback situation in which leaders

delivered the feedback in a positive and supportive way (i.e., calm voice and smile), teams

performed better on the task than did teams whose leaders displayed negative affect (i.e.,

tense voice, negative tone of voice). In a recent experimental study, Talley (2012)

demonstrated that attraction or repulsion toward a leader can be determined by the leader's

hand gestures displayed during a speech. Participants watched a video of a leader using

different hand gestures: positive (humility, community, and steepling hands), defensive

(hands behind back or in pocket, or crossed arms), and no hand gestures. Results showed

that participants perceived positive and defensive hand gestures as more immediate than no

hand gestures, which were perceived as distancing. Moreover, leaders with positive hand

gestures were perceived as more attractive than leaders with defensive and no hand

gestures.

The way leaders use NVB to influence and guide their followers can be explained

by the emotional contagion process (see Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994). This process

refers to the follower's tendency to automatically imitate and synchronize with the facial

expression, postures, tone of voice, or body movements of the leader, mostly

unconsciously. This results in emotional convergence between the leader and the follower,

whereby the follower actually feels the mimicked expressions. Empirical evidence supports

this. Sullivan and Masters (1988) showed videotaped excerpts of political candidates to

participants. The candidates displayed either happy/reassuring (e.g., raised eyebrows,

smiles) or neutral facial expressions. Results indicated that changes in participants'

attitudes of political support (i.e., measure of warmth toward the candidate) were more

likely to be influenced by the emotional responses to happy displays than by party

identification or assessment of leadership skills. More recently, Cherulnik and colleagues

(Cherulnik, Donley, Wiewel, & Miller, 2001) found that followers imitated the nonverbal

cues (e.g., smiles) emanated by charismatic leaders during their talks, whereas followers

did not imitate the cues of non-charismatic leaders.

We can conclude that leader NVB affects leadership effectiveness most likely

through an interactive process between leader expressive NVB and followers' perception of

and imitation thereof. Although there is no simple and easy recipe for leadership

effectiveness (Eden et al., 2000; White & Locke, 2000), we suggest in the next section that

leaders be trained in nonverbal communication in order to maximize their impact on

followers.

Importance of Leader NVB for Leadership Outcomes

As mentioned in the introduction, effective leaders need specific interpersonal

skills, and NVB is an important part of the interpersonal skills that lead to effective

leadership. In this section, we provide some tips on how leaders can be trained to improve

their nonverbal encoding and decoding skills in order to be effective.

There is evidence that leaders can improve their nonverbal expression of leadership through training (e.g., Frese, Beimel, & Schoenborn, 2003; Taylor, 2002; Towler, 2003; Vrij & Mann, 2005). Training of charismatic nonverbal communication (e.g., facial expressions, body gestures, eye contact, and animated voice tone) and of visionary or inspirational verbal content communication (e.g., articulating a vision, using metaphors) both showed an increase in leadership effectiveness. For example, in a study by Towler (2003), participants who received charismatic leadership training exhibited more charismatic behaviors and influenced followers to perform better on a task. In the same vein, such training successfully developed a range of NVB — using gestures, variation of speech, increased speech speed and loudness — that lead to charismatic leadership behavior (Frese et al., 2003). Using a similar approach to the two aforementioned studies, Antonakis, Fenley, and Liechti (2011) also demonstrated in two studies that charismatic leadership training influenced evaluations of leader charisma positively. The results from these studies suggest that charismatic NVB is an acquirable skill.

The skill to accurately decode subtle nonverbal cues is also important for leaders to possess, not only to understand the messages sent by the followers, but also for building rapport and for being responsive to the needs of followers. There is evidence showing that leaders might be more skilled in correctly assessing others' states and traits based on observing others' NVB than are followers (Schmid Mast, Jonas, & Hall, 2009). Moreover, accurate assessment of others by leaders is related to positive leadership outcomes, such as increases in follower satisfaction (Byron, 2007; Schmid Mast, Jonas, Klöckner Cronauer, & Darioly, 2012). Although not much is known about the possibility of training leaders' nonverbal decoding skills, Costanzo's (1992) findings suggest that leaders' NVB decoding

skills can be improved. The author conducted a study in which participants received either

an informational lecture on verbal and nonverbal cues, or training in detecting relevant cues

in filmed interactions. In the latter condition, participants watched videotaped excerpts of

social interactions and were asked to judge, for instance, the type of relationship among the

social interaction partners. Then, the correct answer and the specific nonverbal cues

indicative of the correct answer for each scene were pointed out to the participants. Results

indicated that only participants who received the detection training significantly improved

their skills to correctly interpret NVB.

It seems that it is possible to train leaders and NVB training for leaders is beneficial

for leadership effectiveness. Riggio and colleagues (Riggio, 1989; Riggio & Carney, 2003;

Riggio & Reichard, 2008; Riggio et al., 2003) highlight that feedback is important in order

to improve skills in nonverbal decoding and encoding. Leaders can become more aware of

their own NVB as well as that of their followers.

Leadership, Nonverbal Behavior, and Individual Differences

Considering leadership as an interactive dynamic between a leader and a follower, it

is relevant to take into account the individual characteristics that might have an impact on

this dynamic. We will discuss gender, cultural background, and other individual differences

that can affect the leadership-NVB link.

Gender and Leadership

Research shows that the gender of the leader plays a significant role in the

leadership context. The perception of leadership through NVB might vary according to the

gender of the leader. On the one hand, leadership is inferred from different NVB for female

and male leaders. Perceivers rely more on downward head tilt and lowered eyebrows when

assessing the leadership position of women than when assessing leadership in men (Schmid Mast & Hall, 2004b). On the other hand, the same behavior exhibited by a female or male leader results in different perceptions. Women using more eye contact, gesturing, smiling, animated facial expressions, and variations in pitch are seen as more charismatic than men showing the same NVB (Bass & Avolio, 1989).

On the other hand, women and men exhibit different NVB in leadership positions. In a leadership position, men use more expansive body positions, speak more, use a louder voice, and interrupt others more frequently than do women (Hall, 2006). However, female leaders have more expressive faces and maintain closer interpersonal distance than do male leaders (Hall, 2006).

Finally, the same NVB exhibited by female leaders and by male leaders affects followers differently. Assertive and directive behaviors (e.g., speaking first or responding quickly in conversation) are perceived more favorably in male than in female leaders (Eagly & Karau, 2002). This suggests that gender-congruent NVB affects the leader perception positively and gender-incongruent NVB hurts the leader.

Although we focus on leader gender, follower gender can also be a moderator of how male or female leaders behave nonverbally and how they are perceived based on their exhibited NVB. Research in leadership emergence suggests that the interaction between the perceiver's gender and the target's gender influences how people infer leadership. For example, the cue of sitting at the end of the table held for leadership emergence (e.g., Heckel, 1973; Porter & Geis, 1981; Ward, 1968), but when individuals have the choice between a man and woman seated at each end of the table, they tended to choose a person of their own sex as leader (Jackson, Engstrom, & Emmers-Sommer, 2007). In regard to

leadership position, when female leaders exhibit upright posture, high speech rate, moderate eye contact while speaking, few vocal hesitations, and calm restrained hand gestures, they influence male followers less than a male leader exhibiting similar NVB (Carli, LaFleur, & Loeber, 1995). Female leaders who exhibit the above-mentioned NVB were also perceived as less likable by male followers in comparison to men exhibiting similar NVB. However, female leaders who exhibited the above-mentioned NVB did not have a differential effect on female followers. For women followers, the woman leader's nonverbal cues did not affect how much followers were influenced or their liking for the leader (Carli et al., 1995).

To conclude, the relationship between leadership, NVB, and gender is complex and multifaceted. Depending on the interaction between gender and leadership position, men or women express different kinds of NVB, which affect the way others perceive the NVB expressed by them.

Cultural Background and Leadership

The relationship between NVB and the cultural background of the followers or leaders is also relevant to leadership. Cultural background affects how leadership is perceived and expressed. NVB takes on shared meaning in a specific cultural setting (Knapp & Hall, 2010). For example, a Japanese leader may interact at a more pronounced interpersonal distance compared to an American leader, and so, cultural differences in NVB between leaders and followers might result in misunderstandings. Some authors (Matsumoto, 1990, 1991) suggest that persons from individualistic cultures (e.g., the United States) express feelings more openly and tend to be more nonverbally demonstrative than individuals of collectivistic cultures (e.g., China). Moreover, people of individualistic

cultures tend to be more accurate in decoding subtle nonverbal cues (e.g., Beck, Bröske, Koster, Menzel, & Mohr, 2003; Hofstede, 2001; Matsumoto et al., 2002) and there is a cultural in-group advantage at correctly assessing others' emotions (Elfenbein, Beaupré, Lévesque, & Hess, 2007), despite emotion recognition being universal (Ekman, 1994). The Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness study (GLOBE; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004), a project that included 62 cultures, demonstrated that there are both universal characteristics and significant cultural differences concerning leadership. While charismatic leadership is preferred in many cultures, the overall behaviors associated with leadership and the expected behaviors from leaders may be dissimilar. For example, in her study, Gaal (2007) examined the relationship between charismatic/transformational leadership, NVB, and culture. Two cultures were observed: The United States (low on power distance) and Hungary (high on power distance). A male actor was asked to recite a charismatic speech in three different ways: reserved, orchestrated, and aggressive. In the *reserved* scenario, the actor had a monotone voice, did not look at the camera or move his arms. In the *orchestrated* scenario, the actor was dynamic, with an animated voice, a natural eye contact with the camera, and with his palms open. In the *aggressive* scenario, the actor yelled and showed intense emotions during his speech, maintained direct eye contact with the camera and used his arms or hands to point or knock on the podium. Participants randomly watched one of the three scenarios. The NVB displayed by the leader was perceived differently by observers in the United States than by observers in Hungary. For both countries, there was a positive relationship between the orchestrated NVB and charismatic leadership characteristics (i.e., vision, inspiration, and trustworthiness) and a negative relationship between the reserved

NVB and charismatic leadership characteristics. However, the aggressive scenario was

perceived as more detrimental for the perception of charismatic leadership characteristics in

the United States than in Hungary compared to the two other scenarios. In the same vein,

Matsumoto (1990) studied displayed emotions in Americans and Japanese people.

Participants saw faces portraying emotions and assessed the suitability of each in different

social situations such as in interactions between a leader and a follower. Results showed

that on the one hand, the Japanese found it suitable to express negative emotions (e.g.,

anger) toward followers because the expression of such behavior serves to maintain the

existing, culturally grounded power distance. On the other hand, the Americans

discouraged leader displays of negative emotions to followers because these emphasize

status differences, which is contradictory to the American culture of equality.

Although the impact of cultural difference in NVB expressed by leaders has not

been covered in great detail, the research demonstrates that leaders may be perceived

differently in one culture than another and what is "acceptable" leader NVB may be

culturally dependent.

Other Characteristics and Leadership

There is an almost endless list of other characteristics that do or potentially could

affect the NVB-leadership relationship. For example, expressions and perceptions of

leadership may differ in important ways depending on the individual's social motives (e.g.,

goals, desires) or on his or her emotional state (e.g., happiness, anger). A leader who argues

with a follower about respecting a deadline might behave differently than a leader who

wants to fire an ineffective follower. Moreover, smiling in a situation of crisis may be

regarded as sarcastic rather than supportive. This idea is supported by Bucy (2000), who

showed that leaders were assessed more favorably when the NVB they demonstrated was considered compatible with the message they conveyed.

The nature of the relationship the individual has with others (e.g., new or well-known followers, colleagues, leader, or clients) might also affect the NVB-leadership relationship. Cashdan (1998) demonstrated that, in discussions, female and male leaders showed differences in NVB depending on whether they were with acquaintances or strangers. Female and male leaders spoke more in discussions with strangers than in discussions with acquaintances. Female leaders had more open body postures; in particular, their legs were more open in discussions with strangers than in discussions with acquaintances. Male leaders smiled less in discussions with strangers than in discussions with acquaintances.

Personality is certainly another important factor. For example, extraversion and dominance affect emergent leadership. Extraversion refers to a predisposition to be outgoing, active, or assertive (Judge & Bono, 2000) and the personality trait of dominance refers to a predisposition to try to influence others (Ellyson & Dovidio, 1985). There is evidence indicating that personality influences sitting positions. Extraverts tend to choose seating positions that put them in the focus of the others (Cook, 1970) which then, as we have discussed earlier, increases the chances for those people to emerge as leaders. In the same vein, Hare and Bales (1963) noted that people at the head, foot, or center of the table were likely to have dominant personalities. Kalma, Visser, and Peeters (1993) demonstrated that in an emergent leadership situation, individuals who scored higher on sociable dominance (i.e., high self-esteem, positive attitudes toward others, a central position in groups, a strong need to influence others, and an independent and active attitude) or

aggressive dominance (negative attitudes toward others and a strong motivation to realize one's goals, even at the detriment of personal relationships) emerge as leaders with sociably dominant individuals being chosen more frequently as group leaders than aggressively dominant individuals. Moreover, sociably dominant individuals behaved differently from aggressive dominant individuals in that they looked at others more while speaking, had more eye contact, and used more gestures. Aggressively dominant individuals looked at others less while listening and interrupted more.

Some of the discussed characteristics can interact with each other and affect the NVB-leadership relationship. Not much research has looked at such complex patterns. One example is a study showing that leader gender interacted with dominance and leadership position in predicting NVB. In non-leadership positions, women who were high in dominance smiled less than women who were low in dominance, while no such effect emerged for men (Schmid Mast & Hall, 2004a). There is clearly more research needed to address such complex interplays.

Conclusion and Outlook

The aim of this chapter is to better understand the role of NVB in leadership by showing that leader NVB is an important means for framing the relationship between leaders and followers, and for effective leadership. Differences in NVB among group members are part of the basis on which leaders emerge in groups. Moreover, followers use different leader NVB to judge and evaluate their leaders. The NVB that leaders exhibit is linked to their leadership styles, and leader NVB impacts (most of the time unconsciously) leadership effectiveness. Knowing which leader NVB is related to better or worse leadership outcomes is beneficial because it allows for the training of leaders. Leader

interpersonal skill training can make leaders aware of their own NVB and provide them the

tools to adapt to others' NVB. This awareness and adaptability is necessary in order to be

effective.

Organizations that want to improve should be interested in NVB training for their

leaders because it potentially increases leadership effectiveness. Moreover, knowing that

NVB plays a primary role when dissonance occurs between verbal and nonverbal behavior

may help in understanding the demands of leadership in organizations. Leaders are often

required to show different emotions than those they actually feel. For example, during

times of crisis, leaders might more easily find the right words rather than the right NVB to

support their followers. However, they need to display NVB indicative of confidence and

optimism even if they are as worried and anxious as their followers. Thus it is important

that leaders be trained in the context of "emotional labor" (i.e., leaders are expected to

display certain emotions as part of their leadership position; Humphrey, Pollack, &

Hawver, 2008).

Research in nonverbal communication and leadership is still scarce. It might be

relevant to know which NVB are more or less related to interpersonal skills in order to

achieve a better focus in leader NVB training. For example, is touching more related to

emotional or social skills according to Riggio's Social Skills Inventory (Riggio, this

volume; Riggio & Carney, 2003)? Moreover, much of the research focuses on the NVB of

effective leaders, but we need to identify the NVB related to destructive and "toxic" leaders

in order to know their effects and avoid them.

Regarding the methods used, research has tested a range of diverse NVB in relation

to constructive leadership, but these typically remain on a correlational and descriptive

level. We need to better understand the effects of the interactions and combinations of different NVB (e.g., touching and smiling) in order to know their effects and see whether they are perceived as effective (i.e., similar effects as incongruent verbal and nonverbal behavior). Additionally, analyzing mediators of the expression or perception of leadership (e.g., perceived competence or perceived self-confidence) are needed to better understand why NVB is used to convey or to infer leadership. Finally, methodological innovations in the study of NVB and leadership are needed. For example, computer-mediated automatic coding of NVB related to emergent leadership is being developed and might facilitate the work of researchers (Sanchez-Cortes, Aran, Schmid Mast, & Gatica-Perez, 2011).

Another important area that deserves the attention of researchers is how leaders and followers cope with the absence of some NVB in virtual teams. These specific teams use computer-mediated communication (CMC). CMC includes a variety of electronic message systems that can be supplemented by audio and video links. Examples of CMC are email, chat, or video-conference. It is well-established that there is little or no NVB in most of CMC (e.g., Kiesler, Siegel, & McGuire, 1984; Walther, 1996), except for video-conference, but even in this situation NVB is limited to some extent. Because one of the functions of NVB is to reduce the ambiguity of a message, there is a high probability for misinterpretation in CMC (Sanderson, 1993). Interestingly, individuals create a number of strategies to compensate for the lack of NVB in CMC. Most notable is the use of "emoticons" – smiley-faced characters used to express emotions (Walther & D'Addario, 2001). Additionally, it has been suggested that individuals may become more precise in their use of words to more clearly communicate emotions in CMC (Newlands, Anderson, & Mullin, 2003). Research on emergent leadership in virtual teams demonstrated that

emergent leaders sent more and longer email messages than their team members did (Yoo

& Alavi, 2004), suggesting that they act similarly to emergent leaders in face-to-face teams

who speak more (Schmid Mast, 2002).

       In conclusion, additional research is needed and leader NVB training is important to

reach individual, leadership, and organizational effectiveness. Thus, the future for NVB

research in the leadership context and for leader development seems encouraging. This

integrative review on the role of NVB in leadership provides organizations with evidence

that NVB greatly influences the attribution of leadership characteristics and may be trained

in order to improve interpersonal skills.

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Footnotes

1. Hall and colleagues' meta-analysis also includes studies with personality dominance (single target). In this chapter, we only took the results on emergent leadership and perceived dominance (group interaction).

2. Whereas originally, charisma referred to attributes of leaders (Weber, 1980, original 1921), modern research focuses on the behavioral side of charisma, which is represented in the notion of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985). Charismatic and transformational leadership both refer to the same phenomenon (cf., Schyns, 2001) and can be used interchangeably.

Table 1
Overview of Results Regarding the Role of NVB in Leadership

NVB Categories	Emergent leadership/ Perception of leadership	Expression of leadership	Effective leadership						
			Leader's supportive-ness	Leader's professional success	Attraction toward the leader	Follower's perfor-mance	Satisfac-tion with leader	Motivation to work with leader	Meeting the leader socially
Smiling			+			+	+	+	+
Gazing/ Eye contact	+	+	+	+		+[a]	+	+	+
Visual dominance[c]	+								
Lowered eyebrows	+								
Facial expressiveness /intensity		+	+	+			+	+	+
Nodding	+		+						
Self-touch	-								
Other touch			+	+					
Hand/arm gestures	+	+			+				
Postural openness	+	+							
Postural relaxation									
Erect posture	+	+							
Forward lean		+							
Body/leg shifting	+								
Interpersonal distance			-				-	-	-
Facing orientation			+						
Vocal variability	+	+	+[b]				+[b]	+[b]	+[b]
Interruptions	+		-						

Speaking time [c]	+						
Speech errors		-					
Faster rate of speech	+	+					
Lower voice pitch	+		+				
Vocal relaxation	+			+			
Seating position [c]							
Head of table	+						
Edge of the desk					+	+	+

Note: The categories related to leadership are based on Hall et al.'s meta-analysis (2005, p. 903)
+ = positive and significant relationship (e.g., more vocal variation, more gesture); - = negative and significant relationship (e.g., less speech errors, less interruption); a = Enlarged pupil size; b = Soft voice; c = three additional NVB categories besides Hall et al.'s meta-analysis; blank cells = relations were not tested.
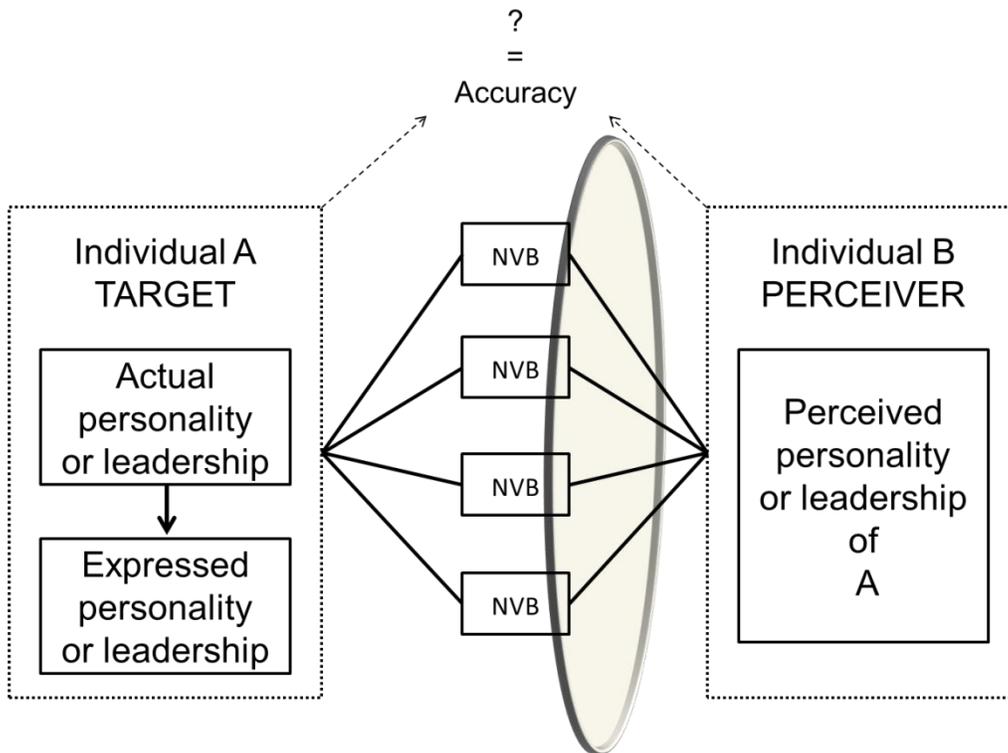
3.

Figure 1. Leadership and NVB based on the Brunswikian lens model (Brunswik, 1956)