

LEADERSHIP: WHAT IS IT AND HOW IT IS IMPLICATED IN STRATEGIC CHANGE?

JOHN ANTONAKIS

DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT, UNIVERSITY OF LAUSANNE, SWITZERLAND

Keywords

Leadership, Ethical Leadership, Transformational Leadership, Charismatic Leadership, Transactional Leadership, Instrumental Leadership, Social Change.

Abstract

In this article, I focus on the role of leaders and how they affect social change. The importance of leadership, as a strategic process, will become evident from two points of view: those of leaders and followers. I highlight the importance of the latter because leadership theories are generally leader-focused and ignore central questions like "why do some individuals emerge as leaders and how they are attributed charisma?" "Why are some individuals influential as leaders whereas others are not?" "Why do followers trust some leaders more than they do others?" It is important that leaders understand how they are legitimized because as it will become evident, leaders must reflect the collective aspirations of their constituencies (followers)--whether these aspirations are follower or leader induced--in order to influence them toward a common ideal while instituting veritable social change. Leadership does not exist in a void. Therefore, looking at the leadership process from the eyes of followers will be addressed in various aspects of this article. Also based on a universalist-generalist perspective not tied to any particular domain (e.g., political, military, sport, educational, etc.), I will also focus on what leaders do, or more specifically what leaders should do, by reviewing what leadership is in terms of its antecedents and consequences. My review will be rooted in various competing but complementary research traditions that have dotted the historical landscape of leadership research, culminating in a brief analysis of the 2004 U.S. presidential race.

Introduction

Over the last decades, the concept of leadership has teased and taunted scholars, almost appearing to evade serious scientific study. Nowadays, the concept has become much less enigmatic and is better understood. Drawing on various research streams, I will attempt to answer the following questions, which until recently seemed mostly unanswerable: What is leadership? Does leadership really matter and if so, why? How do leaders become legitimized? Are there traits that distinguish leaders from non-leaders? What do effective leaders do and how do they exercise influence over their followers?

By answering the above questions, I hope to domesticate leadership to certain extent by providing a review of leadership from various theoretical angles and identifying some criteria on which we should judge leadership that is effective (for a review refer to Antonakis, Cianciolo, & Sternberg, 2004)). In the wake of perennial political and organizational scandals and system inefficiencies, there appears to be a dire need for effective but also ethical leadership (Bass & Steidelmeir, date; Bennis, 2004; Ciulla, 2004; Kellerman, 2004). Indeed, as mentioned by Bennis (2004, p. 331), a scholar of leadership since the 1950s, "the quality of all our lives is dependent on the quality of our leadership. The context in which we study leadership is very different from the context in which we study, say, astronomy. By definition, leaders wield power, and so we study them with the same self-interested intensity with which we study diabetes and other life-threatening diseases. Only when we understand leaders will we be able to control them."

My ultimate goal in this article is twofold: (a) to make followers become more astute consumers of leader influencing processes; and (b) to make leaders, particularly top-level leaders, better

understand their responsibilities to followers and to society and how they can galvanize collective action for greater good. Leadership matters for effective organizational functioning and its importance should not be underestimated. As stated by Gardner (1990):

“Why do we not have better leadership? The question is asked over and over. When we ask a question countless times and arrive at no answer, it is possible that we are asking the wrong question--or that we have misconceived the terms of the query. Another possibility is that it is not a question at all but simply convenient shorthand to express deep and complex anxieties. It would strike most of our contemporaries as old-fashioned to cry out, ‘What shall we do to be saved?’ And it would be time-consuming to express fully our concerns about the social disintegration, the moral disorientation, and the spinning compass needle of our time. So we cry out for leadership.” (pp xi)

What is Leadership?

How we define leadership will guide how we study it (Hunt, 2004). In the past, leadership was considered as being beyond scientific study because leadership scholars found it difficult to connect (i.e., correlate) any sort of leader-centered variables (e.g., leader traits or behaviors) to leader outcomes (e.g., follower satisfaction or organizational effectiveness) (see Antonakis et al., 2004). However, from a lay perspective we “know” leadership, and charisma¹ in particular when we see it but it becomes difficult to define leadership in terms of manifest indicators that can be measured and linked (correlated) with leadership outcomes. Thus, leadership was originally studied using simple models. The first were trait models, which attempted to link stable leader characteristics (e.g., intelligence) with leader outcomes. Although there were traits associated with leader success, following some influential, yet misinterpreted reviews (e.g., Mann, 1959, Stogdill, 1948), leadership researchers abandoned the study of traits. We know today

¹ Note that leadership is not synonymous with charisma. However, charisma is an important component of transformational leadership, a proactive and very potent form of leadership, which I describe in more detail later.

that the reasons for which this line research was deserted were because of the lack of:

1. statistical methods (e.g., meta-analysis) to quantitatively synthesize independent research findings and thus demonstrate validity generalization (see Lord, De Vader, & Alliger, 1986, who showed that general intelligence is strongly related to leader emergence), and
2. an integrative framework to group subfacets of personality into a broad taxonomic structure--like that of the “big five”--whose predictive validity for leadership is quite robust (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002).

Consequently, researchers attempted to identify the behaviors associated with leadership using simple two-factor models of people-centered or task-centered leadership (e.g., Katz, Maccoby, Gurin, & Floor, 1951; Stogdill & Coons, 1957). Again, confusion reigned because it appeared that situational moderators altered the nature of relations between the leader behavior and outcomes. Contingency theories were thus developed (e.g., Fiedler 1967; House 1971); however, they too hit an impasse in their predictive ability because of difficulties in testing the models in various contingencies and because the models focused on a limited set of behaviors and almost wholly ignored traits.

Another problem with behavior and contingency theories was that oftentimes they operated under the limited supposition that individuals are motivated to maximize the utility they obtain in social exchange processes; followers are apparently only motivated by rewards (typically economic) or to avoid sanctions. Thus, leaders make implicit or explicit “deals” with followers and reward and punish them contingent on outcomes. However, looking at leadership only from an economic-rational perspective is very restricted and incomplete because individuals are not merely motivated to maximize their economic utility but also to self-express, to reinforce an identity of who they are or who they are aspiring to be, and to do what is ideally or morally correct.

Oftentimes, and in particular in situations that are equivocal², individuals might be motivated to

² I differentiate between unequivocal (i.e., “strong”) and equivocal (i.e., “weak”) situations

act irrespective of apparent external (economic) rewards linked to their actions (Shamir, 1991). The economic-rational perspective, however, looks at leadership from the basis of transactions and exchanges--assuming that followers react only to "carrots and sticks" in specific (i.e., "strong" or uniform) instances (see Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Downton, 1973; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). The nature of the exchange (transaction) that occurs depends on the extent to which the players have lived up to their side of a particular deal. As I discuss later, this form of transactional leadership works. However, it is less strongly related to outcomes measures than is charisma or other emotional-based influencing processes. Furthermore, transactional leadership is not theorized to work well in equivocal situations and it is also limited in terms of the commitment that it will induce in followers (see Bass, 1985; Shamir, 1991; Shamir, et al., 1991; Weber, 1924/1947). Thus, when I speak of influence in the definition of leadership that I use below, I am not referring only to the leader's reward or coercive power, but also the leader's symbolic (idealized) and expert power (see French & Raven, 1968).

Leadership research emerged from its 1970s and 1980s rut of pessimism. The study of leadership was rejuvenated by theories that focused on the psychological impact of charismatic and visionary leadership on followers (e.g., House, 1977; see also Bass, 1985; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Burns, 1978). The full-range leadership theory (Bass, 1985), which I focus on describing in detail below, currently dominates leadership research (Hunt, 1999; Lowe & Gardner, 2000). Interestingly, leadership research has come

(see Mischel, 1977; also Shamir, 1995). The former have uniform expectations that are evident to individuals and guide individuals in terms of the normative action that has to be taken (thus, individual differences do not predict behavior very well in these conditions because everyone pretty much will do the same thing in that situation). The latter are characterized by their "fuzziness" in which decision processes are a function of individual differences and interpretations.

full circle, currently including elements of trait, behavior, and contingency theories in what can be termed hybrid or process theories (Lim & Ployhart, 2004; Zaccaro, Kemp, & Bader, 2004). These theories suggest that the effects of traits are evident on context-specific skills/abilities and behaviors, which in turn predict leader outcomes (see Figure 1).

Definition of Leadership

Bearing in mind the above discussion, leadership can be defined as "the nature of the influencing process--and its resultant outcomes--that occurs between a leader and followers and how this influencing processes is explained by the leader's dispositional characteristics and behaviors, follower perceptions and attributions of the leader, and the context in which the influencing process occurs. . . . [A] necessary condition for effective and authentic leadership is the creation of empowered followers in pursuit of a moral purpose, leading to moral outcomes that are guided by moral means" (Antonakis et al., 2004, p. 5). The leadership process thus consists of leader traits and behaviors, and follower perceptions in a particular context (for what is a leader without followers?). Context is important as a moderator of the relation between leader characteristics and outcomes, because contextual factors (e.g., times of crisis/threat versus system stability) affect the types of traits or behaviors that might emerge and how those traits or behaviors are related to leader outcomes (see Zaccaro et al., 2004; Zaccaro & Klimoski, 2001). Charismatic leadership, for example, is likely to emerge, and is particularly potent in times of crisis (Antonakis & House, 2002)--an equivocal situation.

Finally, leadership is not merely a top-down process. Because leadership is defined as an influencing process it can also be exercised sideways, diagonally, and down-up throughout an organizational hierarchy (Hunt, 2004). Thus, leaders and followers can change roles, depending on the direction of the influencing process. Followers are not merely static bystanders but play an important role in the leadership process by legitimizing and influencing leaders.

organizational effectiveness and are described in more detail later.

Does Leadership Matter?

Intuitively, leadership seems to be important for the effective functioning of social systems. As noted by Vroom (1976),

“There are few problems of interest to behavioral scientists with as much apparent relevance to the problems of society as the study of leadership. The effective functioning of social systems [to countries] is assumed to be dependent on the quality of their leadership. This assumption is reflected in our tendency to blame a football coach for a losing season or to credit a general for a military victory...the critical importance of executive functions and of those who carry them out to the survival and effectiveness of the organization cannot be denied.” (pp 1527)

This assumption, though, has been challenged by what can be termed the “skeptics” school of leadership, which emerged in the 1970s and 1980s (see Antonakis et al., 2004). Basically, this school questioned whether leadership existed or was actually a useful or important concept (e.g., see Gemmill & Oakley, 1996; Miner, 1976). It also questioned whether leadership mattered, claiming that individuals have a heroic and romantic view of leaders whom they overcredit and overblame for organizational outcomes (e.g., Meindl, 1990; Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987; Meindl, Ehrlich, & Dukerich, 1985; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977). In other words, followers have a limited capacity to accurately discern the complex nature of organizational functioning. In their quest to understand cause and effect, followers naïvely attribute organizational outcomes to leaders. Whether or not the leaders are actually responsible for the outcomes is not relevant to this attribution process. Thus, irrespective of who the leader is or what the leader actually does, followers will “see” the leader as exhibiting effective (e.g., charismatic) or ineffective leadership based on whether organizational outcomes are good or bad. This phenomenon can be explained in terms of good (or bad) outcomes being representative of and due to effective (or ineffective) leadership (Antonakis & Cacciato, 2003). This explanation is partly correct (i.e., valid under certain conditions), as I discuss below.

The assertions of the skeptics’ school, however, did not go unchallenged and have been tempered (see Antonakis & Cacciato, 2003, for a review). For example, Day and Lord (1988) pointed out serious methodological flaws and exaggerated interpretations of some authors (e.g., Lieberman & O’Connor, 1972; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977), stating that about half the variance in organizational performance could be accounted for by the organizations’ top-level leaders. Others have made similar arguments showing that leadership does matter for organizational performance (see Day, 2000; Dionne, Yammarino, Atwater, & James, 2002; Smith, Carson, & Alexander, 1984; Hitt & Tyler, 1991; Zaccaro, 2001).

Leader traits and behaviors are measurable and demonstrate strong predictive validity whether using organizational or follower outcome measures and based on cross-sectional, experimental, and field research (e.g., see Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Day & Lord, 1988; Eden & Sulimani, 2002; House, Spangler, & Woycke, 1991; Judge, Colbert, & Ilies, 2004; Judge et al., 2002; Lord et al., 1986; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Smith & Foti, 1998). The implication of the above studies is that leadership is not merely a social construction and an attribution process and that leadership is strongly correlated with real-world outcomes measures.

Therefore, who leaders are (e.g., their characteristics) and what they do (i.e., how they behave) matters. Traits that matter for leadership, as cited in the studies in the previous paragraph, include general intelligence (i.e., IQ or general cognitive capacity), need for power (the need to influence others and social systems), extraversion (i.e., socially outgoing), self-efficacy (i.e., self-confidence), and openness (i.e., progressiveness, creativity). That leadership matters has not only been demonstrated in business or organizational contexts but also at the country level of analysis (House et al., 1991; Spangler & House, 1991; Simonton, 2002). In these studies, stable characteristics of presidents (e.g., IQ, need for power) were linked to outcomes at the individual (presidential) and the country level-of-analysis.

Although leadership exists and matters, the skeptics were not entirely wrong as concerns the attribution of leadership to individuals. That is, leadership is attributed based on performance/outcomes signals and other actions representative of “good” or “bad” leadership (e.g.,

leader rhetoric, symbolic actions, etc.). Following Shamir (1995), Antonakis and Cacciato (2003) demonstrated that the amount of information (e.g., behavioral information) about the leader that is available to followers moderates the extent to which performance signals will be used by followers in evaluating a leader. In conditions of low information certainty, followers will, quite rationally, place a larger weight on performance signals than they will in conditions of high information certainty. Why? It is not entirely unreasonable that the signal, as one of the few indicators of a leader's success, links outcomes to leaders in ways that are considered prototypical (i.e., good leaders usually cause good outcomes). Important to note here is that low information conditions are those in which political leaders function. Hence, the manipulation of signals (or at least the spin that is put on them, e.g., to whom the signals should be attributed, who caused success or failure, etc.) and other symbolic leader actions are important tools for political leaders. Thus, leadership is, in part, simply management of impressions.

In the next section, I introduce the full-range theory and discuss the importance of leader vision and follower trust in, and identification with, the leader. Then, I explain the sub-components of the full-range theory.

The Extended Full-Range Leadership Theory

Bass (1985) initially proposed the full-range leadership theory, focusing essentially on three major classes of leader behavior, transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership (for the development of the theory refer to Avolio & Bass, 1991; Avolio, Waldman, & Yammarino, 1991; Bass, 1998; Bass & Avolio, 1993, 1994; Hater & Bass, 1988). Antonakis and House (2002; 2004) expanded this theory to account for the effects of leader expertise on organizational and follower performance, referring this form of leadership as instrumental leadership (which has been around since decades but ignored in recent research). Instrumental leadership is essential for organizational and follower performance because it is centered on actions that ensure organizational adaptation, reification of vision, and facilitation of follower work outcomes. The typologies of leadership can be briefly described as follows:

1. transformational leadership, which explains value-based, visionary, emotional, and charismatic leader actions, predicated on the leader's symbolic power;
2. transactional leadership, a quid pro quo influencing process based on reward and coercive power;
3. instrumental leadership, centered on strategic organizational and follower work-facilitation functions based on expert power;
4. laissez-faire leadership, a form of nonleadership in which the leader abdicates his or her responsibility and is high avoidant.

Understanding the importance of leadership, as broadly defined in the above typologies will become evident as I focus on why followers trust and identify with leaders and how vision is implicated in the leadership process.

Vision, Trust and Identification

To be validated as a leader an individual must project an image of himself/herself that is concordant with the follower's implicit prototype (i.e., expectation) regarding what effective leaders are normally (prototypically) like or what leaders normally do in a particular context (e.g., military, sport, business). That is, followers relate the context to a specific prototype (expectation) that is used as a reference point to which they compare a target individual to determine whether this individual is leader-like not (see Lord, Brown, Harvey, & Hall, 2001; Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1984). The closer the target individual is to the prototype the more they will be seen as leader-like and trusted.

The effectiveness of the leader's organizational system, whether leading a firm or a country, is based on the ability of leader to influence his or her direct and indirect followers as well as stakeholders of the system to follow the leader's vision. Followers and stakeholders must identify with and trust the leader, especially in situations characterized as equivocal (or close to crisis). In equivocal situations followers need exceptional individuals to deliver them from their plight (House, 1977)--leaders become "salvationistic or messianic" (Kets de Vries, 1988, p. 238). This "need" is particularly important when referring to leaders at top hierarchical levels, because of the power leaders wield and the leverage they have

on influencing situations in which the stakes are often high.

Having faith in or trusting a leader depends on who the leader is and what the leader does. Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995) suggested that the propensity to trust an individual is a function of dispositional and behavioral attributes of the trustee. Adapted to leadership, Antonakis and Atwater (2002) argued that trust in the leader depends on whether the leader:

1. has domain-relevant expertise (i.e., instrumental leadership).
2. exhibits values that are congruent to those of the stakeholders, challenges the status quo for the better, demonstrates moral conviction (i.e., transformational leadership).
3. is honest and reliable in terms of fulfilling his or her transactional obligations (i.e., transactional leadership).

The key to effective leadership is the “trustability” of the leader and the extent to which the leader expresses the sentiments of the collective in a vision—the glue that bounds the leader’s and follower’s ideals. Vision is primordial for leader success and, in lay terms, can be thought of foresight or foretelling the future. In reality, leaders cannot predict the future. They can, however, articulate a vision and then do whatever is necessary to make the vision happen. Thus, vision can be defined as the ability to “construct the future first mentally and then behaviorally” (Sashkin, 2004, p. 186).

The vision is usually a distal and general end state (see Shamir et al., 1993). The vision could be concocted by “dreamer” (leader); however, to be reified and made possible, the vision must be carved up into tangible and operational objectives that can be pursued. The “dreamer” (or his or her “lieutenants”) must be an expert in the organizational system, understanding its resources, constraints, and so forth. The leader must have complex causal models of the operating environment and understand condition-action links (Cianciolo, Antonakis, & Sternberg, 2004). By virtue of their expertise (i.e., instrumental leadership), leaders make the future happen in ways that they predicted it would (in the vision).

The leader’s vision acts a road map for resource mobilization; however, the vision and the

leader’s actions are also energizing to followers who actively contribute to the concretization of the vision. Why? If the vision implicates the self-concept of followers (i.e., how they see themselves, who they want to be) then it is in the interest of followers to help make the vision happen (see Shamir et al., 1993). Followers become intimately attached to the vision because if the vision occurs it will reinforce who they are or the ideal towards which they are aspiring.

Thus, another way of looking at the reasons why followers will support a particular leader is by understanding the identification process. Identification is typically explained in psychological theories of charisma (House, 1977). Weber (1924/1947, p. 358), referred to charismatic leaders as being attributed with “supernatural, superhuman, or at least specifically exceptional powers or qualities.” Charismatic leaders emerge in equivocal and distressing situations and have “specific gifts of the body and spirit not accessible to everybody” (Weber, 1968, p. 19). For House, the charismatic leader appeals to followers by virtue of projecting a morally charged ideal future state. These leaders demonstrate extraordinary competence, have exceptionally good communication skills, are confident in themselves and their followers and set high expectations for themselves and their followers. These leaders take risks by being unconventional.

Thus, charismatic leaders are thus seen as extraordinary and courageous and are idealized. Followers want to be like the leader because the leader (and the leader’s vision) is a symbol of an idealized future that appeals to followers. The leader becomes a symbol of emulation and followers will willingly work towards helping the vision become reality. In other words, followers identify with the leader and are intrinsically motivated in making the vision happen (Antonakis & House, 2002).

In more specific terms, identification can be explained in a through a three-step and not a necessarily sequential process (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; see also Sashkin, 1988; 2004), which include active-proactive elements of the full-range theory (i.e., transformational, instrumental, and transactional leadership):

1. Leaders assess the status quo, determine the needs of followers, evaluate organizational and human capital resources (all instrumental

leader processes), and arouse follower interest by articulating a compelling and realistic argument for change (i.e., they use metaphor, symbolic actions, impression management, all elements of transformational leader behavior).

2. Like prophets, leaders articulate a vision of the future that inspires follower action (transformational leadership). The idealized vision creates follower identification and affection for the leader, because the vision embodies a future state of affairs that is valued by followers (transformational leadership).

3. Leaders create an aura of confidence and competence by demonstrating conviction that the mission is achievable (transformational leadership), leading by example (transformational leadership), carving the vision into strategic and tactical plans (instrumental leadership), and by providing technical expertise (instrumental leadership) and socio-emotional support (transformational leadership). Thus, the self-fulfilling prophecy occurs.

As the prophecy becomes reality, followers further legitimize the leader by associating and attributing outcomes to the leader (i.e., followers view favorable outcomes and other performance cues that representative of successful leadership as proof of the leader's ability and gift, see Antonakis & Atwater, 2002; Shamir, 1995). The charismatic attributes of the leader are, therefore, further reinforced.

Below, I describe the components (or typologies) and the sub-facets of the full-range theory in detail. As will become evident, the full-range theory can be used as an organizing framework regarding what leadership is and what effective leaders do. Furthermore, the below factors have been developed into the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire—a questionnaire measuring the perceptions others have of a leader. This questionnaire measures transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership and has been extensively tested over the last two decades (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003). Antonakis and House (2004) developed items tapping into instrumental leadership to test the extension of the theory (as described in Antonakis & House, 2002).

What is Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership is composed of five subfactors and mostly addresses actions centered on vision, ideals, optimism, and so forth. Certain factors might be more important than others, depending on the hierarchical level of the leader or the organizational context. For example, a high-level leader cannot have individualized contact with far-removed followers (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002). Thus, the relevant factor described below (i.e., individualized consideration) can only be applicable to how direct followers of the leader view the leader.

Idealized Influence (Attributes & Behaviors)

Attributional idealized influence refers to attributions of the leader made by followers as a result of how they perceive the leader. Behavioral idealized influence refers to specific behaviors of the leader that followers can observe directly. Both factors essentially measure the leader's charismatic appeal with respect to the leader's confidence and power, and the extent to which the leader is viewed as having higher-order ideals and an ethical orientation. Idealized influence, or charisma, as Bass (1985) originally defined it, is the emotional component of leadership, which is "used to describe leaders who by the power of their person have profound and extraordinary effects on their followers" (p. 35).

Theoretically, followers revere these leaders and demonstrate loyalty and devotion to the leader's cause. Followers shed their self-interest and care more about collective aspirations. As noted by Bass (1998), "transformational leaders shift goals [of followers] away from personal, safety and security towards achievement, self-actualization, and the greater good" (p. 41). Followers idealize these leaders who are role models and provide them with a vision and purpose, and who consider the moral and ethical implications of their decisions. These leaders communicate symbolically, use imagery, and are persuasive in projecting a vision that promises a better future. In this way they create an intense emotional attachment with their followers.

Inspirational Motivation

Inspirational motivation is leadership that inspires and motivates followers to reach ambitious goals that may have previously seemed unreachable. Here, the leader raises followers' expectations and inspires action by communicating confidence that they can achieve these ambitious goals. By predicting that followers are able to reach ambitious goals, and showing absolute confidence and resolve that the goals will be reached, followers are inspired to reach the requisite level of performance beyond normal expectations, and a self-fulfilling prophecy occurs (described as the Pygmalion effect by Bass).

Intellectual Stimulation

This factor taps into the rational component of transformational leadership, distinct from the other transformational components. Here, the leader appeals to follower's intellect by creating "problem awareness and problem solving, of thought and imagination, and of beliefs and values" (Bass, 1985, p. 99). Bass noted further that as a result of intellectual stimulation, "followers' conceptualization, comprehension, and discernment of the nature of the problems they face, and their solutions" is radically altered (Bass, 1985, p. 99). Because individuals are included in the problem-solving process, they are motivated and committed to achieving the goals at hand. Intellectual stimulation involves challenging follower assumptions, generalizations and stereotypes, and stimulating followers to seek ways of improving current performance.

Individualized Consideration

Bass (1985) stated that a leader using individualized consideration provides socio-emotional support to followers, is concerned with developing followers to their highest level of potential and with empowering them. The leader in this instance provides "a developmental or mentoring orientation toward [followers]" (p. 83). This outcome is achieved by coaching and counseling followers, maintaining frequent contact with them, and helping them to self-actualize.

What is Transactional Leadership?

Transactional leadership is composed of three subfactors. The first two (contingent rewards and management by exception active) are active forms of leadership. The last is a passive-reactive form of leadership. Again, how leaders enact these components and what followers can perceive the leader doing depends on leader-follower distance and other contextual constraints. For instance, at a distance (e.g., political-level leadership, where followers lack information on the leader), followers evaluate leaders on broad obligations that were communicated to the collective. That is, the "deal" that is made was not with specific individuals but with the collective in general.

Contingent Rewards

Bass (1985) argued that contingent reward leadership is based on economic and emotional exchanges between followers and their leader based on the clarification of role requirements and the rewarding of desired outcomes. Here, the leader praises and recognizes followers for goal-achievement (Bass & Avolio, 1997). Contingent reward is a constructive transaction (Bass, 1998). It is reasonably effective in motivating followers, but to a lesser degree than is transformational leadership.

Management-by-Expectation (Active & Passive)

Management-by-exception is by definition a negative transaction, because the leader monitors follower deviations from the explicated performance norms (Bass, 1998). It is similar to contingent reward in terms of focusing on outcomes, but here, the leader acts on mistakes or errors (i.e., the leader is providing contingent aversive reinforcement). Leaders can demonstrate management-by-exception in an active or passive manner (Hater & Bass, 1988). A leader employing active management-by-exception actively watches for deviations from norms, whereas a leader employing passive management-by-exception waits until deviations occur before intervening (Bass, 1998).

What is Instrumental Leadership?

Following the review and theoretically derived integration of transformational leader approaches recently undertaken by Antonakis and House (2002), instrumental leadership can be defined as a class of leader behaviors concerning the enactment of leader expert knowledge toward the fulfillment of organizational-level and follower task performance (see also Nadler & Tushman, 1990). Instrumental leadership is distinct from transformational (i.e., ideals, inspirationally based, etc.) and transactional (i.e., exchange-based) leadership and encompasses two subclasses of leader behaviors. Each of these subclasses, in turn, consists of two factors: (a) strategic leadership—leader actions centered on environmental scanning and strategy formulation and (b) follower work facilitation—leader actions focused on assisting followers to reach their performance goals, as described below. Again, leader-follower distance as well as other situational factors will impose differential effects of these components on followers and organizations. For example, work facilitation would be more pertinent in “close” situations whereas strategic leadership would be more pertinent to top-level hierarchical leadership.

Strategic Leadership

Strategic leadership can be conceptualized in terms of two distinct factors evident in the theories reviewed by Antonakis and House (2002): (a) environmental monitoring, as articulated by Conger and Kanungo (1998) and by House and Shamir (1993) and (b) strategy formulation and implementation, as proposed by Sashkin (1988) and by Westley and Mintzberg (1988). Theoretically, strategic leadership directly (through structures and systems) and indirectly (through followers) influences and enhances organizational effectiveness. Strategic leadership might also facilitate the charismatic effect because the identification of a deficiency in the status quo and the articulation of a vision that can project a better future is a function of a leader’s ability to use strategic leadership skills.

Follower Work Facilitation

Following Bowers and Seashore (1966), follower work facilitation can be viewed as the type of

leadership that facilitates follower performance directly. Work facilitation includes elements of path-goal theory (i.e., providing direction and support to followers to facilitate the path to the goal, House, 1971)—not addressed in contingent reward leadership (although Bass, 1985, suggested otherwise). Work facilitation also includes an active-constructive outcome monitoring form of leadership that has a development outlook that is not merely mistakes focused (as is management-by-exception, see Antonakis & House, 2002). Thus, follower work facilitation leadership entails monitoring performance outcomes and providing feedback that is instrumental for goal attainment, compensating for followers’ abilities and environmental conditions to ensure that followers reach their goals, and thereby increasing the probability that follower performance goals are maximized. Leadership behavior that facilitates followers in these ways enhances followers’ self-efficacy and motivation (cf. Bandura, 1977).

Laissez-Faire Leadership

To fully account for all potential full-range leadership behaviors, a scale of non-leadership was added to indicate an absence of leadership (i.e. a non-transaction) (Bass 1998; Bass & Avolio, 1994; 1997). This factor is negatively correlated with the active forms of leadership and positively correlated with passive management-by-exception. These types of leaders avoid taking positions or making decisions, and abdicate their authority. After management-by-exception passive, this factor is the most inactive form of leadership.

Empirical Support for the Theory

Support for the full-range leadership theory, in terms of its predictive validity (whether using objective or subjective criterion measures), is very robust as indicated by the results of several meta-analyses (DeGroot, Kiker, & Cross, 2000; Dum Dum, Lowe, & Avolio, 2002; Gasper, 1992; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Lowe et al., 1996). Transformational leadership is strongly associated with leader outcomes. Elements of active transactional leadership (i.e., contingent rewards) are also positively related to outcomes but less than are the transformational leader factors. Passive-avoidant leadership (management-by-exception passive and

laissez-faire leadership) is negatively related to outcomes. Finally, initial evidence demonstrates that instrumental leadership predicts variance in subjective measures of performance above and beyond transformational and transactional leadership (Antonakis & House, 2004).

Conclusions

In this review I defined what leadership is and why it matters for organizational effectiveness. I described why certain individuals are accorded leader status in terms of who they are and how they behave. Through these explications, I trust that I rendered leadership, or at least certain components of the leadership process, into an understandable phenomenon.

My above discussions will be useful for followers and leaders. They will also assist in understanding phenomena with which leadership is implicated. For example, in June 2004, my students cornered me into predicting who would win the U.S. election in November 2004. Although I would have liked to avoid "predictions" of this sort, I thought it was quite likely that George W. Bush would win even though many polls at that time indicated that the contest seemed more in John F. Kerry's favor.

My answer to my students was based on the fact that far-removed followers do not have enough information to make an accurate assessment of political leaders (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002). The only thing followers have to go on is what they see on television, what they read in the press, hear on the radio, and what others think. Thus, followers making judgments about distant leaders are prone to be influenced by the leaders' impression management, rhetoric, values, and vision, among others. Followers are also highly influenced by economic factors³, which can be seen as outcomes of leadership (i.e., again, in the absence of sufficient information on the leader, followers reason by representation, linking good or bad outcomes to ostensibly good or bad leadership).

³ I closely followed, and based my judgment in part on the "Pollyvote", which integrates econometric models, tracking polls, and others sources of data (see <http://morris.wharton.upenn.edu/forecast/Political/>). Remarkably, this forecasting method precisely predicted Bush's share of the vote.

I surmised that if the status quo, particularly in terms of the economy and the international scene, did not change much between then and November, Bush should trump Kerry. My thinking was that Bush embodied much of what many voters wanted of their leader. He spoke in simple folksy terms, used metaphor quite effectively, appeared to have resolve, appeared to be "normal," appeared to have a plain lifestyle, and so forth⁴. Average Americans identified with Bush because he represented what they wanted, particularly the middle-of-the-road contingent of the population, for whom traditional "family values," and the like, as well as security were very important. Remember the context--the crisis--after 11 September 2001. Bush was fortunate to have been president; wartime presidents are accorded a degree of greatness simply by virtue of occupying the office of president (Simonton, 2002). As I mentioned previously, during crises followers need a messiah of sorts to deliver them from their plight. Bush stepped forward and gave a reasonably compelling--although for me an immoral--vision of what should be done to make America and the world safe (two years later it is evident that Bush's approach did more harm than good and that his arguments about weapons of mass destruction in Iraq were specious). He was attributed a lot of charisma for being at the helm of a ship caught in typhonic seas, and was seen as strong, confident, resolved and so forth, no matter how stormy the waters were. He kept the bow pointing in one direction. He epitomized and projected the fears, hopes, and values of average Americans. Consequently, he became a symbol of their moral unity (nowadays, I hope that those average Americans see Bush in different light, which judging from his current approval ratings appears to be the case).

Finally, by going against international institutions, and taking on France and Germany (who were against the invasion of Iraq), his "charisma stock price" went up further because he showed determination that he would not be bullied by foreigners, that he would take America's interests into account first, and so forth. Simply put, Bush projected a tough and confident image and maintained a consistent position--he was no "softy" and often ignored large numbers of

⁴ The fact that Bush was prone to making gaffes might have actually been beneficial to him, making him seem more humane and fallible (see Aronson, Willerman, & Floyd, 1966).

constituents who believed he was doing the wrong thing. Either he was to be seen as being plain stupid—which was, in large part, the reaction of his opponents—or he would be attributed those characteristics indicative of a strong and steady leader, which was the case of his supporters and apparently of many undecided voters⁵.

The incumbent had a reasonably strong economy to show for and was admired, to a certain extent, for being firm, self-assured, and direct. He did what he said and never showed regrets. Even though many thought that Bush made a mistake, maybe even a major blunder by invading Iraq the fact that Bush “stuck to his guns” (literally and figuratively) made him look like someone with unfaltering resolve, guts, and courage. He never flinched nor floundered.

For these reasons, I speculated that Bush was in a very strong position and that Kerry simply did not have enough charisma to dislodge Bush from the White House. Even if Americans might not have seen Bush in completely positive ways, he still seemed to them to be a better leader than Kerry was. Finally, compared with Kerry, Bush’s body language and general demeanor was more representative of a prototypically good leader. Bush appeared to be authentic and spontaneous and was less in control of his emotions, showing anger, disgust, happiness, and a whole host of emotions in a genuine way. Kerry, however, oftentimes seemed cold, distant, controlled, and contrived⁶.

5 Contrary to conventional opinion, Bush’s IQ is not exceptionally low. His IQ has been estimated to be 117, which is below the average (122) for U.S. presidents, and which places Bush in the 38th percentile. Noteworthy is that 15 presidents (out of 42), including Ford, Eisenhower, Coolidge, and Harding, among others, had estimated IQs that were lower than Bush’s IQ (see Simonton, 2002).

6 As I have argued elsewhere (Antonakis, 2003, 2004), emotional control might actually be detrimental to a leader’s image because if followers do not see emotions that are associated strongly with what the leader says or does then the leader’s authenticity will be questioned. This position is contrary to popular notions of “emotional intelligence” and the like, which profess that emotional control is the sine qua non

I trust that the above discussion will make some of the theory that I presented earlier come to life. I will now conclude with a thought-provoking statement: leadership is not who one thinks one is but who others think one is. As stated by Bennis (2004, p. 342):

“Perhaps the best exchange on the limits of power is from Shakespeare’s Henry IV, Pt. I. Glendower boasts to Hotspur: ‘I can call spirits from the vasty deep.’ And Hotspur responds: ‘Why, so can I, or so can any [person]; But will they come when you do call for them?’ Whatever the arena, genuine leaders find ways to make others want to come when they are called.”

Questions:

1. Do you think that it is desirable for countries, organizations, or groups to have charismatic leaders? Furthermore, holding transactional leadership constant, would you think it would be better to have (a) a charismatic leader who is not strong in instrumental leadership or (b) an instrumental leader who is not very charismatic?
2. Leadership is merely “stage management.” Discuss.
3. From an evolutionary perspective, we would expect that the leadership cream would always rise to the top. Why do you think that this is not always the case, particularly in business settings?
4. Discuss the cases of two leaders vying for a top political job. Using the theory presented here discuss why the one who won did so by virtue of being more prototypical of a charismatic leader.
5. The various components of the extended full-range leadership theory can be thought of as being like golf clubs. Each club (i.e., component) is effective in certain golfing terrains (i.e., organizational contexts). A sand wedge can only be used in a bunker and a

for leadership. When used correctly emotional outbursts—whether positive or negative—are very useful catalysts for the charismatic effect (see Wasielewski, 1985; see also Maccoby, 2003.

putter only on the green. Give an example of how:

- it may be possible to play a whole round of golf (i.e., exercise leadership across many contexts) using only one club (i.e., only using one component of leadership) and using only one club (i.e., one component of leadership) may be severely limiting.
- Discuss the cases of two leaders vying for a top political job. Using the theory presented here discuss why the one who won did so by virtue of being more prototypical of a charismatic leader.

References

- Antonakis, J., & Atwater, L. (2002) Leader distance: A review and a proposed theory. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 13, 673-704.
- Antonakis, J., Avolio, B. J., & Sivasubramaniam, N. (2003). Context and leadership: An examination of the nine-factor Full-Range Leadership Theory using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ Form 5X). *Leadership Quarterly*, 14, 261-295.
- Antonakis, J., & Cacciato, S. (2003) Heuristics and biases in evaluations of leaders: The effects of uncertainty. (Institute of International Management Working Paper No. 0306). Lausanne: University of Lausanne.
- Antonakis, J., & Cianciolo, A. T. & Sternberg, R. J. (Eds.). (2004). *The nature of leadership*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Antonakis, J., & House, R. J. (2002). An analysis of the full-range leadership theory: The way forward. In B. J. Avolio & F. J. Yammarino (Eds.) *Transformational and Charismatic Leadership: The Road Ahead* (pp. 3-34). Amsterdam: JAI Press.
- Antonakis, J., & House, R. J. (2004). On instrumental leadership: Beyond transactions and transformations. Paper presented at the Gallup Leadership Institute Conference, University of Nebraska.
- Aronson, E., Willerman, B., & Floyd, J. (1966). The effect of pratfall on increasing interpersonal attractiveness. *Psychonomic Science*, 4, 227-228.
- Avolio, B. J., & Bass, B. M. (1991). *The full range leadership development programs: Basic and Advanced manuals*. Binghamton, NY: Bass, Avolio & Associates.
- Avolio, B. J., Waldman, D. W, & Yammarino, F. J. (1991) Leading in the 1990's: Towards Understanding the Four I's of Transformational Leadership. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 15(4), 9-16.
- Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York: The Free Press.
- Bass, B. M. (1998). *Transformational leadership: Industrial, military, and educational impact*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1993). Transformational leadership: A response to critiques. In M. M. Chemers, & R. Ayman (Eds.), *Leadership theory and research: Perspectives and directions* (pp. 49-80). San Diego: Academic Press.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (Eds.). (1994). *Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1997). *Full range leadership development: Manual for the multifactor leadership questionnaire*. Palo Alto, CA: Mindgarden.
- Bass, B. M., Avolio, B. J., Jung, D. I., & Berson, Y. (2003). Predicting unit performance by assessing transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 207-218.
- Bass, B. M. & Steidlmeier, P. (1999). Ethics, character, and authentic transformational leadership. *Leadership Quarterly*, 10, 181-217.
- Bennis, W. (2004). The crucibles of authentic leadership. In: J. Antonakis, A.T. Cianciolo, & R. J. Sternberg (Eds.). *The Nature of Leadership* (pp. 331-342). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

- Bennis, W., & Nanus, B. (1985). *Leaders: The strategies for taking charge*. New York: HarperCollins.
- Bowers, D. G., & Seashore, S. E. (1966). Predicting organizational effectiveness with a four-factor theory of leadership. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 11, 238-263.
- Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Cianciolo, A., T., Antonakis, J., & Sternberg, R. J. (2004). Practical intelligence and leadership: Using experience as a "mentor." In D. V. Day, S. J. Zaccaro, & S. M. Halpin (Eds.), *Leader Development for Transforming Organizations* (pp. 211-236). Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Ciulla, J. B. (2004). Ethics and leadership effectiveness. In: J. Antonakis, A. T. Cianciolo, & R. J. Sternberg (Eds.). *The Nature of Leadership* (pp. 302-328). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Conger, J.A., & Kanungo, R. N. (1998). *Charismatic leadership in organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Day, D. V. (2000). Leadership development: A review in context. *Leadership Quarterly*, 11, 581-613.
- Day, D. V., & Lord, R. G. (1988). Executive leadership and organizational performance: Suggestions for a new theory and methodology. *Journal of Management*, 14, 453-464.
- DeGroot, T., Kiker, D. S., & Cross, T. C. (2000). A meta-analysis to review organizational outcomes related to charismatic leadership. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences*, 17, 356-371.
- Dionne, S. D., Yammarino, F. J., Atwater, L. E., & James, L. R. (2002). Neutralizing substitutes for leadership theory leadership effects and common-source bias. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 454-464.
- Downton, J. V. (1973). *Rebel leadership: Commitment and charisma in the revolutionary process*. New York: The Free Press.
- Dumdum, U. R., Lowe, K. B., & Avolio, B. J. (2002). A meta-analysis of the transformational and transactional leadership correlates of effectiveness and satisfaction: An update and extension. In B. J. Avolio & F. J. Yammarino (Eds.) *Transformational and Charismatic Leadership: The Road Ahead*, (pp. 35-66). Amsterdam: JAI Press.
- Eden, D., & Sulimani, R. (2002). Pygmalion training made effective: Greater mastery through augmentation of self-efficacy and means efficacy. In B. J. Avolio & F. J. Yammarino (Eds.), *Transformational and charismatic leadership: The road ahead*, (pp. 287-308). Amsterdam: JAI Press.
- Fiedler, F. E. (1967). *A theory of leadership effectiveness*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- French, J. R. P., & Raven, B. (1968). The bases of social power. In D. Cartwright & A. Zander (Eds.), *Group Dynamics; Research and Theory* (3rd ed.) (pp. 259-269). New York: Harper & Row.
- Gardner, J. (1990). *On leadership*. New York: Free Press.
- Gasper, J. M. (1992). *Transformational leadership: An integrative review of the literature*. Dissertation Abstracts International, (University Microfilms No. 9234203).
- Gemmill, G., & Oakley, J. (1996). Leadership: An alienating social myth. In R. M. Steers, L. W. Porter, & G. A. Bigley, (Eds.), *Motivation and leadership at work* (pp. 260-273). New York: McGraw-Hill. (Original work published in 1992 in *Human Relations*).
- Hambrick, D. C., & Mason, P. A. (1984). Upper echelons: The organization as a reflection of its top managers. *Academy of Management Review*, 9, 193-206.
- Hater, J. J., & Bass, B. M. (1988). Superiors' evaluations and subordinates' perceptions of transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 73, 695-702.
- Hill, C. W. L., & Jones, G. R. (1998). *Strategic management: An integrated approach*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Hitt, M. A., & Tyler, B. B. (1991). Strategic decision models: Integrating different perspectives. *Strategic Management Journal*, 12, 327-351.

- House, R. J. (1971). A path-goal theory of leadership effectiveness, *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 16, 321-328.
- House, R. J. (1977). A 1976 theory of charismatic leadership. In J. G. Hunt & L. L. Larson (Eds.), *Leadership: The cutting edge* (pp. 189-207). Carbondale. Southern Illinois University Press.
- House, R. J., & Shamir, B. (1993). Toward the integration of transformational, charismatic, and visionary theories. In M. M. Chemers, & R. Ayman (Eds.), *Leadership theory and research: Perspectives and directions* (pp. 167-188). San Diego: Academic Press.
- House, R. J., Spangler, W. D., & Woycke, J. (1991). Personality and charisma in the U. S. Presidency: A psychological theory of effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly* 36, 334-396.
- Hunt, J.G. (1991). *Leadership: A new synthesis*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Hunt, J. G. (1999). Transformational/charismatic leadership's transformation of the field: An historical essay. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10, 129-144.
- Hunt, J. G. (2004). What is Leadership. In J. Antonakis, A. T. Cianciolo, & R. J. Sternberg (Eds.), *The nature of leadership*, (pp. 19-47). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Judge, T. A., Bono, J. E., Ilies, R., & Gerhardt, M. W. (2002). Personality and leadership: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 765-780.
- Judge, T. A., Colbert, A. E., & Ilies, R. (2004). Intelligence and leadership: A quantitative review and test of theoretical propositions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 542-552.
- Judge, T. A., & Piccolo, R. F. (2004). Transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 755-768.
- Katz, D., & Kahn, R. L. (1978). *The social psychology of organizations*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Katz, D., Maccoby, N., Gurin G., & Floor, L. G. (1951). Productivity, supervision and morale among railroad workers. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Survey Research Center, Institute for Social Research (University of Michigan).
- Kellerman, B. (2004). *Bad leadership: What it is, how it happens, why it matters*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Kets de Vries, M. (1988). Origins of charisma: Ties that bind the leader and the led. In J. A. Conger, & R. N. Kanugo (Eds.), *Charismatic leadership: The elusive factor in organizational effectiveness* (pp. 237-252). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Lieberson, S., & O'Connor, J. F. (1972). Leadership and organizational performance: A study of large corporations. *American Sociological Review*, 37, 117-130.
- Lim, B.-C., & Ployhart, R. E. (2004). Transformational leadership: Relations to the five-factor model and team performance in typical and maximum contexts. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 610-621.
- Lord, R. G., Brown, D. J., Harvey, J. L., & Hall, R. J. (2001). Contextual constraints on prototype generation and their multilevel consequences for leadership perceptions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 12, 311-338.
- Lord, R. G., De Vader, C. L., & Alliger, G. M. (1986). A meta-analysis of the relation between personality traits and leadership perceptions: An application of validity generalization procedures. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71, 402-410.
- Lord, R. G., Foti, R. J., & De Vader, C. L. (1984). A test of leadership categorization theory: Internal structure, information processing, and leadership perceptions. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 34, 343-378.
- Lowe, K. B., & Gardner, W. L. (2000). Ten years of *The Leadership Quarterly*: Contributions and challenges for the future. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 11, 459-514.
- Lowe, K. B., Kroeck, K. G., & Sivasubramaniam, N. (1996). Effectiveness correlates of transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic review of the literature. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 7, 385-425.

- Maccoby, M. (2003). *The productive narcissist: The promise and peril of visionary leadership*. New York: Broadway.
- Mann, R. D. (1959). A review of the relationship between personality and performance in small groups. *Psychological Bulletin*, 56, 241-270.
- Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Schoorman, F. D. (1995). An integrative model of organizational trust. *Academy of Management Review*, 20, 709-734.
- Meindl, J. R. (1990). On leadership: An alternative to the conventional wisdom. In B. M. Staw & L. L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 12, 159-203. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Meindl, J. R., & Ehrlich, S. B. (1987). The romance of leadership and the evaluation of organizational performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 30, 91-109.
- Meindl, J. R., Ehrlich, S. B., & Dukerich, J. M. (1985). The romance of leadership. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 30, 78-102.
- Miller, D., Kets de Vries, M. F., & Toulouse, J.-M. (1982). Top executive locus of control and its relationship to strategy-making, structure, and environment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 25, 237-253.
- Miner, J. B. (1975). The uncertain future of the leadership concept. An overview. In J. G. Hunt & L. L. Larson (Eds.), *Leadership Frontiers* (pp. 197-208). Kent, OH: Kent State University.
- Mischel, W. (1977). The interaction of person and situation. In Magnusson, D., & Endler, D. (Eds.), *Personality at the Crossroads: Current Issues in Interactional Psychology* (pp. 333-352). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Nadler, D. A., & Tushman, M. L. (1990). Beyond the charismatic leader: Leadership and organizational change. *California Management Review*, 32, 77-97.
- Peterson, R. S., Smith D. B., Martorana, P. V., & Owens, P. D. (2003). The impact of chief executive officer personality on top management team dynamics: One mechanism by which leadership affects organizational performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 795-808.
- Salancik, G. R., & Pfeffer, J. (1977). Constraints on administrator discretion: The limited influence of mayors on city budgets. *Urban Affairs Quarterly*, 12, 475-498.
- Sashkin, M. (1988). The visionary leader. In J. A. Conger, & R. N. Kanungo (Eds.), *Charismatic leadership: The elusive factor in organizational effectiveness* (pp. 122-160). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Sashkin, M. (2004). Transformational leadership approaches. In J. Antonakis, A. T. Cianciolo, & R. J. Sternberg (Eds.), *The nature of leadership*, (pp. 171-196). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Senge, P. M. (1990). *The fifth discipline: The art and practice of the learning organization*. New York: Doubleday/Currency.
- Shamir, B. (1991). Meaning, self and motivation in organizations. *Organization Studies*, 12(3), 405-424.
- Shamir, B. (1995). Social distance and charisma: Theoretical notes and an exploratory study. *Leadership Quarterly*, 6, 19-47.
- Shamir, B., House, R. J., & Arthur, M. B. (1993). The motivational effects of charismatic leadership: A self-concept based theory. *Organization Science*, 4, 577-594.
- Simonton, D. K. (2002). Intelligence and presidential greatness: Equation replication using updated IQ estimates. *Advances in Psychology Research*, 13, 163-174.
- Smith, J. E., Carson, K. P., & Alexander, R. A. (1984). Leadership: It can make a difference. *Academy of Management Journal*, 27, 765-776.
- Smith, J. A., & Foti, R. J. (1998). A pattern approach to the study of leader emergence. *Leadership Quarterly*, 9, 147-160.
- Spangler, W. D., & House, R. J. (1991). Presidential effectiveness and the leadership motive profile. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 60(3), 439-455.
- Stogdill, R. M. (1948). Personal factors associated with leadership: A survey of the literature. *Journal of Psychology*, 21, 35-71.
- Stogdill, R. M., & Coons, A. E. (Eds.). (1957). *Leader behavior: Its description and measurement*.

Research Monograph Number 88, Ohio State University Bureau of Business Research.

Vroom, V. H. (1976). Leadership. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 1527-1551). Chicago: Rand McNally.

Wasielewski, P. L. (1985). The emotional basis of charisma. *Symbolic Interaction*, 8, 207-222.

Weber, M. (1947). *The theory of social and economic organization* (T. Parsons, Trans.). New York: The Free Press. (Original work published 1924).

Weber, M. (1968). Max Weber on charisma and institutional building. (S. N. Eisenstadt, Ed.). Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

Westley, F. R., & Mintzberg, H. 1988. Profiles of strategic vision: Levesque and Iacocca. In J. A.

Conger, & R. N. Kanungo (Eds.), *Charismatic leadership: The elusive factor in organizational effectiveness*: 161-212. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Zaccaro, S. J. (2001). *The nature of executive leadership*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Zaccaro, S. J., Kemp, C., & Bader, P. (2004). Leader traits and attributes. In J. Antonakis, A. T. Cianciolo, & R. J. Sternberg (Eds.), *The nature of leadership*, (pp. 101-124). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Zaccaro, S. J., & Klimoski, R. J. (2001). The nature of organizational leadership. In S. J. Zaccaro, & R. J. Klimoski (Eds.), *The nature of organizational leadership* (pp. 3-41). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.