

CHARISMA AND VISION: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY

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Abstract

There appears to be a particular trend in research on charismatic leadership. Most of it subsumes vision within charisma. Some scholars even suggest that it is the vision that leads to the attribution of charisma to the leaders in the first place. However, we think that charisma and vision are two distinct concepts and as such a leader may be charismatic but not visionary, or visionary but not charismatic, both charismatic and visionary, or neither. To us, charisma is an emotion-based construct or a 'heart' thing and charismatic leaders understand their social environment very well and are masters of social skills. Vision, on the other hand, is a competence-based construct, a combination of intellectual ability and experience, largely a 'head' thing.

In this paper, we distinguish between charisma and vision in detail and suggest that some of the confusion clouding the 'new genre' of leadership theories becomes clear once we treat charisma and vision separately. We developed new instruments for measuring the two constructs and examined their effects on motivation, satisfaction, commitment, and performance of followers. Self-reports were obtained from 455 subordinates of 138 managers from 10 companies. Our results suggest that both charisma and vision have two dimensions each and that these dimensions affect the four follower-level outcomes differently. Implications of the findings and directions for future research are discussed.

Keywords: Charisma, Vision, Leadership

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There is a particular trend in research on charismatic leadership; much of it subsumes vision within charisma (Weber, 1968; House, 1977; Bass, 1985; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Avolio & Bass, 1988; House, Spangler & Woycke, 1991). One possible explanation for twining of the two concepts is that many well-known charismatic leaders had powerful visions. And, that is why charisma and vision exist together in our implicit theories on leadership. Some scholars (Weber, 1968; Conger, 1989) even suggest that it is vision that leads to the attribution of charisma to the leaders in the first place.

Conger (1989:92) described charismatic leaders as ‘meaning makers’ and noted that the amount of charisma attributed to a leader increases as the leader’s vision becomes more idealized in the minds of followers. In a review of charismatic leadership literature, O’Connor et al. (1995:530) noted that vision is central to charisma and that “charisma involves the ability to provide a compelling vision”. Similarly, Graham (1991:105) observed that “an ideal leader is visionary, practical and inspirational ... charisma is a term frequently used to describe leaders who possess these ideal qualities”. Sashkin (1988) argued that a charismatic leader articulates a vision for the organization, and this vision, in turn, provides the framework for organisational strategies. Contrary to the views of the above authors, we believe that charisma and vision are two distinct concepts and as such a leader may be charismatic but not visionary, or visionary but not charismatic, or both charismatic and visionary, or neither.

This paper is organized as follows. First, we discuss the confusion in neo-charismatic leadership theories that arose from lumping charisma and vision together into a single construct. Second, we discuss how prominent charismatic, visionary, and transformational leadership theories subsume vision within charisma or vice versa. Third, a number of hypotheses on charisma and vision are presented. In the fourth section, the methods used in the study are discussed. This is followed by discussion of results along with their implications.

Confusion in the neo-charismatic theories of leadership

Shamir, House, and Arthur (1993) and House and Shamir (1993) clubbed charismatic, visionary, and transformational leadership theories together and labeled them as a ‘new genre’ of theories. Shamir, Zakay, and Popper (1998) called them ‘neo-charismatic theories’ because, according to the authors, charisma is a central concept in all of them, either explicitly or implicitly.

House and Shamir (1993) lamented that a major problem concerning this new genre of theories was the lack of a coherent framework into which various versions of charismatic leadership theories could be integrated. We argue that part of this problem lies in combining charisma and vision into a single construct. To us, the three types of leadership theories – charismatic, visionary, and transformational - are distinct. For example, the focus of charismatic leadership should be on charisma and not on vision. Similarly, visionary leadership research should focus on vision, and not assume that a visionary person possesses charisma as well. The transformational leadership theory becomes a special case of our charisma-vision distinction where a leader has high vision and high charisma. By explicitly separating charisma from vision, it becomes possible to place charismatic, visionary, and

transformational theories into a logical framework, give each of them its proper place, and also clarify their relationships with each other.

We believe that our distinction is useful in furthering the understanding of the different notions of charismatic leadership. Yukl (1998:311) has noted: “How to differentiate between positive and negative charismatic leaders has been a problem for leadership theory.” Other scholars argue that charisma has both bright and dark sides (e.g., Graham, 1988; 1990; Shamir, House & Arthur, 1993). Our point is that charisma is a value-neutral entity; it can be put to good use or be misused by leaders. Charisma can be beneficial, if it is used to transform an organization on the brink of bankruptcy. On the other hand, it can be quite destructive if it is used by individuals to achieve their own selfish goals. Charisma in itself is a neutral but powerful tool. It is the vision of the leader that gives charisma expression and direction to either benefit others or create mayhem around them.

Apart from positive versus negative charismatic influences, there is also differentiation between personalized and socialized charismatic leaders (McClelland, 1975; Conger, 1989; 1990). Personalized charismatic leaders use their charisma effectively to achieve their own ends. Socialized charismatic leaders, on the other hand, use the power of their charisma to achieve organizational (or societal) goals. As far as charisma is concerned, both types of leader have charisma and both can be effective in what they want to achieve. Our argument is consistent with Bass’s (1990). He noted: “Charismatics can foster antisocial or prosocial behavior. One cannot exclude one or the other for valid scientific reasons; the dynamics may be similar” (p.187). We believe that what basically distinguishes the personalized and socialized charismatic leaders is the kind of vision they have.

Review of theories on charismatic and visionary leadership

This section has three parts. The first part presents a brief review of the six well-known charismatic theories: Weber’s concept of charisma, House’s theory of charismatic leadership, Conger and Kanungo’s behavioral theory, Shamir, House and Arthur’s self-concept based motivation theory, Meindl’s notion of social contagion, and Bass’s transformational leadership. In the second part, two visionary leadership theories by Sashkin, and Westey and Mintzberg are discussed. In the last section, we summarize the common themes in the charismatic and visionary leadership theories.

Charismatic Theories

Weber (1968) first introduced the concept of charisma, which he defined as “a certain quality of an individual personality by virtue of which he is set apart from ordinary men and treated as endowed with supernatural, superhuman, or at least specifically exceptional powers or qualities” (p241). He saw charismatic leaders as mystical, personally magnetic, and gifted (Avolio & Yammarino, 1990) and these leaders are able to attract committed followers because they have visions or dreams that appeal to the followers. According to Weber, charisma is a God-given gift and an element of crisis is needed to bring out this gift. He subsumed vision within charisma as he defined a charismatic leader as one who possesses eminent visions and the ability to convey these visions to the masses.

House first came up with theory of charismatic leadership in 1977. He argued that charismatic leadership needs to be studied in terms of measurable or testable constructs. Later, House, Spangler, and Woycke (1991) refined House’s original theory of charismatic

leadership and presented a more complete conceptualization of the theory. They defined charismatic leadership in terms of three constituents: (1) effects on followers, (2) leader personality and behavior, and (3) attributions of charisma to leaders by followers and observers. Charismatic leadership is described as an interactive process between followers and their leader in the first constituent. This interaction results in the attraction of followers to the leader and strong internalization of the leader's values and goals by followers. Over time, the followers develop unquestioning acceptance of and commitment to the leader. The followers trust fully in the correctness of the leader's beliefs and are willing to obey the leader. The next constituent involves specific leadership traits and behaviors that give rise to charismatic leadership. The traits that distinguish charismatic leaders from non-charismatic leaders are self-confidence, need to influence, dominance, and strong conviction in the moral rightness of their beliefs. When those traits are combined with behaviors that effectively articulate a vision, inspire followers, appeal to ideological goals of followers, create and maintain a positive image of the leader, and instill confidence in followers, the leader becomes imbued with charisma in the eyes of followers. The last constituent is the degree to which followers attribute special and extraordinary gifts to the leader. Followers attribute a higher level of special gift to a charismatic leader if he or she can excite and transform previously dormant followers into active followers by heightening their motivation to pursue the goals set by the leader and instilling a sense of purpose in them. In House's theory, vision is clearly subsumed within charisma as it assumes the ability to articulate a vision as a requisite for charismatic leadership.

Conger and Kanungo (1987) argue that charismatic leadership is an attributional phenomenon, i.e., whether a leader is considered charismatic or not is the result of attributions made by followers of the leader's behaviors. The authors believe that charismatic leadership, like any other form of leadership, should be considered as an observable behavioral process that can be modeled in theory. Thus, the key issue is to identify behaviors that most likely lead to attributions of charisma to a leader. The extent to which a leader is seen as charismatic depends on the type and intensity of behavior demonstrated by him or her and also the relevance of the behavior to the situation. Conger (1989) further refined the behavioral theory of charismatic leadership to include these themes: (1) the sensing of an opportunity and formulation of a vision, (2) articulation of the vision, (3) building trust in the vision, and (4) achieving the vision. Vision is central to Conger and Kanungo's charismatic leadership theory. The emphasis on vision as an essential ingredient of charisma is much stronger than in the previous two theories where the charismatic leader needs to have the ability to articulate a vision among many other qualities.

Shamir et al. (1993) argued that charismatic leaders strongly engage followers' self concepts in the interest of the mission that has been articulated by the leader. A person's self-concept is composed of personal values and social identities. According to the authors, all the values and social identities are organized hierarchically, such that the more central a value is to a person's self-concept, the more that value will influence the person's choice of behaviors in a particular situation. Similarly, the more important a social identity is, the more likely the person will seek out opportunities to perform his or her role according to the requirements of that identity (Yukl, 1998). By effectively linking followers' self-concepts to the mission, charismatic leaders are able to increase the intrinsic valence of followers' efforts and goals. The authors proposed that the behaviors of charismatic leaders can be neatly clustered into three related, yet separate, categories: (1) *emphasizing ideology* – behaviors that emphasize collective values and ideologies, and that link the mission, goals and expected behaviors to follower's values and ideologies; (2) *emphasizing collective identity* – behaviors that emphasize collective identity of the organization, or the movement and that link the mission

and goals and expected behaviors to this identity; (3) *displaying exemplary behaviors* - leader displaying personal commitment to the values, identities and goals for which he or she stands for and promotes. Shamir et al. (1993) subsume vision within charisma when they propose that charismatic leaders typically demonstrate the ability to articulate an ideological vision that is linked to the followers' self-concepts.

Meindl's (1990) charismatic leadership theory is largely a follower-centered process and is based on the social contagion phenomenon. The author argues that few followers actually come into direct contact with the charismatic leader. Even if there is any direct contact, for many followers, such contact is superficial and cursory. As such the way through which the charismatic movement spreads among followers are the interactions among followers. As the term 'contagion' suggests, the attribution of the leader's charisma is spread from follower to follower. Thus, Meindl argues that traits and behaviors of leaders do not play that important a role in the emergence of charismatic leadership because of the small number of followers who actually come into direct contact with the leader. Rather it is the perceptions of followers on the degree of heroic and larger-than-life images of charismatic leaders that give life to the charisma of leaders. According to Meindl, the inter-follower social contagion process is more relevant in explaining the emergence of charismatic leadership than what the leader actually does or says. Hence, the followers' attributions of charisma are more strongly influenced by their interactions with their peers and other followers, than their individual experience with the leader. It is not clear whether Meindl subsumes vision within charisma, like the above theorists.

The last of the six charismatic theories, Bass's theory (1985) is based on Burns's (1978) theory of transformational leadership. In his theory, Bass like Burns, distinguishes transformational leadership from transactional leadership but Bass views the two forms of leadership not as opposite ends of a continuum but as separate dimensions. According to Bass, a leader can demonstrate both types of leadership at the same time because transactional leadership is assumed to be part and parcel of transformational leadership. Transformational leadership is seen as augmenting transactional leadership. Bass's transformational leadership has four components: (1) idealized influence or charisma, (2) inspirational motivation, (3) individualized consideration, and (4) intellectual stimulation. These components are also conveniently known as the four I's of transformational leadership. The original transformational leadership theory had only three components and did not include 'inspiration'. This dimension was added when Bass and his colleagues re-formulated the theory (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Together, these four I's of transformational leadership interact to influence followers to change or cope with change by means of setting a vision, aligning followers to the vision through effective communication and lastly by motivating and inspiring followers to move toward the vision (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Bass sees *charisma or idealized influence* as central to the transformational leadership process and argues that a charismatic leader "provides vision and sense of mission, instills pride, gains respect and trust" of followers (Bass, 1990:22). Bass defined *inspirational motivation* broadly as a leader's ability to motivate followers by appealing to their desires for vision and meaning (Carey, 1992). Vision, thus, seems to be central to both idealized influence and inspirational motivation dimensions of Bass's transformational leadership.

Visionary Theories

In contrast to theories that emphasize charisma, there are also leadership theories that emphasize vision. According to Sashkin(1988), visionary leaders need to satisfy three critical conditions: (1) personality prerequisites and cognitive skills, (2) understanding of key content dimensions of vision, and (3) ability to articulate the vision. According to the author, a visionary leader should first of all have certain personality qualities that would make him or her a leader, for instance, high need for power, high need for achievement and high self-confidence. He or she should also possess a certain level of intellect to be able to visualise the future and come up with visions for his or her organization. However, not any leader with ideals can be considered a visionary leader. The ability to craft a vision would distinguish a visionary leader from a daydreamer. The visionary leader should understand the properties of a vision that makes it stand out from a pool of ordinary ideas. In addition, a visionary leader must be able to articulate his or her vision effectively to the rest of the organization. Sashkin's visionary leader must not only have the ability to generate visions, but he or she must also have the charisma and communicative skills to articulate the vision and convince followers to believe in the vision.

Westley and Mintzberg (1988) termed their visionary leadership as a sort of drama. The authors proposed that a visionary leader first of all has a vision, then goes on to communicate it to other members of the organization, and then realises it by empowering his or her followers to help him or her achieve the vision. The authors suggested that an alternative image of visionary leadership could be that of a drama and go further with this analogy when they wrote that "Visionary leadership creates drama; it turns work into play". The bulk of Westley and Mintzberg's paper on visionary leadership focused on the rhetoric tools or exercises that a visionary leader could use to help him or her articulate and communicate his or her vision to the followers. Some of the tools mentioned include 'repetition', 'representation', and 'assistance'. This visionary leadership theory assumes that a visionary leader has to be charismatic as well. In fact, a big portion of the theory revolves around the leader's ability to articulate and communicate his or her vision to the followers.

Summary of Charismatic and Visionary Theories

A summary comparison of the eight charismatic and visionary theories is presented in Table 1. One seemingly common theme of all the above leadership theories that have been reviewed above is that they subsume vision within charisma or vice versa. Graham (1991) noted that the concepts of charismatic authority, celebrity charisma, and other charismatic leadership theories all share an assumption that the charismatic leaders are also visionary figures. We would like to point out that the ability to generate a vision is not the same as the ability to 'sell' it. Whereas intelligence, analytical ability, expertise, and knowledge are the main properties of a visionary individual who is able to generate visions (Katz and Kahn, 1978, Peters and Austin, 1985, Simon, 1987; Westley and Mintzberg, 1989; Bryman, 1992; Yukl, 1992), the ability to effectively 'sell' a vision or an idea, on the other hand, has more to do with an individual's rhetorical ability and social skills.

Insert Table 1 about here

Another obvious focus of all the leadership theories is that all of them seem to be spelling a formula for the "perfect" leader; it is just that the emphasis is different in each theory. While the charismatic leadership theories focus on charisma, the visionary leadership theories focus on vision with both groups assuming one concept to subsume the other. Perhaps the reason

theorists combine charisma and vision together is that all of them want to write about great leadership and great leadership is likely to need both charisma and vision to make it possible. Doing so, however, may confound our understanding of the two vital constructs.

Although most theorists have somewhat listed out the qualities or characteristics of leaders with charisma, for instance, good communication skills, each theory looked at charisma from a different angle. For example, Conger and Kanungo (1987), Meindl (1990), and Shamir and his colleagues (1993) saw charisma more as an attribution phenomenon, with Meindl focusing his theory most explicitly as a follower-centered one. House (1977), on the other hand, focused on the effects that charismatic leaders have on their followers in addition to the traits and behaviours of charismatic leaders. Thus, while Conger and Kanungo's and Meindl's concepts of charisma would be better at explaining why some individuals are perceived by others to be charismatic and why some are not, Weber's and House's conception of charisma would be more useful if we want to identify the personal characteristics of charismatic leaders that distinguish them from non-charismatic individuals. As such, there has not been a convergence in the definition of what charisma is. We feel that there is a need to derive a convergent definition from all these theories. As for vision, the above leadership theories have not considered explicitly what it takes to be a visionary leader.

Our idea of charisma is more consistent with the concept of charisma proposed by House and his colleagues, Shamir and his colleagues, Bass, and Sashkin. Unlike Conger and Kanungo, Meindl, and Westley and Mintzberg, we think that charisma is not a purely attributional phenomenon, that is, based solely on the leader's behaviours and the perceptions of followers. While we agree with the above researchers that charisma has a significant attributional component, we feel that there are 'real' charismatic traits, behaviors, and effects that a leader could actively exercise and control in order to influence followers. The notion of charisma proposed by Conger and Kanungo, Meindl, and Westley and Mintzberg, seems to suggest that charismatic leaders are just 'spin-doctors' and that charisma is primarily attribution. We believe that such a focus detracts from the amount of active influence that charismatic leaders have in real life on their followers.

When one wants to examine the role of vision in leadership, a visionary leader should be judged on his/her ability to come up with a vision. Not having the ability to move people with his/her visions does not make the leader less of a visionary. Some scholars (Conger et al., 1997; Kets de Vries, 1998) have suggested that visionary leaders may not be recognised due to their inability to let people know that they have strategic visions because they do not convey them or are not able to 'sell' them or are not able to mobilize followers effectively. As such caution is needed when determining whether a leader is visionary or not, even though we know he/she is not charismatic.

Based on the focus on either charisma or vision, some of the well-known charismatic leadership or visionary leadership theories would actually be more appropriately labelled the other way round as visionary leadership or charismatic leadership theories, respectively. For instance, Conger and Kanungo's behavioural theory of charismatic leadership is so centred on vision that their description of a charismatic leader revolves around the leader being a visionary. Therefore, it maybe more appropriate to rename it as a theory of visionary leadership than a theory of charismatic leadership. Another 'mis-named' theory is Westley and Mintzberg's visionary leadership theory. Their theory centers a lot on the communicative abilities of the leader and how he or she is able to attract followers and reach out to them. It is, in our opinion, more a theory of charismatic leadership than visionary leadership.

As seen in this review, the common practice of including both vision and charisma in charismatic leadership research leads to the inevitable confusing situation and lack of agreement among scholars on what exactly charisma is. We hope through this study to be able to distinguish between charisma and vision and consequently present a more coherent understanding of charismatic and visionary leadership.

HYPOTHESES

We believe that charismatic individuals have a profound ability to understand other people's needs and desires. True charismatics are able to draw a following because they are able to say things in an appealing way that reach out to their followers' innermost desires. Their strength lies in their ability to convey messages in a most convincing manner that charms their followers. Charismatic leaders have very good communication skills and are very interesting and lively. Often charismatic leaders portray themselves as individuals who are not unlike their followers in terms of needs, desires and aspirations, so that the followers can easily identify with their leaders and support their cause. Charismatic leaders evoke emotional effects from their followers.

On the other hand, visionaries are more likely to be intellectually-inclined and deep-thinking individuals. In addition, they possess intuition that is developed through many years of experience and substantial learning. Visionary leaders are intelligent in that they are able to digest and organise a large amount of information into a complex and intricate web of knowledge and from which they develop their vision. Visionaries can find innovative and radical answers to present problems and future ones, which have yet to surface, with their knowledge and analytical ability.

Of course, the best kind of leader would be one who is both charismatic and visionary. Such leaders are often very successful. They have visions and can communicate them successfully to their followers by linking them with the innermost desires of the followers, thus making these visions appealing to the followers and motivating them to work towards the visions.

The reason why past research has almost always assumed that if a leader is charismatic, he/she is also a visionary could be that, most of the leaders that were studied by researchers on were very prominent, successful and effective ones with big followings, e.g., Martin Luther King. These leaders not only had charisma, but also had vision. Consequently, most of the charismatic leadership studies often conclude that in order for a leader to be charismatic, one of the pre-requisites is that he/she must also be visionary (Weber, 1947; House, 1977; Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Conger and Kanungo, 1987). However, we think that these leaders should not be described as merely charismatic but as both charismatic and visionary.

Contrary to Weber's belief, some leadership scholars have suggested that charisma is not exclusive to people at the upper echelons of organisations and that charisma can be found throughout an organisation and in varying degrees among individuals (House, 1977; Bass, 1985; Boal and Bryson, 1987; Conger and Kanungo, 1987; Avolio and Bass, 1988; Hater and Bass, 1988; Yammarino and Bass, 1990; Shamir, House and Arthur, 1993). Avolio and Yammarino (1990) also noted that charisma is not necessarily an either-or phenomenon.

The ability to generate visions may also vary among leaders. Visions are developed from a leader's knowledge, expertise and his/her analysis of the information presented to him/her.

Since the level and amount of knowledge, expertise, experience, analytical ability and creativity that a leader possesses may vary between leaders, it follows that the ability of individual leaders to generate visions should vary as well. In this study, the visions generated by leaders are assumed to be good and beneficial as opposed to those that are detrimental to followers.

We think that the first step in delving deeper into the nature of charisma and vision is to determine the extent to which these two constructs can be isolated. Thus, our first hypothesis is as follows:

Hypothesis 1: Charisma and vision are two distinct constructs and can be separated for analysis.

It is not difficult to see why some of the most common examples of successful and effective leaders are both highly charismatic and visionary. Such leaders have innovative ideas and are not only able to win followers over with their ideas but also able to motivate them to achieve the visions. Roueche et al. (1989) found that vision appeared to be the main catalytic component that allowed transformational leaders to be successful (Hong et al., 1996). Bennis and Nanus (1985), in their study of ninety transformational leaders spanning five years, found that all the effective transformational leaders had a vision of a desirable future for their organization. Several scholars (e.g., Conger et al., 1997; Kets de Vries, 1998) believe that vision without charisma will not result in followership. This arises because followers must first feel committed in their “heart” to the leader before accepting the leader’s vision.

Leaders who are low on both charisma and vision are expected to be the least effective because they do not have great ideas for the organization, nor do they have the ability to convincingly lead and motivate their followers. As for the remaining categories of leaders, they are either visionary but not charismatic or charismatic but not visionary and are expected to be moderately effective. Leaders who are only visionary will not be able to lead and motivate followers towards the vision, while followers of charismatic leaders with no vision may soon realise the ‘incompetence’ of their leaders and lose interest and faith in their leadership. Therefore, we hypothesise that:

Hypothesis 2: The higher the charisma and vision of leaders, the greater the motivation, satisfaction, commitment and performance of followers.

METHODS

Data for this study were collected via a questionnaire. The questionnaire was administered to the subordinates of junior-, middle- and senior-level managers and included measures of leadership (charisma and vision) and outcomes (motivation, satisfaction, commitment and performance/output). We used a six-point Likert scale format throughout the questionnaire.

Measures of Charisma and vision

The measures of charisma and vision for this study were first developed in a number of executive workshops on leadership over a period of two years. Supervisors, middle- and senior-level managers who attended the workshops were asked to give five descriptions each of charisma and vision. The descriptions thus generated in various workshops were later cross-referenced with charismatic and visionary leadership literature [e.g., the C-K scale of

charismatic leadership (Conger, Kanungo, Menon and Mathur, 1997)] to develop two sets of descriptive statements: 20 indicators/statements for charisma and 30 indicators/statements for vision.

The measure of charisma can be sub-divided into traits, behaviours, and effects. There have been critiques (e.g., Shamir et al., 1998) that the measures for charisma, e.g. MLQ, are often confounded because they include both traits/behaviours and effects pertaining to charisma. The way to eliminate this problem is to measure charisma in terms of its behaviours and effects separately (Shamir et al., 1998). However, we recognise that in order to examine charisma in its entirety, both the traits and behaviours, and effects of charisma have to be taken into consideration. In our measure, we have included indicators of traits and behaviours of charismatic leaders, as well as indicators of effects of leaders on their followers.

The measure of vision included indicators such as vast knowledge, experience, judgement, future-orientation, analytical ability, intelligence, originality, sensitivity to the external business environment, foresight, strategic thinking, and understanding of complex situations.

Outcomes

The ability of leaders to influence their followers has been measured on the following dimensions – satisfaction with leadership, commitment to work for the leader, motivation to perform under the leader, and performance of the unit as compared to other units in the organization both quantitatively and qualitatively. The items/indicators were adapted from studies by Smith (1976), Porter et al. (1974), Shamir et. al (1998), and Van de Ven and Ferry (1980).

Background information

In the last section of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to provide background information about the supervisor/manager that they evaluated for the study and personal particulars of the respondents themselves. For instance, respondents were asked to state the name of the supervisor/manager they rated, the job title of their boss, the number of people in the unit being supervised by their superior, the respondent's age, gender, education level, and number of years working with the superior. However, respondents were not required to reveal their names in the questionnaire. Their responses were confidential and anonymous. It was crucial that respondents revealed the name of the supervisor/manager rated because more than one person was evaluating a superior and this information was the only way to help us determine consistency in scores for each supervisor/manager.

Research design and data collection

Three batches of cover letters with a copy of the questionnaire were sent out to a number of organisations explaining the aim and purpose of the research and to solicit their participation in the study. The Singapore 1000 directory was used to short-list the companies. The directory lists the top 1000 companies in Singapore in terms of sales/output. We wrote letters to the heads (e.g., the managing director, chief executive officer, or the general manager) of 450 companies from three sectors: multi-industry, communications and transportation, and manufacturing. Telephone calls were made to each company after two weeks of sending out the letters. This was to check if the companies had received the letters and if, yes, whether they were interested in participating in the study.

A total of 10 companies participated in the study. Five companies were from the communications and transportation sector, one from the multi-industry sector, and four from the manufacturing sector. In all, 455 subordinates rated 138 managers/supervisors.

After the companies had agreed to participate in the study, we requested copies of organisational charts to determine the number of leaders/managers in each organisation. We would deliver the requisite number of questionnaires to our contact person-cum-co-ordinator in the organization. The contact person would keep in touch with us and help in distributing and collecting the questionnaires. At each meeting with the contact person, we would explain and highlight the aims of the study and answer any queries he/she might have, for instance, the number of subordinates to evaluate each manager/supervisor, anonymity of respondents, and the non-disclosure of company's and leaders' names in the final report. Due to the potential sensitivity of the study (subordinates rating their superiors), a questionnaire return box, labelled with the university name and logo, was provided for respondents to return their completed questionnaires discreetly. This was to help ensure truthful and candid responses from the respondents and encourage a high response rate.

The mean age of the respondents was 36 years, with a minimum of 19 years and a maximum of 59 years. 61.5% of the respondents were male, 70% were married, 28.4% were single and 1.6% were divorced. 43.2% of the respondents had less than a diploma education with 33% of the total sample with 'O' levels. 56.8% of the respondents had at least a diploma with 24.7% of the total sample with a diploma, 27.1% with a degree, and 5% of respondents with a post-graduate degree. 95% of the respondents were Singaporeans.

The largest number of respondents, 27.4%, was from the production/operations department. The sales/marketing department with 15.5% of the respondents was the second largest. 8.2% of the respondents were from the accounts and finance department, 6.6% from administration, 5.7% from the human resources, 5.5% from information technology, and 1.1% from the research and development department.

The average work experience of respondents in the present company was 7 years. 65% of the respondents had worked in their present organisation for more than 3 years. The average number of years that a subordinate had worked with his/her present boss was about 3 years and 41% of the respondents had worked with their current boss for three years or more.

The average work experience of the respondents was fourteen years. Less than 5% of the respondents had less than two years of working experience. Considering that the respondents in the sample have sufficient work experience, we expect that the respondents in our sample had a good understanding of the general working environment and many would have had experience working with different kinds of people.

In all, 138 managers were evaluated by their subordinates, meaning that each manager was rated by about three to four subordinates. The 138 managers range in age from 23 years to 61 years with the average age of 40 years. Majority of the managers (70%) was over the age of 35 years. About half of the managers evaluated (50.1%) were in the middle management, 36.3% in the junior management, and 13.6% in the senior management.

RESULTS

To test the first hypothesis that charisma and vision were separate, distinguishable constructs, we subjected the charisma and vision scales to factor analysis using the principal component method with varimax rotation. All 50 items, twenty for charisma and thirty for vision, were included in the analysis. Eight factors emerged from the factor analysis. However the last four factors contained only one or two items. 'Has an air about him/her' was the only item in factor eight, 'Is able to effectively convey his/her message to others at their level of understanding' was the only item in factor seven. Factor six comprised of both items measuring intuition, and the two items in factor five consisted of the two vision items. The items in these four factors were deleted and factor analysis was run again on the remaining items. Four factors emerged from the analysis. We deleted more items that did not clearly load on a single factor.

The results of our final factor analysis are presented in Table 2. The four factors explained 67.3% of the variance in the ratings of managers. The two vision factors, with nine indicators each, that emerged were very clear factors. One factor described the leader's expertise, knowledge and his/her ability to solve problems and think analytically. We labelled it as *expert and analytical*. The second factor measures the leader's visionary ability, such as whether the leader has a vision or not, is a strategic thinker, thinks long term, and is able to foresee future business trends, and is able to readily recognise environmental opportunities. This factor was labelled as *visionary and futuristic*. Two charisma factors, with six indicators each, also emerged. The first factor pertains to the leader's ability to relate and interact effectively with people, for instance, good social skills, ability to relate to others, to understand moods of subordinates, and sensitive to the feelings of subordinates and it was labelled as *socially sensitive*. The other charismatic factor comprised of charismatic traits of the leader, e.g., charm, rhetorical skills, dynamic personality and ability to command attention and it was labelled as *charismatic-traits*. Thus, the results of factor analysis suggested that charisma and vision are independent constructs and that each construct has two dimensions.

Factor analysis was also performed on outcome measures. Four clear factors emerged in the analysis, namely those that pertain to satisfaction of subordinates with the leader, subordinates' motivation to perform under the superior's leadership, subordinates' commitment to the unit or leader, and the performance/output of each unit under the superior's leadership (see Table 3).

Table 4 shows descriptive statistics and scale reliabilities. Cronbach alpha for charisma and vision dimensions ranged from .86 to .94. Similarly, four outcome measures showed satisfactory reliabilities; cronbach alpha was between .70 and .80. The mean scores on four leadership dimensions suggest that managers in Singapore were highest on *expert and analytical dimension* (mean, 4.46) and lowest on *charismatic traits* (mean, 3.99). Further, performance/output level of the unit (mean, 4.70) was higher than motivation level of subordinates (mean, 3.97).

Correlations in Table 4 indicated that charisma and vision dimensions were significantly positively related to each other. *Socially sensitive* was correlated with *expert and analytical* (.71) and *visionary and futuristic* (.64) dimensions of vision. Similarly *Charismatic traits* had quite significant positive correlations, .72 and .77, with the two respective visionary dimensions. The two vision dimensions had a correlation coefficient of .81.

Next we examined the relationships between the leadership dimensions and outcomes. We performed three types of analyses: multiple linear regression, ANOVA, and Lisrel confirmatory factor analysis. The objective of using multiple analytical strategies was to achieve as comprehensive an understanding as possible of the relationships among the various constructs.

The results of multiple regression are presented in Table 5. In the first step, we entered three control variables. We felt that the amount of work experience, education level, and the type of department (accounting, production, IT, or marketing) may influence leadership and outcome variables and their relationships. Since education level and type of department were categorical variables, we computed appropriate dummy variables. Two visionary dimensions and two charismatic dimensions of leadership were entered in step 2 of multiple regression. While *socially sensitive* had the strongest associations with motivation (beta=.36, $p<.001$), *expert and analytical* had the weakest association with motivation (beta=.12, $p<.10$). *Socially sensitive* dimension also showed the strongest relationship with satisfaction (beta=.22, $p<.01$). *Charismatic traits* showed no relationship with satisfaction. The two visionary constructs had statistically significant positive association with satisfaction. The *Charismatic traits* and *visionary and futuristic leadership* constructs were positively related with commitment ($p<.05$). But *socially sensitive* and *expert and analytical leadership* constructs had no effect on commitment. Only the *expert and analytical* construct had a significant positive relationship with output or performance level of subordinates (beta = .19; $p<.01$). Since the four leadership constructs were highly correlated, we computed variance-inflation-factor scores to test for the possible multi-collinearity problem. The variance-inflation-factor scores of independent variables were less than 5.15, well below the acceptable threshold of 10. Thus, multi-collinearity was not a problem.

Results of the ANOVA analysis are shown in Table 6. All the four leadership constructs affected motivation, with the *socially sensitive* dimension having the greatest impact and the *expert and analytical* construct the least. *Charismatic traits* showed no relationship with satisfaction. *Visionary and futuristic* and *charismatic traits* had significant positive relationship with commitment. Both the visionary constructs were significantly associated with output of subordinates. In addition, ANOVA analysis indicated significant interaction effects. The interpretation of interactive effects is as follows.

First, we observed two significant interaction effects on motivation: one two-way interaction between the two charisma constructs and one three-way interaction between charismatic traits and the two vision constructs. Mean scores on motivation for these two interactions are presented in Table 7. When both charisma dimensions were low, motivation was the least (mean, 3.40). When one of them was high and the other low, the mean scores showed a significant increase in motivation level. The highest mean score of 4.64, when both constructs were high, suggests that the two charismatic constructs influenced motivation over and above their additive linear effects. In other words, there was a significant synergetic effect. Similarly, three-way interactions indicated a synergetic effect. When charismatic traits and the two vision constructs were all high, they influenced motivation over and above their additive linear effects.

Two charismatic dimensions also showed significant interaction on employee commitment. Mean scores on two dimensions are provided in Table 8. The commitment level was the lowest (mean, 3.93) when leaders were high only *social sensitivity*. The commitment level shot up (mean, 4.59) when leaders were high on both *social sensitivity* and *charismatic traits*.

There was one significant three-way interaction between the *socially sensitive* construct of charisma and the two constructs of vision with output as the dependent variable. The mean scores of the three-way interaction terms are presented in Table 9. When only one of the three constructs was high, output level did not show any significant increase. As long as any two of the constructs were high, output was high. There was minimal increase in output when all three constructs were high. Thus, it would seem that the three constructs could be substituted for each other without affecting output as long as two of them were high.

Next we used Lisrel confirmatory factor analysis to simultaneously test the significance of all the hypothesized relationships and their fit against the data in a structural model (Figure 1). The final model had acceptable fit indices (GFI = .84; AGFI = .83) considering the large number of factor items (total of 46 items) in the model.

An examination of the four independent visionary and charisma constructs in the model showed that all of them were related to each other with phi coefficients ranging from .47 to .64. The highest phi relationship was observed between the two vision constructs. The sizeable coefficients showed that vision and charisma were indeed highly related to each other as past researchers have correctly believed to be so, although they were clearly distinguishable from one another.

Next, the impact of vision and charisma on follower motivation, commitment and satisfaction was examined. Only *visionary and futuristic* and *socially sensitive* had significant impact on follower-level outcomes. *Visionary and futuristic* predicted follower motivation (gamma =.26) and commitment (gamma =.35) and *socially sensitive* predicted follower motivation (gamma =.62) and satisfaction (gamma =.40). *Charismatic traits* predicted satisfaction at a slightly lower significant level (gamma = .17; $t > 1.91$). The role of both vision and charisma in predicting these follower constructs again affirmed the importance of both vision and charisma for better leadership. Although *expert and analytical* dimension of visionary leadership did not have any direct significant relationships with the three follower constructs, its influence was nevertheless there, through the other three dimensions: *visionary and futuristic*, *socially sensitive*, and *Charismatic traits*.

The three follower-level constructs of motivation, commitment and satisfaction were significantly related to each other with psi coefficients ranging from .12 to .17. In addition, follower motivation and commitment predicted performance/output with beta coefficients of .33 and .61, respectively. The larger beta impact of follower commitment to performance vis-à-vis motivation to performance revealed the importance of commitment rather than motivation in bringing about performance outcomes. Follower satisfaction did not have any significant relationship with performance outcome.

DISCUSSION

The major thesis of this study was that charisma and vision are two independent constructs and that leaders have to have both charisma and vision to achieve motivated, satisfied, committed, and high performing followers. Broadly, the evidence revealed here supported this thesis. In addition to clearly separating vision and charisma as constructs, the results also indicated that both vision and charisma were both composed of two distinct sub-dimensions. The first charisma construct reflected the importance of social skills and the ability of the leader to relate with and get along with subordinates while the second construct reflected distinctive characteristics of a charismatic leader such as charm, dynamism, and gift of the gab. Thus, these results showed that charisma encompasses both charismatic behaviours and

traits. The findings are consistent with the view of House et al (1991) and many other authors that charisma has an innate side to it. This aspect coupled with the behavioral side of charisma through communicating and influencing others bring about a larger than life image of the leader who can motivate followers and create greater commitment and satisfaction in them.

Similarly vision also had two constructs, one pertaining to the expertise and analytical ability of leaders and the other to the visionary and futuristic orientation of the leader. From the two vision factors, it can be seen that not only expertise, good judgement, intelligence and analytical ability were important requisites for vision but also a certain ability to visualise the future and think strategically were equally critical for an individual to be considered visionary.

The expertise and analytical skills factor had the highest mean score (mean, 4.46), followed by social sensitivity, futuristic orientation (mean, 4.20 for both), and charismatic traits (mean, 3.99). The mean scores on the four leadership constructs indicate that Singapore managers generally are rated higher in terms of expertise, followed by their ability to build good relationships with subordinates and their future orientation, and lastly their charismatic traits. This could mean that managers in Singapore are viewed as analytical leaders but not so much as charismatic ones by their subordinates. Or maybe that the emphasis of Singaporeans when developing their leadership qualities is not on enhancing charismatic traits or that charismatic traits to subordinates are not critical attributes in a good leader.

We analyzed the relationships between four dimensions of leadership with four outcomes using three techniques. The objective was to understand the above relationships thoroughly from various perspectives. Our analysis suggests that social sensitivity of the managers has strong effect on motivation and satisfaction levels of subordinates but no significant impact on their commitment and output levels. Charismatic traits have somewhat modest direct effects on motivation and commitment levels of subordinates. On the visionary side of the leadership, expertise and analytical ability of the leaders had modest effects on three outcomes, motivation, satisfaction, and output but no significant effect on commitment. It was the visionary and futuristic orientation of leaders that clearly affected motivation, satisfaction, and commitment levels of subordinates. Further, Lisrel analysis suggested that the four leadership dimensions affected the output levels of subordinates via greater motivation and commitment from their subordinates. Results from latter analysis are especially intuitively appealing as they showed how the four leadership dimensions worked through followers' internal psychological processes to drive their performance.

Our final ANOVA analyses provided evidence that there are synergetic effects between vision and charisma on follower motivation, commitment, satisfaction and performance outcomes. The two charismatic dimensions enhanced each other's effect greatly on motivation and commitment levels of subordinates. Further, charismatic traits, expert and analytical ability, and future visioning ability enhanced each other's effect on motivation levels of subordinates. These synergistic effects point to the power of charismatic leadership on followers when charisma is combined with powerful vision to influence followers.

IMPLICATIONS

So what if charisma and vision are distinct concepts? We can think of a number of important implications as a result of viewing charisma and vision separately. First, high charisma is relatively uncommon. Similarly, high vision is also relatively rare. Thus, the likelihood or

probability of the same person possessing high levels of both attributes is small. Should we try to find managers or leaders who are high on both charisma and vision to lead our organizations? We think that there is an easier way to achieve high visionary and charismatic leadership. It can be achieved by forming a top management team that has an appropriate mix of charismatic and visionary managers. Visionary managers can provide the vision/direction and charismatics can communicate and implement it.

Second, there is a great danger in assuming that charismatic leaders have visions too. Our conservative guess is that for every charismatic leader with 'good' vision, we can find at least one charismatic leader with 'bad' vision. So, by not distinguishing charisma from vision, and by subsuming vision within charisma, we are getting into a wrong trap.

Third, assuming a visionary as charismatic is also problematic. We can find numerous cases in organizations of people being promoted to leadership positions based on their technical brilliance. The assumption is that technically competent people would be good leaders. We think that this is not always a correct assumption. Technical expertise (or vision) and interpersonal competence (or charisma) are two different things. "Many bright, able, and technically proficient individuals fail as leaders because they lack interpersonal competence" (Bass, 1990:109).

Fourth, we believe that both charisma and vision can be acquired. A manager who is sensitive to the social environment and pays attention to the needs and values of his or her subordinates can assume a certain degree of charisma. Over time, he or she can actually become quite good in providing charismatic leadership. Similarly, there is nothing in our definition of vision which suggests that vision is an in-born thing. Vision is based on knowledge and experience, and both knowledge and experience can be acquired. However, it would take years and years of hard work to acquire charisma and vision the way it takes many years of hard work to master a language. Both family and school need to provide opportunities and a wide variety of situations/problems for developing charisma and vision right from childhood. For example, Gibbons (1986) found that leaders who were rated by their immediate followers as highly transformational, reported in retrospective interviews that their parents provided them with difficult challenges but also supported their efforts whether they resulted in success or failure.

Fifth, some scholars (e.g. Conger and Kanungo) have suggested that the ability of a leader to generate visions may result in the leader being perceived as charismatic or result in the attribution of charisma to a leader. If this were true, then distinguishing between vision and charisma could allow us to study the possible dynamics of how vision may result in charisma or even how the perception of charisma may lead to the perception of vision.

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TABLE 2: FACTOR ANALYSIS OF CHARISMA AND VISION ITEMS

| | Factor1 | Factor2 | Factor3 | Factor4 |
|---|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Socially sensitive | | | | |
| Has good social skills (C1). | .687 | .387 | .196 | .200 |
| Often understands the mood of his/her subordinates (C2). | .841 | -.072 | .302 | .109 |
| Is quite interesting/lively (C3). | .719 | .329 | .252 | .227 |
| Is sensitive to the needs and feelings of others (C5). | .805 | .106 | .344 | .101 |
| Is able to relate to others (C14). | .679 | .425 | .243 | .330 |
| Is an optimistic person (CV2). | .706 | .239 | .322 | .337 |
| Charismatic traits | | | | |
| Commands our attention through his/her actions or words (C7). | .187 | .708 | .411 | .103 |
| Is persuasive (C11). | .472 | .586 | .270 | .467 |
| Has the gift of the gab (C12). | .397 | .617 | -.038 | .483 |
| Almost always displays dynamism, energy, and enthusiasm (C18). | .479 | .606 | .319 | .495 |
| Makes me perform something purely by his or her words (C19). | -.071 | .737 | .165 | .223 |
| Is charismatic (C20). | .389 | .548 | .123 | .337 |
| Expert and analytical | | | | |
| Has the ability to understand complex situations quickly (V1). | .384 | .116 | .630 | .346 |
| Is highly intelligent (V3). | .343 | .131 | .614 | .339 |
| Has good judgement (V6). | .454 | .138 | .608 | .310 |
| Often knows exactly what needs to be done to solve a problem (V7). | .387 | .161 | .665 | .288 |
| Often knows the implications of decisions on the business (V12). | .187 | .308 | .645 | .312 |
| Has broad knowledge in his/her field and beyond (V15). | .214 | .143 | .721 | .393 |
| Has the capacity to assess situations wisely and draw sound conclusions (V16). | .399 | .171 | .619 | .429 |
| Is an expert in his or her field (V24). | .174 | .115 | .762 | .290 |
| Knows the workings of the business very well (V30). | .235 | .232 | .666 | .365 |
| Visionary and futuristic | | | | |
| Has vision (V18). | .226 | .329 | .397 | .679 |
| Is innovative (V19). | .242 | .215 | .380 | .692 |
| Thinks long-term.(V20) | .217 | .066 | .341 | .713 |
| Is always tuned to the latest changes and developments in the business environment (V22). | .254 | .208 | .447 | .607 |
| Likes to imagine the future & often thinks about the possibilities for the future (V25). | .177 | .134 | .211 | .741 |
| Is able to foresee future business trends (V26). | .161 | .115 | .392 | .763 |
| Is a strategic thinker (V27). | .201 | .129 | .373 | .747 |
| Readily recognises new environmental opportunities (V28). | .268 | .187 | .322 | .724 |
| Dares to be different and unconventional (V29). | .321 | .222 | .221 | .565 |

TABLE 3 : FACTOR ANALYSIS OF PERFORMANCE MEASURES

| | Factor 1 | Factor 2 | Factor 3 | Factor4 |
|--|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Motivation | | | | |
| The way I am treated by my boss has a favourable influence on my overall attitude toward my job (E4). | .002 | -.057 | .090 | .805 |
| The supervision I receive is the kind that greatly encourages me to give extra effort (E6). | .216 | .443 | .043 | .668 |
| The people in my unit are very motivated to perform under the supervision of my boss (E9) . | .306 | .400 | .093 | .645 |
| Satisfaction | | | | |
| I often feel that I would be better off working under different supervision (E2R). | -.032 | .757 | -.016 | .360 |
| Sometimes I regret that I am working in my current unit (E5R). | .175 | .802 | .079 | .064 |
| If I could, I would very much like to transfer to another unit to work (E8R). | .093 | .749 | .059 | .166 |
| I am not particularly proud to tell people that I belong to this unit (E12R). | .180 | .592 | .230 | -.086 |
| Commitment | | | | |
| I identify strongly with the colleagues of my unit (E1). | .658 | .161 | .063 | .081 |
| The values of most people in my unit are similar to mine (E3). | .766 | .146 | .181 | .067 |
| My unit is like a family to me (E7). | .743 | .282 | .184 | .106 |
| I feel loyal towards the colleagues in my unit (E11). | .688 | -.150 | .042 | -.028 |
| People in my unit enjoy working together (E13). | .706 | .167 | .186 | .233 |
| Performance/Output | | | | |
| Compared to other units, I would rate my unit as more effective overall (E15). | .439 | .251 | .461 | .300 |
| In relation to other comparable units, how did your unit rate in terms of quantity or amount of work produced in the past year? (E16A) | .106 | .041 | .910 | -.008 |
| In relation to other comparable units, how did your unit rate in terms of quality of work produced in the past year? (E16B) | .270 | .154 | .822 | .155 |

TABLE 4: MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, CORRELATIONS, AND SCALE RELIABILITIES (IN DIAGONALS)

| Variables | Mean | s.d. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
|---------------------------|------|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-----|
| 1. Socially sensitive | 4.20 | .86 | .88 | | | | | | | |
| 2. Charismatic traits | 3.99 | .81 | .71** | .86 | | | | | | |
| 3. Expert & Analytical | 4.46 | .82 | .71** | .72** | .94 | | | | | |
| 4. Visionary & Futuristic | 4.20 | .87 | .64** | .77** | .81** | .94 | | | | |
| 5. Motivation | 3.97 | .95 | .67** | .63** | .62** | .63** | .70 | | | |
| 6. Satisfaction | 4.36 | 1.05 | .45** | .42** | .47** | .44** | .49** | .76 | | |
| 7. Commitment | 4.30 | .80 | .22** | .28** | .23** | .30** | .39** | .32** | .80 | |
| 8. Performance/Output | 4.70 | .73 | .27** | .31** | .33** | .34** | .37** | .35** | .53** | .75 |

** p<.01; * p<.05

TABLE 5 : RESULTS OF MULTIPLE LINEAR REGRESSION ANALYSIS

| Independent Variable | Standardised coefficients (Beta) | | | |
|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------------|
| | Motivation | Satisfaction | Commitment | Performance/ Output |
| STEP 1: Control Variables | | | | |
| Constant | 3.33*** | 4.27*** | 4.05*** | 5.00*** |
| Type of Department (Dummy) | | | | |
| Accounting | -.08 | -.05 | .04 | .03 |
| Admin./Finance/HR | .00 | .04 | -.02 | -.11 [†] |
| Production/Marketing | .07 | .01 | .14* | -.00 |
| IT/R&D | -.14** | -.17** | .07 | -.14* |
| Education Level (Dummy) | | | | |
| ‘A’ levels | .26*** | .15* | .02 | -.01 |
| ‘O’ levels | .26* | .15 | .00 | -.17 |
| Degree | .30** | .12 | -.04 | -.18 [†] |
| Working Experience | .10 [†] | -.07 | .10 [†] | -.00 |
| STEP 2: Leadership | | | | |
| Socially sensitive | .36*** | .22** | .06 | -.01 |
| Charismatic traits | .18** | .03 | .16* | .10 |
| Expert and analytical | .12 [†] | .15 [†] | -.00 | .19** |
| Visionary and futuristic | .17** | .16* | .16* | .10 |
| R ² (step 1) | .08*** | .04* | .04* | .04* |
| R ² change (step 2) | .50*** | .23*** | .11*** | .11*** |

*** p<.001; ** p<.01; * p<.05; [†] p<.10

TABLE 6 : ANOVA RESULTS OF LEADERSHIP AND OUTCOME VARIABLES

| | Factors/Variables | F-value | Sig. F | R ² (model) |
|--------------|---------------------------------|---------|--------|------------------------|
| Motivation | Socially sensitive (Charis1) | 30.679 | .000 | .365 |
| | Charismatic traits (Charis2) | 14.889 | .000 | |
| | Expert and analytical (Vis1) | 6.015 | .015 | |
| | Visionary and futuristic (Vis2) | 13.387 | .000 | |
| | Charis1*Charis2 | 3.738 | .054 | |
| | Charis2*Vis1*Vis2 | 5.254 | .022 | |
| | Model F=18.029 (.000) | | | |
| Satisfaction | Socially sensitive (Charis1) | 7.048 | .008 | .184 |
| | Charismatic traits (Charis2) | .734 | .392 | |
| | Expert and analytical (Vis1) | 10.969 | .001 | |
| | Visionary and futuristic (Vis2) | 6.944 | .009 | |
| | Model F=6.953 (.000) | | | |
| Commitment | Socially sensitive (Charis1) | .019 | .890 | .104 |
| | Charismatic traits (Charis2) | 3.663 | .056 | |
| | Expert and analytical (Vis1) | 1.341 | .248 | |
| | Visionary and futuristic (Vis2) | 10.113 | .002 | |
| | Charis1*Charis2 | 5.546 | .019 | |
| | Model F=4.616 (.000) | | | |
| Output | Socially sensitive (Charis1) | 2.124 | .146 | .112 |
| | Charismatic traits (Charis2) | 2.203 | .139 | |
| | Expert and analytical (Vis1) | 4.292 | .039 | |
| | Visionary and futuristic (Vis2) | 4.126 | .043 | |
| | Charis1*Vis1*Vis2 | 3.739 | .054 | |
| | Model F=4.026 (.000) | | | |

TABLE 7: MOTIVATION LEVELS RESULTING FROM TWO-WAY AND THREE-WAY INTERACTIONS (NUMBER OF CASES IN PARENTHESES)

| | | Two-way interaction | | Three-way interaction | | | |
|---------|------|---------------------|---------------|-----------------------|------|---------------|---------------|
| | | Charis1 | | Vis1 | | | |
| | | Low | High | Low | High | | |
| Charis2 | Low | 3.40 (155) | 3.85 (55) | Vis2 | Low | 3.29 (125) | 3.82 (20) |
| | | | | | High | 3.73 (27) | 3.93 (31) |
| | High | 3.81 (48) | 4.64 (153) | | Low | 4.04 (27) | 3.97 (20) |
| | | | | | High | 4.23 (25) | 4.65 (129) |

TABLE 8: COMMITMENT RESULTING FROM TWO-WAY INTERACTIONS (NUMBER OF CASES IN PARENTHESES)

| | | Charis1 | |
|---------|------|---------------|---------------|
| | | Low | High |
| Charis2 | Low | 4.12 (154) | 3.93 (52) |
| | High | 4.17 (48) | 4.59 (151) |

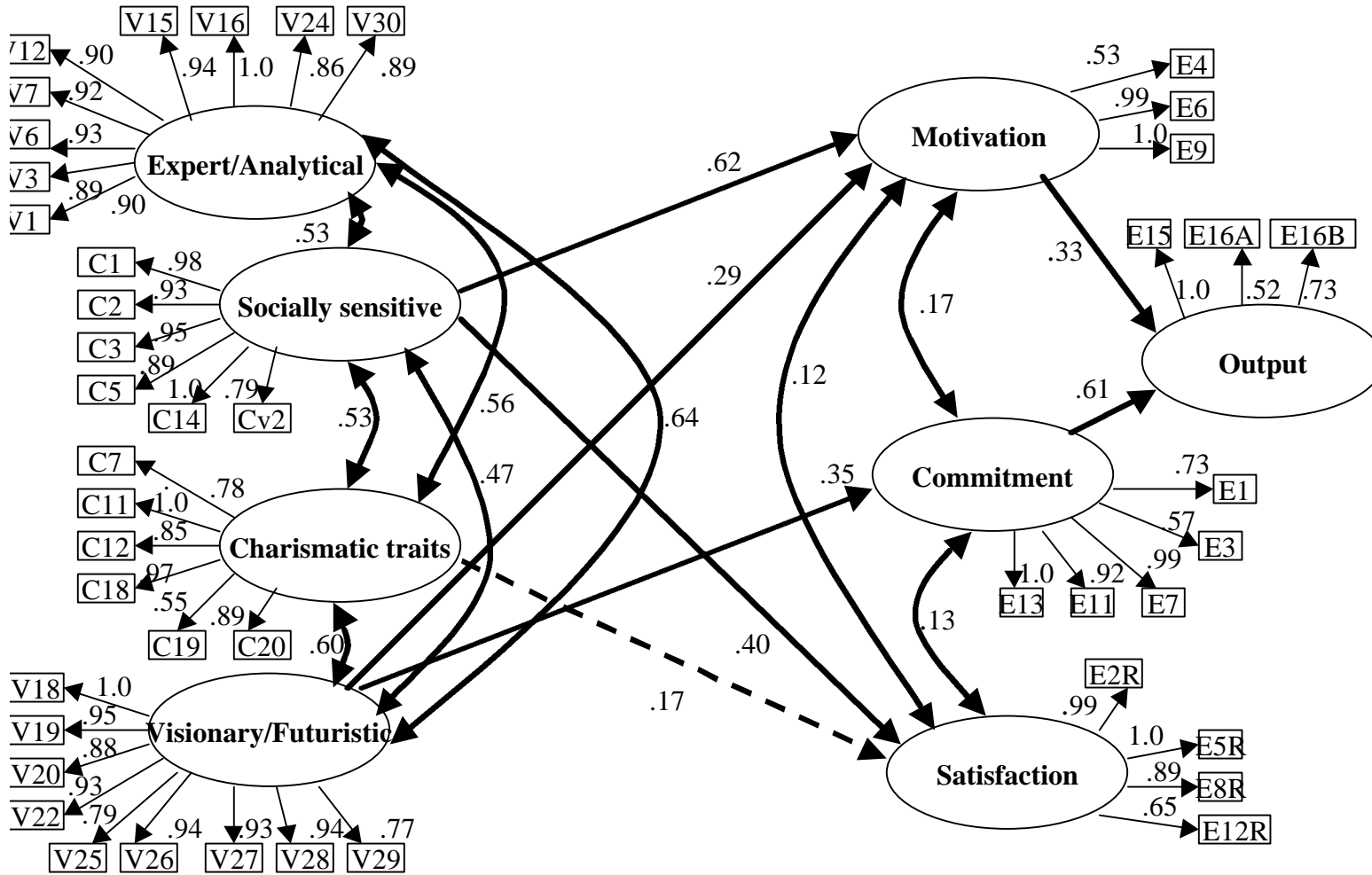
TABLE 9: PERFORMANCE/OUTPUT RESULTING FROM THREE-WAY INTERACTIONS (NUMBER OF CASES IN PARENTHESES)

| | | | | |
|---------|------|-------------|---------------|---------------|
| | | Vis1 | | |
| | | Low | High | |
| Charis1 | Low | Vis2 Low | 4.46 (126) | 4.47 (20) |
| | | High | 4.52 (27) | 4.88 (31) |
| | High | Low | 4.49 (37) | 4.83 (22) |
| | | High | 4.83 (24) | 5.02 (122) |

TABLE 1: SUMMARY OF CHARISMATIC AND VISIONARY LEADERSHIP THEORIES

| | <u>Charismatic Leadership Theories</u> | | | | | | <u>Visionary Leadership Theories</u> | |
|--|--|--|---|---|---|---|--|---|
| | Weber (1947) | House and colleagues (1990) | Conger and Kanungo (1987) | Shamir, House and Arthur (1993) | Meindl (1990) | Bass and colleagues (1994) | Sashkin (1988) | Westley and Mintzberg (1989) |
| Subsume vision with charisma and vice versa? | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Not explicitly | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Charisma as value-neutral? | Yes | No | No | No | No | Yes/no | No | No |
| Charismatic leadership an interactive process? | - | Yes | Yes | Yes | No | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| How charisma is studied? | God-given; trait-based | Leader's traits, behaviours, and effects on followers | Behaviours of leaders; charisma as an attribution | Self-concepts of followers; leader behaves in a way that links to self-concepts | Social contagion – follower-centred, charisma purely attribution | Dimensions of transformational leadership; traits and behaviours | Personality traits and behaviours, e.g., ability to communicate a vision | Drama: leader as a 'performer', charisma as more of an attribution |
| Source of charisma | Mission, super-human qualities | Personality traits, e.g., need to influence, dominate, moral righteousness; and beh. that help articulate a vision | Behaviours, namely those to do with having and articulating a vision, portrayal of self-confidence, show of concern for followers | Linking ideological vision to self-concepts of followers, and display self-confidence, self-sacrificial, involvement, commitment, courage, setting an example | Followers' own romanticised perception of charismatic leaders and influence from other followers' perceptions | Mission, ability to inspire, instil trust and identity, role models to followers, empowerment | Able to speak well, arrest attention of followers, convince buy-in of vision at all levels, a role model | Able to very effectively communicate vision to other members of organisation, empower followers to realise vision |

Figure 1 Effects of Charisma and Vision on Follower-level Outcomes



Goodness of Fit Index=0.84; Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index=0.83; Chi-Square(920 df) = 1666.73 (p<0.0)
 All continuous line relationships t > 1.96; Dotted line relationship (---) t > 1.91