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A REVIEW ON PERSONALITY MAGNETISM LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR

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ABSTRACT

This article systematically reviews extant research on personality magnetism leadership behavior. Based on this overview; it may be possible to advance a more inclusive perspective on the origins of such behavior, incorporating both leader- and context-based antecedent constructs. Such an integrative approach may allow for a better evaluation of the joint role of various influencing factors and promote a better understanding of the complex mechanisms underlying the development of charismatic leadership. In this discussion, it focuses on leaders' demographics, cognitive ability, personality, attitudes and values, affect, and emotional intelligence. Building on these considerations, the authors outline potentially fruitful directions for future research.

KEYWORDS
Charismatic leadership, cognitive ability, emotional intelligence, leaders' attitudes, Social context.

INTRODUCTION
Research has accumulated ample evidence demonstrating the beneficial consequences of charismatic leadership behavior (Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Lowe et al., 1996). Such behavior includes the leader acting as a role model for followers, displaying a sense of power and confidence, and making bold, unconventional decisions. Furthermore, charismatic leaders develop and communicate an emotionally captivating vision, foster the acceptance of shared goals, and motivate followers for the achievement of common aspirations (Avolio and Bass, 1988; Conger and Kanungo, 1987; Shamir et al., 1993). This set of behaviors is reflected in related leadership concepts, such as transformational (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978) and visionary leadership (Sashkin, 1988). Measures of such leadership have shown significant overlap, and the findings from studies of charismatic, transformational, and visionary leadership generally converge (Judge et al., 2006; Shamir et al., 1993). Also, given their common focus on role modeling, visionary, and emotionally appealing behaviors, these leadership styles are distinguished from transactional or exchange-based leadership that is based on performance rewards, goal setting, and rational path-goal clarification (Bass, 1985; House, 1996).

Although scholars have learned a lot about the impacts of charismatic leadership, the origins of such behavior have long been neglected (Conger, 1999; Yukl, 1999). Nevertheless, a growing amount of research on the antecedents of charismatic leadership has recently started to develop, giving rise to a substantial body of literature. Owing to its relatively early stage, such work has typically proceeded in a rather fragmented manner. Theoretical efforts have usually concentrated either on specific leader characteristics (House and Howell, 1992) or on specific contextual characteristics (Pawar and Eastman, 1997) as antecedent constructs. Similarly, empirical research has largely neglected interrelations between diverse influencing factors, focusing on relatively narrow sets of antecedents (Bommer et al., 2004). More comprehensive approaches toward charismatic leadership behavior emergence have not been proposed to date.

To systematically review the antecedent-oriented charismatic leadership literature, we follow the distinction between individual and contextual antecedent variables common to this research (Judge et al., 2006). Our key criterion for the inclusion of studies was that the respective work explicitly focused on the antecedents of charismatic leadership behavior or related types of leadership (e.g., transformational or visionary leadership). While aiming for a comprehensive coverage of the literature that meets this criterion, we deliberately neglected research on other leadership behaviors, leader effectiveness, or leader emergence.

INDIVIDUAL ANTECEDENTS OF CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR
In striving to organize the variety of individual-level charismatic leadership antecedents discussed in the literature, we consecutively focus on leaders' demographics, cognitive ability, personality, attitudes and values, affect, and emotional intelligence.

LEADERS' DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS
Research on demographic characteristics as charismatic leadership antecedents has mostly concentrated on leaders' gender. Eagly et al., (2003), for example, meta-analyzed 45 studies, demonstrating that women exhibit more transformational leadership behavior than men. This difference was relatively small, however, indicating a female advantage of about one tenth of a standard deviation (Judge et al., 2006). Accordingly, Eagly et al. (2003) acknowledged that "knowing that a particular individual is female or male would not be a reliable indicator of that person's leadership style."

Other demographic variables have received limited attention in charismatic leadership research. Among the few exceptions, Barbuto et al., (2007) found charismatic leadership to be more pronounced among older leaders (i.e., >46 years). In contrast, Oshagbemi (2004) found one aspect of self-reported charismatic behavior (i.e., idealized influence) to be stronger among younger (i.e., <40 years) than among older leaders (i.e., >49 years). Barbuto and colleagues further reported a significant interaction between gender and education. At lower educational levels (i.e., a high school degree) but not at higher educational levels (i.e., a bachelor's or master's degree), male leaders exhibited more transformational behavior than female leaders.

LEADERS' COGNITIVE ABILITY
Even though theorists have emphasized the relevance of cognitive ability for transformational leadership (Wofford and Goodwin, 1994), empirical research has rarely investigated this notion. Among the few exceptions are Atwater and Yammarino's (1993) study of leaders in training at a U.S. military academy, which found intellectual ability to positively relate with transformational leadership. Similarly, Hoffman and Frost (2006) found positive correlations between assessment-center measures of cognitive ability and the charismatic leadership of executive MBA students.

LEADERS' PERSONALITY TRAITS
Leaders' personality is among the most widely investigated antecedents of charismatic behavior. Theorists such as House and Howell (1992) have suggested charismatic leaders to be characterized, for instance, by their achievement orientation, risk-taking propensity, self-confidence, willingness to exercise influence in a nonexploitive manner, inclinations to be confident in and trusting toward followers, and social sensitivity (Avolio and Gibbons, 1988; Bass, 1985; Kuhnert and Lewis, 1987; Zaccaro and Banks, 2001). Empirical research mirrors this breadth of personality antecedents.

Leaders' proactively, for instance, has been shown to positively associate with charismatic behavior in a field study from a financial services company (Crant and Bateman, 2000), in a student sample (Bateman and Crant, 1993) and in a historiometric study of U.S. presidents (Deluga, 1998; Pillai et al.,2003). Similarly, scholars have demonstrated leaders' need for power to positively associate with charismatic leadership in a CEO sample (Hoogh et al., 2005) and in a biographic analysis of U.S. presidents (House et al.,1991), with the latter study also demonstrating that achievement orientation is negatively and activity inhibition is positively related with behavioral charisma. Biographical studies have further shown U.S. presidents' charismatic leadership to be positively associated with their

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Machiavellianism (Deluga, 2001) and narcissism (Deluga, 1997), even though Judge et al., (2006) found negative relations between narcissism and transformational leadership among beach patrol members. Finally, field studies in various contexts have shown charismatic behavior to be positively associated with leaders' internal locus of control (Howell and Avolio, 1993); risk-taking propensity (Howell and Higgins, 1990); trait positive affectivity (Rubin et al., 2005); post conventional moral reasoning (Turner et al., 2002); trait optimism, hope, and resiliency (Peterson et al., 2009); warmth (Hetland and Sandal, 2003); and self-confidence, pragmatism, feminine attributes, and nurturance (Ross and Offermann, 1997). The latter study also found criticalness and aggression to negatively relate with transformational leadership.

Scholars have started to integrate this diverse research by focusing on the Big Five personality traits (Judge and Bono, 2000; Lim and Ployhart, 2004; Ployhart et al., 2001), which comprehensively incorporate more fine-grained dispositions. Extraversion, openness to experience, and agreeableness have been suggested to strengthen charismatic behavior. Conscientiousness, in contrast, has been argued to only weakly relate to charismatic leadership, whereas neuroticism has been proposed to hinder such leadership (Hoogh et al.,2005; Judge and Bono, 2000). Supporting these notions, a meta-analysis by Bono and Judge (2004) found the Big Five personality traits to account for 12% of the variance in charismatic leadership behavior, with positive (albeit moderate) bivariate correlations for extraversion (r= .22), agreeableness (r= .21), and openness to experience (r= .22), an insignificant correlation for conscientiousness (r= .05), and a moderate negative correlation for neuroticism (r= -.17).

LEADERS' ATTITUDES AND VALUES

Some authors have discussed the role of leaders' work attitudes in charismatic leadership behavior emergence. Bommer and colleagues (2004), for instance, demonstrated that leaders' cynicism about organizational change was negatively associated with transformational leadership, whereas others have shown positive work attitudes such as organizational commitment (Seo et al.,2008) and perceived psychological empowerment (Spreitzer et al., 1999) to positively relate with leaders' charismatic behaviors. A different line of inquiry has considered more deeply engrained values and beliefs, theorizing charismatic leadership behaviors to hinge, for example, on leaders' positive work, leadership, and spiritual values (Klenke, 2005). Supporting such reasoning, Sosik (2005) demonstrated positive relationships between charismatic leadership and various aspects of leaders' value systems (e.g., their traditional, collectivistic, self-transcendent, and self-enhancement values).

LEADERS' MOODS AND EMOTION

Scholars have frequently pointed to the affective qualities of charismatic leadership (Cherulnik et al., 2001; Johnson, 2008; Shamir et al., 1993), arguing that leaders' respective behavior entails an "intense emotional component" (Bass, 1985: 36). Theorists have suggested that positive moods and emotions, in particular, may strengthen charismatic leadership (Ashkanasy and Tse, 2000; Gardner and Avolio, 1998; George, 2000). Recent empirical findings support this notion, linking leaders' charismatic behavior both with the experience and expression of positive feelings. Seo et al. (2008), for instance, demonstrated managers' experienced pleasantness at work to positively relate with transformational leadership. Similarly, an investigation of 34 teams in an automotive company found leaders' self-reported positive mood to positively associate with their charismatic behavior (Walter and Bruch, 2007). Focusing on leaders' affective expressions, two field studies reported in Bono and Ilies (2006) demonstrated charismatic leaders to convey more positive emotions in their vision statements through verbal and nonverbal cues (Awamleh and Gardner, 1999); and Groves (2006) reported a positive relationship between emotional expressivity and visionary leadership in a study of 108 leaders. Finally, Erez et al.,(2008) found leaders' charismatic behavior to positively associate with both the experience and expression of positive affect in a field study of 48 firefighting units, although such leadership was related with leaders' positive affective expressions (but not experiences) in an experimental study. Importantly, research has shown positive and negative affect to constitute largely independent dimensions that trigger differing action tendencies (Watson and Tellegen, 1985). It does not seem viable, therefore, to transfer the linkage between positive affect and charismatic leadership to leaders' negative feelings. Theorizing is much less conclusive with regard to the negative affect–charismatic leadership linkage. Some scholars have suggested intense negative feelings to inhibit leaders' ability to build trusting relations with followers and to harm leaders' charismatic behavior (George, 2000). Others have speculated that "even the most positive or charismatic leaders may use negative emotions (e.g., anger toward out group members) to energize followers" (Bono and Ilies, 2006: Antonakis, 2003). Empirical research has not investigated the consequences of leaders' negative feelings for charismatic leadership to date.

LEADERS' EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

In line with scholars' emphasis on the role of moods and emotions noted in the previous section, leaders' emotional intelligence (EI) has drawn immense attention in charismatic leadership research. It should be noted that the EI literature is characterized by paradigmatic conflicts (Mayer et al.,2008). Ability models, on one hand, define EI as a set of capabilities related to the effective solution of emotional problems (i.e., the perception, utilization, understanding, and management of emotions; (Mayer et al., 2004). Mixed models, on the other hand, conceive of EI more broadly and include a wide array of traits, competencies, and self-perceptions (e.g., social skills, empathy, self-confidence, trait optimism; (Bar-On, 2000; Boyatzis et al.,2000). Such differences notwithstanding, theorizing has argued early on that leaders' ability to recognize and influence followers' emotions is a prerequisite for charismatic leadership (Wasiliewski, 1985). Similarly, more current theorists have suggested EI to strengthen charismatic leadership behavior by enabling leaders to arouse and inspire followers and to create charismatic authority (Ashkanasy and Tse, 2000; George, 2000; Prati et al., 2003; Antonakis, 2003). Empirical research has generally corroborated such theorizing. Charismatic leadership has been associated with self-report measures of both ability-based (Gardner and Stough, 2002; Groves, 2005; Middleton, 2005; Palmer, et al.,2001; Walter and Bruch, 2007) and mixed-model EI (Barbuto and Burbach, 2006; Barling, et al., 2000; Mandell and Pherwani, 2003; Sosik and Megerian, 1999; Brown et al., 2006) in numerous field studies. Furthermore, scholars have shown leaders' EI scores, as derived from performance-based ability tests, to positively associate with transformational leadership behavior (Jin et al.,2008; Leban and Zulauf, 2004; Rubin et al., 2005).

CONTEXTUAL ANTECEDENTS OF CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR

Although contextual antecedents of charismatic leadership have received less research attention, a growing body of literature on such influences has started to emerge. We review this work in the following, focusing on leaders' positional, social, and organizational context, as well as the role of crisis situations and national culture.

POSITIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

The position leaders occupy within the organization may shape their charismatic behavior. Even though research has demonstrated the applicability of such leadership across managerial levels (Bass, 1997), for example, theorists have suggested charismatic behavior to occur more frequently at higher hierarchical echelons (Rainey and Watson, 1996; Shamir and Howell, 1999). Empirical findings are mixed, however. Although recent field studies demonstrated higher-level leaders' charismatic and transformational behaviors to be more pronounced (Block, 2004; Bruch and Walter, 2007; Kane and Tremble, 2000), Lowe et al., (1996) meta-analysis revealed the opposite pattern of results, contrary to the authors' own expectations. Thus, the nature of the relationship between leaders' hierarchical positioning and charismatic behavior remains ambiguous. Other positional characteristics have received sparse research attention. Among the few exceptions is Rubin et al., (2005), who found leaders' span of control to diminish transformational behavior.

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SOCIAL CONTEXT CHARACTERISTICS

A small body of research has investigated leaders' social context as a charismatic leadership antecedent. Scholars have, for instance, considered the prevalence of charismatic leadership in leaders' immediate work environment. Focal leaders' charismatic behavior has been shown to be more pronounced if their direct superiors also exhibit such behavior (Bass et al.,1987). Similarly, Bommer et al., (2004) demonstrated leaders' transformational behavior to be positively associated with peers' respective leadership, with high levels of peer transformational leadership reducing the negative impacts of leaders' cynicism. Hence, there is some evidence that charismatic leadership behavior may cascade down the organizational hierarchy and spread among peers (Waldman and Yammarino, 1999).   In addition, theorists have emphasized followers' roles in shaping charismatic leadership (Howell and Shamir, 2005; Weierter, 1997). Empirical research on this notion is in a nascent state. A study of 54 military units has shown followers' developmental level (e.g., their self-actualization needs and collectivistic orientation) to enhance leaders' transformational behavior (Dvir and Shamir, 2003). Furthermore, Richardson and Vandenberg's (2005) study of 167 work units has demonstrated leaders' perceptions of their followers' capabilities to positively influence transformational leadership.

ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Theorizing on the role of the organizational context for charismatic leadership has provided important ideas, emphasizing, for instance, the potential relevance of organizations' life cycle stage, strategy, technology, structure, and culture (Pawar and Eastman, 1997; Shamir and Howell, 1999). Empirical research, however, is lacking behind this development. In line with previous considerations on the role of the organizational culture, Pillai and Meindl (1998) found leaders' charismatic behavior to be more pronounced in more collectivistic rather than individualistic work units (see also Bass and Avolio, 1993). Furthermore, in terms of organizational structure, Shamir et al.,(2000) found transformational leadership to be more prominent in organic rather than mechanistic military divisions (Singer and Singer, 1990). Sarros et al., (2002) demonstrated employees' ratings of top managers' transformational behavior to negatively associate with employees' perceptions of organizational centralization, whereas there was a positive relation with job specificity and a negative relation with rule observation (with job specificity and rule observation both constituting distinct aspects of formalization). Finally, Walter and Bruch's (in press) study of 125 small- to medium-sized companies' demonstrated transformational leadership to occur more frequently in smaller, decentralized, and sufficiently formalized organizations.

CRISIS SITUATIONS

Focusing on the organization's environment, various scholars have discussed the role of crisis situations as charismatic leadership antecedents. Although early theorists have suggested crises to constitute a prerequisite for charismatic leadership (Weber, 1947), recent scholars generally agree that even though crisis situations may promote such leadership they are not required for its occurrence (Shamir and Howell, 1999). Empirical findings have been inconclusive. House et al., (1991) showed higher behavioral charisma for U.S. presidents who faced substantial external crises. Similarly, Bligh et al., (2004) found President George W. Bush's rhetorical language to contain more charismatic elements after the September 11, 2001, terrorist attacks; and Pillai (1996) found group members to rate their leaders as more charismatic in experimentally induced crisis situations. Bligh et al.,(2004), in contrast, reported charismatic leadership ratings for California's then governor Gray Davis to negatively relate with raters' perception of a crisis in California; and Pillai and Meindl (1998) found followers to rate their direct leaders as exhibiting less charismatic behavior the more their work groups experienced crisis situations.

NATIONAL CULTURE

Finally, although charismatic leadership has been demonstrated in various nations (Bass, 1997), scholars have found that "some characteristics of national culture can influence the emergence" of such leadership (Judge et al., 2006). Typically, this research has examined cultural differences by capturing the degree to which leaders in different countries engage in charismatic behaviors. Singer and Singer (1990), for example, showed transformational rather than transactional leadership to occur more frequently in a sample of New Zealand police officers, whereas there was no such difference in a sample of Taiwanese employees. Also, Javidan and Carl (2004) found transformational leadership behavior to be more pronounced among higher-level managers in Canada than in Iran. More formal research on the national culture–charismatic leadership linkage (i.e., moving beyond using country as a proxy for culture) has not been conducted to date.

SUMMARY

We conclude from this review that a broad literature on the antecedents of charismatic leadership behavior has emerged. A major part of this research has focused on individual antecedents. It seems safe to conclude, for instance, that leaders' personality plays a relevant role, given the large number of studies using different research contexts and methods. Also, leaders' favorable work attitudes and values, positive feelings, and EI have been linked with charismatic leadership in various experimental and field settings. Although this research is less developed than research on personality influences and further studies are required to advance our understanding of these antecedents, it is clear that such factors should be considered to thoroughly explain the development of charismatic leadership behavior. In contrast, the charismatic leadership literature has largely neglected leaders' cognitive ability and demographic characteristics (with the exception of gender). Thus, it seems premature to draw definite conclusions about these potential antecedents.

In spite of significant theoretical developments, empirical research on the contextual antecedents of charismatic leadership behavior has remained limited. Nevertheless, there are important findings on the role of positional, social, organizational, and environmental context factors. Although replication and further research is certainly required to strengthen our confidence in these results, the existing empirical work has generally been able to build on and corroborate previous theorizing, demonstrating that contextual aspects cannot be neglected and deserve further investigation as antecedents of charismatic leadership behavior.

The above review also shows that a piecemeal approach has dominated the antecedent-oriented charismatic leadership literature, with most studies focusing on single types of influencing factors without considering possible interrelations. With few exceptions (Bommer et al., 2004; Hoogh et al.,2005), research on the individual and contextual antecedents of charismatic leadership has exhibited little cross-fertilization. Hence, a theoretical integration of previous work is required to clarify linkages between research areas that have heretofore proceeded in isolation and uncover new research directions. In the following sections, we therefore develop an integrative framework of charismatic leadership behavior emergence.

CONCLUSION

About a decade ago, scholars have lamented that research has largely neglected the origins of charismatic leadership behavior (Conger, 1999; Yukl, 1999). When considering the literature reviewed here, it is clear that this description is not fully adequate any more. The present paper contributes to the leadership literature by providing a comprehensive overview of research on the antecedents of charismatic leadership and theoretically integrating such work. It helps overcome the piecemeal approach that has characterized this line of inquiry and promotes a more inclusive depiction of charismatic leadership behavior emergence.

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