Predicting followers' preferences for charismatic leadership: the influence of follower values and personality

Mark G. Ehrhart*, Katherine J. Klein

University of Maryland, College Park, MD, USA

Abstract

Existing research on charismatic leadership focuses primarily on the traits and behaviors of charismatic leaders and the effects of charismatic leaders on their followers. One issue that has been neglected is the disposition of the followers who form charismatic relationships with their leaders. To investigate this topic, we conducted a laboratory study in which participants' values and personality dimensions were used to predict participants' preferences for charismatic leadership vs. two other leadership styles: relationship-oriented and task-oriented leadership. The results showed that values and personality were useful in predicting leadership preferences. More research is needed to gain further insights into the active role of followers in the formation of charismatic relationships. © 2001 Elsevier Science Inc. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

Charismatic leadership "entails a unique connection between a leader and her or his followers that can account for extraordinary performance and accomplishments of individuals, work groups, units, and organizations" (Yammarino, Dubinsky, Comer, & Jolson, 1997). Research on charismatic leadership and the related concepts of transformational and inspirational leadership had burgeoned in the last two decades (for summaries, see Bass, 1990; Conger, 1999; Hunt, 1999; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992).[1] While such research may give

---

* Corresponding author.

[1] Empirically, "there is a considerable convergence of the findings from studies concerned with charismatic leadership and those concerned with transformational and visionary leadership" (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). As a result of this convergence of findings, we will use the term charismatic leadership throughout this paper to refer to leadership research in any of these three domains: charismatic, transformational, or visionary.

the impression that charismatic leaders *cause* their subordinates to perform at new heights, many authors emphasize that charismatic leadership is best conceptualized not as something a leader does to his or her followers, but rather as *a relationship between a leader and his or her followers* (see Conger & Kanungo, 1987; House, 1977; Shamir et al., 1993). Thus, for example, Jermier (1993, p. 221) described charisma "not [as] a thing that can be possessed by an individual," but as a "process that exists only in social relationships." Klein and House (1995, p. 183) posited that charisma does not exist within either the leader or follower, but "resides in the relationship between a leader who has charismatic qualities and those of his or her followers who are open to charisma, within a charisma-conducive environment." And Erez and Earley (1993, p. 184) cautioned that a leader is ineffective "if followers do not accept and commit themselves to a leader's vision."

Unfortunately, however, very little is known about the follower side of the charismatic equation. What kinds of followers are most likely to form charismatic relationships with their leaders? To begin to address this question, we sought to identify those characteristics that distinguish followers who prefer charismatic leaders from followers who prefer other kinds of leaders (i.e., relationship-oriented and task-oriented leaders). Below, we describe our hypotheses, research method, and results.

2. Charismatic leaders and their followers

A number of recent studies have documented that charismatic leadership behaviors and attributes (as rated by the leader, his or her subordinates, or independent observers) are associated with effective follower performance and positive follower attitudes (e.g., Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996; Hater & Bass, 1988; Howell & Frost, 1989; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990; Yammarino et al., 1997). Charismatic leaders are distinguished, recent theory and research suggest, by a number of characteristics, including their risk-taking, goal articulation, high expectations, emphasis on the collective identity, and vision (Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1987; House, 1977; House & Shamir, 1993; House, Spangler, & Woycke, 1991; Shamir et al., 1993). But what are the attributes or predispositions that distinguish the loyal and committed followers of charismatic leaders? The existing literature provides few clear answers to this question. Over a decade ago, Conger and Kanungo (1988, pp. 328–329) suggested that "followers' predispositions in a context of charismatic leadership … require significant further study." Unfortunately, little has changed in the intervening years; the available literature sheds little light on the distinguishing characteristics of followers likely to form charismatic relationships with their leaders.

Accordingly, in developing the hypotheses tested in this study, we identified key charismatic leadership behaviors repeatedly noted in the literature and, based on social psychological theory and research on similarity attraction and need fulfillment, selected characteristics likely to make a follower attracted to a leader who displayed these behaviors. Further, because we sought to identify follower characteristics associated with a preference for charismatic leadership — not leadership of any sort — we also reviewed prior theory and

research regarding relationship-oriented and task-oriented leadership and identified follower characteristics likely to engender attraction to each of these two types of leaders. We thus identified characteristics that might differentiate followers who were most attracted to charismatic leaders from followers more attracted to relationship-oriented leaders or to task-oriented leaders. These three categories of leadership — charismatic, relationship-oriented, and task-oriented — summarize important theories of leadership (Yukl, 1998). While charismatic leaders could potentially also be relationship-oriented or task-oriented (Bass & Avolio, 1993), the key behaviors that characterize each of those leadership styles are distinctive. Further, prior research indicates that research participants clearly distinguish these three types of leadership (Howell & Frost, 1989).

3. Examining follower characteristics: underlying assumptions

In developing our hypotheses, we were guided by four key assumptions. The first assumption is that individuals may differ in their responses to identical leadership behaviors. A given leader may be satisfying and motivating to some employees, and dissatisfying and demotivating to other employees, even if the leader acts in an identical fashion toward both sets of employees. Consistent with this assumption, Shamir et al.'s (1993, p. 587) self-concept based theory of charismatic leadership posits that "charismatic leaders will not have similar effects on all followers." In a similar vein, both path–goal theory (House, 1971; House & Dessler, 1974; House & Mitchell, 1974) and substitutes for leadership theory (Kerr & Jermier, 1978) emphasize that followers may differ in their perceptions of the attractiveness of the rewards that a given leader controls and thus in their reactions to that leader. Studies of the appropriate level of analysis for conceptualizing and studying charismatic and transformational leadership (e.g., Yammarino et al., 1997) document significant individual differences in subordinates' reactions to the same leader. These studies show that subordinates of a given leader may evaluate and describe the leader quite differently.

Our second assumption is that individuals' preferences for and reactions to particular types of leaders are based, to a considerable extent, on (a) similarity attraction, and/or (b) need satisfaction. That is, individuals are likely to be drawn to and particularly satisfied with: (a) leaders with whom they perceive they share similar attributes and values, and/or (b) leaders whom they perceive will meet their needs. A wealth of theory and research regarding social relationships (e.g., Byrne, 1971; Ibarra, 1993; Newcomb, 1961) and motivation (e.g., Lawler, 1973; McClelland, 1985; Miner, 1978) documents the substantial influence of similarity attraction and need satisfaction on attitudes. Path–goal leadership theory and research (House, 1971; House & Dessler, 1974; House & Mitchell, 1974) build on such work, suggesting that individuals are most likely to be motivated by leaders who provide a means toward need fulfillment. Further, Shamir et al.'s (1993) self-concept theory of charismatic leadership suggests that there must be a congruency between a leader's messages and follower values for charismatic effects to result.

The third assumption is that individuals' preferences for particular styles of leadership — that is, their expectations that they would enjoy and perform well working for a particular style of leader — are likely to predict, to a considerable extent, their actual responses to working with given leaders. Thus, for example, we posit that individuals who report that they would enjoy and perform well working for a charismatic leader would respond favorably to in fact working with such a leader. Attitude theory and research support this assumption. For example, Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory of reasoned action states that attitudes and subsequent intentions are the primary drivers of behavior. While alternative theories have been proposed, including Ajzen's (1991) theory of planned behavior, Eagly and Chaiken's (1993) composite model, and Fazio's (1990) MODE model, they are all consistent in positing that attitudes are a primary determinant of behavior. In the organizational sciences, the attitude–behavior link has also been proposed and supported (Brief, 1998). For example, applicants' ratings of the likelihood of their accepting a job offer are strongly related to actual job choice behavior (Cable & Judge, 1996; Kraus, 1995).

Finally, our fourth assumption is that individuals' descriptions and evaluations of their leaders are predictive of organizationally relevant outcomes, including employee satisfaction, turnover intentions, actual turnover, and performance. This assumption, of course, is supported by leadership research documenting significant relationships between subordinates' evaluation of their leaders' charisma and employee satisfaction (e.g., Bass, 1998; Hater & Bass, 1988); employee commitment (e.g., Bass, 1998; Yammarino et al., 1997); and performance (e.g., Bass, 1998; Hater & Bass, 1988; Howell & Frost, 1989; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Yammarino et al., 1997).

In testing our hypotheses, described below, we effectively tested the first two assumptions: (1) that followers differ in their responses to the same leader behaviors; and (2) that followers' preferences for leadership types reflect the influence of similarity attraction and perceived need satisfaction. A test of the third assumption — that followers' preferences for leadership types influence followers' responses to actual leaders — was beyond the scope of our study, but represents an important next step in research regarding follower preferences for leaders. Finally, the fourth assumption — that followers' responses to actual leaders may influence followers' satisfaction, commitment, and performance — has been well-supported in the existing literature (Bass, 1998).

4. Follower characteristics and follower leadership preferences

Building on the four assumptions described above, we hypothesized that nine follower characteristics, listed and defined in Table 1, would predict followers' preferences for charismatic, relationship-oriented, and task-oriented leaders.

4.1. Follower preferences for charismatic leaders

In reviewing charismatic leadership theory and research (e.g., Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1987; House, 1977; Shamir et al., 1993), we found that four leadership behaviors

Table 1
Summary of hypotheses

Follower characteristics	Description	Leadership style preference		
		Charismatic	Relationship-oriented	Task-oriented
Achievement	"persistent, impressed with status, hard-working, and independent . . . and form more negative impressions of persons described as unsuccessful" (Biernat, 1989, pp. 70–71)	+	–	+
Risk-taking	"enjoys gambling . . .; willingly exposes self to situations with uncertain outcomes; enjoys adventures having an element of peril; takes chances; is unconcerned with danger" (Jackson, 1976, p. 10)	+	–	–
Self-esteem	"confident in dealing with others; not easily embarrassed or influenced by others; shows presence in interpersonal situations" (Jackson, 1976, p. 10)	+	–	+
Need for structure	"conceptualized as one leading a simple, tightly organized life . . . especially likely to establish and enjoy routines, prefer familiar social situations, and so on . . . motivated to seek out simply structured ways of dealing with their worlds" (Neuberg & Newsom, 1993, pp. 114–115).	–	–	+
Intrinsic work value	values responsibility, initiative, and challenge at work (Loscocco, 1989)	+	NH	+
Extrinsic work value	values the quality of pay, benefits, and hours at work (Loscocco, 1989)	NH	NH	+
Interpersonal relations work value	values the quality of relationships with co-workers and management (Manhardt, 1972)	NH	+	–
Security work value	values job security and stability at work (Beutell & Brenner, 1986)	NH	+	+
Participation work value	values having influence and working for mutual benefit at work (Dickson, 1983)	+	+	NH

' + ' = a positive correlation between the follower characteristic and the leadership style preference; ' – ' = a negative correlation between the follower characteristic and the leadership style preference; 'NH' = no hypothesis made about this relationship.

were repeatedly identified as "charismatic." The charismatic leader, these works suggested: (a) communicates high performance expectations to followers; (b) exhibits confidence in followers' ability to reach goals; (c) takes calculated risks that oppose the status quo; and (d) articulates a value-based overarching vision and collective identity. Using this description, we reasoned that followers who are *achievement-oriented*, who are high in *self-esteem*, and who enjoy *risk-taking* should find the charismatic leader's vision of exceptional and innovative achievement an inspiration. Followers with these characteristics may be drawn to the charismatic leader because he/she is similar to them (i.e., the charismatic leader seems to also be high in achievement, self-esteem, and risk-taking), or in the case of achievement and risk-taking, because the leader meets their needs for achievement or risk. In contrast, followers who are low in these traits or who have a high *need for structure* may be alienated or unnerved by the charismatic leader's ideas that are contrary to the status quo. In the case of need for structure, followers high in this characteristic prefer a predictable, stable environment, which would be inconsistent with the charismatic leader's risky strategies. Further, followers who *value the intrinsic rewards* of work — the meaning and challenge of the task — may be attracted to charismatic leaders, both because they hold similar values and because the charismatic leader will fulfill their need for meaningful work. Finally, charismatic leaders emphasize the collective and communicate to employees the shared purpose of the group (Klein & House, 1995). This may make charismatic leaders particularly attractive to followers who *value participation in decision-making* because the charismatic leader will help them meet their need for feeling involved and having an active role in their work.

4.2. Follower preferences for relationship-oriented leaders

Leadership theory and research suggest that relationship-oriented leaders: (a) treat subordinates with kindness and respect, (b) emphasize communication with and listening to subordinates, (c) show trust and confidence in subordinates, and (d) provide recognition and show appreciation for subordinates' contributions (Fleishman, 1953; Halpin & Winer, 1957; Likert, 1961, 1967; Yukl, 1998). Accordingly, subordinates who *value interpersonal relations* at work are likely to be drawn to relationship-oriented leaders, both because of their similarity in values and because the relationship-oriented leader will help them meet their interpersonal needs. Subordinates who are *low in self-esteem* may also be drawn to the relationship-oriented leader, expecting the relationship-oriented leader to fill their need for encouragement and self-esteem. Similarly, employees who *value security at work* may be attracted to relationship-oriented leaders insofar as these leaders foster a supportive, caring work environment, and thus offer socioemotional security to those followers. Further, because relationship-oriented leaders keep "subordinates informed, [show] appreciation for subordinates' ideas, and [provide] recognition for subordinates' contributions and accomplishments" (Yukl, 1998, p. 52), subordinates who *value participation in decision-making* may prefer relationship-oriented leaders because these leaders share their values and are likely to meet their needs for input and involvement.

Conversely, subordinates who *value achievement* may be put off by the relationship-oriented leader's relative inattention to task accomplishment. Similarly, employees who have a high *need for structure* may dislike the relationship-oriented leader's focus on employee welfare rather than task structure and guidance. Finally, *risk-taking* employees may find the relationship-oriented leader too staid in his or her approach. In sum, the relationship-oriented leader's behaviors appear to run counter to these followers' values and may not meet these followers' needs.

4.3. Follower preferences for task-oriented leaders

Leadership theory and research suggest that task-oriented leaders: (a) guide subordinates in setting performance goals that are high but realistic, (b) plan and schedule the work, (c) provide necessary supplies, equipment, and technical assistance, and (d) coordinate subordinate activities (Fleishman, 1953; Halpin & Winer, 1957; Likert, 1961, 1967; Yukl, 1998). Task-oriented leaders' focus on goal accomplishment should be attractive to subordinates who *value achievement*, because of both similarity attraction and need fulfillment. Subordinates who have a high *need for structure* should also be attracted to task-oriented leaders, as these leaders are likely to offer subordinates clear structure and guidelines for task accomplishment. Followers who *value the intrinsic rewards* that come from task accomplishment may be attracted to task-oriented leaders because they have a similar task-focus at work. So, too, may followers who *value extrinsic rewards* be attracted to task-oriented leaders, as these leaders may appear to offer a road map to the attainment of extrinsic rewards (e.g., bonuses and raises). Finally, task-oriented leaders may create an unambiguous work environment that is attractive to followers who *value stability and security at work.*

Conversely, subordinates who *value interpersonal relations* are unlikely to be attracted to task-oriented leaders, as these followers are likely to believe that task-oriented leaders' values differ from their own. Similarly, subordinates who are *low in self-esteem* are unlikely to be drawn to the task-oriented leader because his/her leadership style will not meet their needs for emotional support. Finally, subordinates who are eager to *take risks* may dislike the task-oriented leader's focus on routine, not risky, task achievement.

4.4. Hypotheses

In sum, we hypothesized:

1. Followers' preference for charismatic leadership will be associated with high levels of achievement orientation, self-esteem, risk-taking, and the intrinsic rewards and participation in decision-making work values, and with low levels of need for structure.
2. Followers' preference for relationship-oriented leadership will be associated with high levels of the interpersonal relations, security, and participation in decision-making work values, and low levels of achievement, risk-taking, self-esteem, and need for structure.

3. Followers' preferences for task-oriented leadership will be associated with high levels of achievement, self-esteem, need for structure, and the intrinsic rewards, extrinsic rewards, and security work values, and with low levels of risk-taking and the interpersonal relations work value.

5. Method

5.1. Research participants

We conducted this study using a sample of 267 students at the College Park campus of the University of Maryland. The sample was 62% female and 38% male. Reflecting the racial composition of the University, the sample was 63% Caucasian, 14% African American, 13% Asian American, 5% Hispanic, and 5% Other. Approximately 79% of the participants were between the ages of 17 and 21, 17% were between the ages of 22 and 24, and 4% were 25 years old or older. Fifty-five percent of the sample had more than 24 months of work experience, 15% had more than 1 year of work experience but less than 24 months, and the remaining 40% of the sample had 1 year or less of work experience. Because of missing data for the various scales, the N for the analyses ranged from 251 to 267. According to the power analysis tables found in Cohen (1988), a sample size of 200 is needed for a power of 0.80, given a small effect size ($d = 0.20$) and an α of .05 (two-tailed).

5.2. Procedure

Data collection occurred in two phases. During Phase 1, research participants completed a survey containing the predictor measures (e.g., measures of achievement orientation, self-esteem, and work values) as well as measures used by other researchers for other projects. During Phase 2, approximately 1 month following Phase 1 data collection, research participants read descriptions of a charismatic leader, a relationship-oriented leader, and a task-oriented leader and completed survey measures of their preferences for charismatic, relationship-oriented, or task-oriented leaders. The Phase 2 survey also included open-ended questions asking respondents to list adjectives describing each leader and to explain why they chose the leader they did. During Phase 2, students did not know which of the Phase 1 predictor scales, if any, would we use in subsequent data analyses.

5.3. Phase 1 measures: independent and demographic variables

5.3.1. Achievement orientation
We used a 20-item true–false scale from the Personality Research Form (Jackson, 1974) to measure achievement value. Jackson (1974) reported the reliability estimate for this scale as .86 using a college student sample. The reliability in this study was .66.

5.3.2. Risk-taking

We used a 20-item true–false scale from the Jackson Personality Inventory (Jackson, 1976) to measure risk-taking. Using a college student sample, Jackson (1977) reported reliability estimates for this scale of .81 and .84. The reliability in this study was .81.

5.3.3. Self-esteem

We used a 20-item true–false scale from the Jackson Personality Inventory (Jackson, 1976) to measure self-esteem. Van Tuinen and Ramanaiah (1979) confirmed the scale's convergent and discriminant validities, and Jackson (1977) reported reliability estimates for this scale of .88 and .84 using a college student sample. The reliability in this study was .85.

5.3.4. Need for structure

To measure need for structure, we used Thompson, Naccarato, and Parker's (1989) (cited in Neuberg & Newsom, 1993) 11-item Personal Need for Structure Scale. According to Neuberg and Newsom (1993, p. 117), this scale captures two "conceptually related, but somewhat independent" factors: desire for structure (four items) and response to lack of structure (seven items). Neuberg and Newsom reported that the scale and its two subscales had reasonably good convergent and discriminant validities, adequate internal reliabilities across six college student populations (median Cronbach's α of .77), and good test–retest reliabilities (ranging from .76 to .84). In this study, α for the overall scale was .82, for the desire for structure subscale was .74, and for the response to lack of structure subscale was .75.

5.3.5. Work values

To measure work values, we used items from: (a) the European Values Survey as described in de Vaus and McAllister (1991); (b) a work orientation measure developed by Loscocco (1989); and (c) a measure of interpersonal relations values developed by Oliver (1990). These scales consisted of a list of job attributes, and respondents were asked to rate "How important is this attribute to you in a job?" using a five-point scale (from "not at all important" to "extremely important"). The measure of the extent to which respondents valued *intrinsic rewards at work* consisted of six items (e.g., "Opportunity to use initiative," "Challenging"), α=.76. The scale measuring the extent to which respondents valued *extrinsic rewards at work* consisted of four items (e.g., "Good pay," "Good fringe benefits"), α=.69. The measure of the extent to which respondents valued *interpersonal relations* at work was made up of two items ("Co-worker friendliness," "Good relations with management"), α=.63. The scale measuring the extent to which participants valued *security* at work had two items ("Good job security," "Stability"), α=.79. Finally, the measure of the extent to which respondents valued *worker participation in decision-making* was made up of four items (e.g., "Influence in company matters," "Working for mutual benefit"), α=.76.

5.3.6. Demographic variables

In addition, we collected data on the participants' gender (1 = male, 2 = female), age, and work experience. The work experience item consisted of a five-item scale ranging from zero months experience to over 2 years experience.

5.4. Phase 2 measures: preferences for charismatic, relationship-oriented, or task-oriented leaders

5.4.1. Development of leader descriptions

To measure research participants' preferences for each of the three different leaders, we asked each participant to: (a) read descriptions of three leaders, (b) rate how much he or she liked each of the three leaders, and (c) pick the leader that he or she would most like to work for. More specifically, each research participant was told that he or she had been hired to work as a store manager at "Not Just Java, a combination coffeehouse and fudge shop new to the D.C. area." Because the chain was, ostensibly, opening several new stores in the area, the research participant could select which of three different district managers for whom he or she would most like to work. Upper management, participants were told, had asked the district managers to provide a brief description of their management styles, so that the research participant could make an informed choice. The introductory materials that research participants read appears in Appendix A.

Participants were then presented with the descriptions of the charismatic, relationship-oriented, and task-oriented leaders. In developing the descriptions, we began by identifying four behaviors that captured the dominant aspects of each particular leadership style. Building on these definitions, we created a nine-sentence (approximately 180 words) description of each leader. Each of the three leader descriptions begins with an introductory sentence. The remaining eight sentences of each description were designed to capture the four defining behaviors of each leader (two sentences × four behaviors = eight sentences). Two experts in leadership reviewed initial drafts of the three leader descriptions and we modified the descriptions based on their feedback. All possible orderings of the leadership styles were used, resulting in six different forms of the dependent measure, which were randomly distributed to the students participating in the research. Note that no effect of order of the descriptions was found in subsequent analyses.

5.4.1.1. Description of the charismatic leader.
As described in the Introduction, theorists and researchers commonly emphasize that charismatic leaders: (a) communicate high performance expectations to followers, (b) exhibit confidence in followers' ability to reach goals, (c) take calculated risks that oppose the status quo, and (d) articulate a value-based overarching vision and collective identity (Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1987; House, 1977; Shamir et al., 1993). The following statement was designed to capture these behaviors (the letters in superscript correspond to the four leader behaviors just specified and were not included in the actual materials given to participants):

> I have been a successful leader because I am committed to this company's future and I work hard to communicate my vision for this company to my store managers. [a]I set high standards for my store managers. I expect them to work as hard as they can to reach those standards. [b]However, I don't push them only for the sake of productivity; rather, I want them to reach their potential and do the best job they can. I want them to realize how good they can be and how much they have to offer. [c]My goal is to do things differently than this organization has

done them in the past, and I'm willing to take some chances to show them how things can be improved. I rely on my store managers to be creative in finding new ways to get the job done. [d]I don't want my store managers to think of this as just another job. Instead, I try hard to make them feel like they're a part of something special here, something big, something that's going to make a difference in this organization.

5.4.1.2. Description of the relationship-oriented leader. The available literature suggests that the relationship-oriented leader: (a) treats subordinates with kindness and respect, (b) emphasizes communication with and listening to subordinates, (c) shows trust and confidence in subordinates, and (d) provides recognition and shows appreciation for subordinates' contributions and accomplishments (Fleishman, 1953; Halpin & Winer, 1957; Likert, 1961, 1967; Yukl, 1998). We prepared the following statement to capture these behaviors (as above, the superscripts did not appear in the material given to participants):

> I attribute my success as a leader to my concern for my store managers' personal well-being. [a]The first thing I try to do in all of my interactions with my store managers is to treat them with kindness and consideration. I am committed to being friendly and respectful, even when stress is high or there is a lot of work to be done. [b]Another thing I emphasize with my store managers is communication. I keep them informed of progress on projects or any other organizational issues that might affect them, and I am always available to listen to my subordinates' problems, whether their problems are personal or work-related. [c]In addition, I show trust and confidence in my store managers. I want them to feel involved in their work and to know that I think they can do a good job. [d]The final thing I do with my store managers is that I recognize their contributions. If they work hard and do a good job, I go out of my way to make sure they know that their work is appreciated.

5.4.1.3. Description of the task-oriented leader. According to leadership theory and research, a task-oriented leader: (a) guides subordinates in setting performance goals that are high but realistic, (b) plans and schedules the work, (c) provides necessary supplies, equipment, and technical assistance, and (d) coordinates subordinate activities (Fleishman, 1953; Halpin & Winer, 1957; Likert, 1961, 1967; Yukl, 1998). Research participants read the following statement which we wrote to depict these behaviors (as above, research participants did not see the superscripts):

> I'm successful as a leader because I emphasize task accomplishment. [a]I begin by working with my store managers to set goals for their work. I don't want to overwhelm my store managers with impossible standards, so I make sure their goals are realistic yet still challenging. [b]I am very careful and detailed in laying out what my store managers need to get done. I don't want there to be any ambiguity; they need to know exactly what to do and when it needs to get done. [c]Once they know what needs to get done, I make sure they have everything they will need to do it. I provide them with the necessary supplies, equipment, and technical assistance to insure that they can be successful at their jobs. [d]Finally, I coordinate the work so that the store managers and their assistant managers know what their job is and there is no overlap between the two. I want everyone to know what their role is so that they can see how they are contributing to the accomplishment of our organization's goals.

5.4.2. Ratings of leader descriptions

After reading each of the leadership style statements, participants used a five-point response scale, 1 (*to little or no extent*) and 5 (*to a great extent*) to indicate the extent to which they believed they would (a) work at a high level of performance under the district manager; (b) enjoy working with the district manager, (c) get along with the district manager, (d) admire the district manager, (e) find the district manager's work style compatible with their own, and (f) find the district manager was similar to their ideal manager. α for the scale was .91 for the charismatic leader, .88 for the relationship-oriented leader, and .92 for the task-oriented leader. Then the participants were asked to choose the leader for whom they would choose to work.

We used the ratings and choice data in two ways. First, we standardized the six ratings made for each leader and the one item for leader choice and combined all of them to form a preference scale for each leader. That is, we treated the leader choice as a seventh item on the preference scale. The α for this scale was .90 for the charismatic leader, .88 for the relationship-oriented leader, and .91 for the task-oriented leader. Additionally, we used the single leader choice item alone to group the participants, so that further analyses, including discriminant analysis and logistic regression, could be conducted.

6. Results

6.1. Leader ratings and choice

When asked to pick the one leader for whom they would most like to work, 137 participants (51.3%) chose the relationship-oriented leader, 77 participants (28.8%) chose the charismatic leader, and 53 participants (19.9%) chose the task-oriented leader. Similarly, respondents rated the relationship-oriented leader highest on the six-item leader rating scale ($M = 4.27$), the charismatic leader second highest ($M = 3.70$) and the task-oriented leader lowest ($M = 3.44$). The relationship-oriented leader was rated significantly higher than the charismatic leader [$t(266) = 8.91$, $P \leq .001$] and the task-oriented leader [$t(266) = 13.13$, $P \leq .001$]. Further, ratings of the charismatic leader were significantly higher than ratings of the task-oriented leader [$t(266) = 3.66$, $P \leq .001$].

6.2. Zero-order correlations

Table 2 lists the zero-order correlations between the predictor measures, criteria measures, and demographic variables. The three criteria measures are the standardized preference scale scores for each leader. Of the correlations among the three leader preference scales, only the correlation between charismatic leader preference and relationship-oriented leader preference was significant ($r = -.14$).

The correlations in Table 2 provide modest support for our hypotheses. As predicted, charismatic leader preference was significantly positively correlated with achievement orientation ($r = .16$), self-esteem ($r = .16$), intrinsic work value ($r = .12$), and worker partic-

Table 2
Intercorrelations among follower characteristics, leadership style preference, and follower demographics

Variable	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
(1) Achievement	0.67	0.16															
(2) Risk-taking	0.50	0.22	.09														
(3) Self-esteem	0.66	0.23	.16*	.34*													
(4) Desire for structure	3.89	0.95	.13*	-.29*	-.09												
(5) Response to lack of structure	3.52	0.79	.01	-.55*	-.29*	.53*											
(6) Intrinsic work value	4.26	0.54	.33*	.09	.13*	.03	-.01										
(7) Extrinsic work value	3.99	0.65	.00	.01	-.04	.13*	.19*	.43*									
(8) Interpersonal relations work value	4.46	0.64	.05	.01	-.02	.06	.01	.41*	.32*								
(9) Security work value	4.19	0.80	.11	-.17*	-.01	.12*	.12	.51*	.35*	.36*							
(10) Participation work value	3.58	0.83	.15*	-.02	.02	.10	.13*	.52*	.48*	.45*	.56*						
(11) Charismatic leader preference	0.00	0.79	.16*	.04	.16*	-.05	-.04	.12*	.03	.07	-.05	.23*					
(12) Relationship-oriented leader preference	0.00	0.76	-.02	-.06	-.02	.06	.05	.11	.27*	.18*	.09	.10	-.14*				
(13) Task-oriented leader preference	0.00	0.80	.06	-.09	.10	.16*	.02	-.03	.00	.12*	.17*	-.01	-.11	.02			
(14) Gender	1.63	0.48	.14*	-.20*	.08	-.06	.05	.12*	.05	.16*	.06	.10	.10	.14*	.00		
(15) Age	20.21	3.08	.16*	.17*	.07	-.04	-.07	.01	-.08	-.19*	-.15*	.01	.02	-.04	-.15*	.04	
(16) Work experience	4.06	1.23	.11	.18*	.21*	.09	-.08	.06	.05	.07	-.03	-.01	.11	.10	-.12*	.08	.26*

* $P \leq .05$.

ipation value (r=.23). Contrary to our predictions, however, preference for the charismatic leader was not significantly correlated with either need for structure or intrinsic work values.

As predicted, relationship-oriented leader preference was significantly correlated with interpersonal relations work value (r=.18). Preference for the relationship-oriented leader was also significantly positively correlated with extrinsic work value (r=.27), although we did not predict this finding. Contrary to our hypotheses, preference for the relationship-oriented leader was not significantly related to achievement orientation, risk-taking, self-esteem, need for structure, security, or work participation value.

As predicted, task-oriented leader preference was significantly correlated with the desire for structure subscale of the need for structure scale (r=.16) and with security work value (r=.17). Contrary to our hypothesis, preference for the task-oriented leader was significantly positively, rather than significantly negatively, related to interpersonal relations work value (r=.12). Further, contrary to our hypotheses, preference for the task-oriented leader was not significantly related to achievement orientation, self-esteem, intrinsic rewards, or extrinsic rewards.

Finally, the demographic variables were significantly correlated with two of the leader preference scales. More specifically, female respondents rated the relationship-oriented leader more positively than did male respondents (r=.14). Further, preference for the task-oriented leader was negatively related to respondent age (r= − .15) and to respondent work experience (r= − .12).

6.3. Multiple regressions

In a subsequent test of the hypotheses, we conducted multiple regressions, examining the simultaneous relationship of each of the three leader preference scales to the full set of follower characteristics. Demographic variables (gender, work experience, age, and dummy-coded race) were entered as control variables in the first step in the regression. The follower characteristics were entered in the second step. Results of the regressions for each of the leader preference scales are shown in Table 3.

For charismatic leader preference, the demographic variables together with the full set of follower characteristics explained 21% of the variance [$F(19,232)$=3.19, $P \leq .001$]. The demographic variables alone explained a significant amount of variance [8%; $F(9,242)$=2.20, $P \leq .05$]; this effect appears to have been driven by race differences in charismatic leader preference. Controlling for the demographic variables, follower characteristics explained 13% of the variance [$\Delta F(10,232)$=3.86, $P \leq .001$]. Two predictors were significantly related to charismatic leadership preference: worker participation work value (β=.39, $P \leq .001$, sr^2=.08) and security work value (β= − .24, $P \leq .01$, sr^2=.03). Note that of these two, only worker participation work value was a significant correlate of charismatic leader preference. The significant relationship for security work value in the regression analysis seems to be the result of its high correlation with participation work value (r=.56). In this case, there is a direct negative path between security work value and charismatic leader preference but an indirect positive path between security work value and charismatic leader preference *through* participation work value. The resulting correlation, which takes into account both direct and indirect paths, is thus reduced and not significant.

Table 3
Multiple regression for leader preference scales ($N=251$)

Variables	Charismatic leader preference			Relationship-oriented leader preference			Task-oriented leader preference		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1		.08*	—		.06	—		.03	—
Gender	.11			.11			.01		
Work experience	.11			.12			-.12		
Age	.01			.03			-.02		
Race									
Black	-.17*			.11			-.05		
Asian	.02			.02			-.09		
Hispanic	-.10			-.12			-.09		
Arab	-.02			.06			.05		
Native American	-.03			.01			.02		
Other	-.16*			.00			-.02		
Step 2		.21*	.13*		.14*	.09*		.17*	.13*
Achievement	.12			-.05			.07		
Risk-taking	-.06			-.05			-.09		
Self-esteem	.12			-.02			.17*		
Desire for structure	-.10			.03			.18*		
Response to lack of structure	.04			-.07			-.10		
Intrinsic work value	.03			.03			-.20*		
Extrinsic work value	-.05			.28*			.04		
Interpersonal relations work value	-.08			.10			.19*		
Security work value	-.24*			-.00			.26*		
Participation work value	.39*			-.09			-.18*		

β's reported are at entry.

* $P \leq .05$.

For relationship-oriented leader preference, the demographic variables and the full set of characteristics explained a total of 14% of the variance [$F(19,232)=2.02$, $P \leq .01$]. The demographic variables did not explain a significant amount of variance on their own [5%; $F(9,242)=1.59$, $P > .05$]. Controlling for demographics, follower characteristics explained 9% of the variance in relationship-oriented preference [$\Delta F(10,232)=2.34$, $P \leq .05$]. The only predictor significantly related to the dependent variable was extrinsic work value ($\beta=.28$, $P \leq .001$, $sr^2=.05$).

For task-oriented leader preference, the demographic control variables and the full set of predictors explained 17% of the variance in the dependent variable [$F(19,232)=2.46$, $P \leq .001$]. The demographic variables alone did not explain a significant amount of variance [3%; $F(9,242)=0.95$, $P > .05$]. Controlling for demographics, follower characteristics explained 13% of the variance in task-oriented leader preference [$\Delta F(10,232)=3.72$, $P \leq .001$]. The regression analysis produced six significant predictors of task-oriented leader preference: self-esteem ($\beta=.17$, $P \leq .05$, $sr^2=.02$), desire for structure ($\beta=.18$, $P \leq .05$, $sr^2=.02$), intrinsic work value ($\beta = -.20$, $P \leq .05$, $sr^2=.02$), interpersonal relations work value ($\beta=.19$, $P \leq .05$, $sr^2=.02$), security work value ($\beta=.26$, $P \leq .001$, $sr^2=.04$), and participation in decision-making work value ($\beta = -.18$, $P \leq .05$, $sr^2=.02$). Note that self-esteem, intrinsic work value, and participation work value were not significantly correlated with the dependent variable in this case, but only emerged in the regression analyses. As in the regression of charismatic leader preference, the emergence of these significant predictors in the regression seems to be due to predictors that are positively related to each other but that have direct negative relationships with task-oriented leader preference. The regression results support our hypothesis that self-esteem is negatively related to task-oriented leader preference. However, the significant negative relationship between intrinsic work value and task-oriented leadership counters our hypothesis of a positive relationship between the two measures.

6.4. Discriminant analysis

According to Cohen and Cohen (1983), discriminant analysis is a form of canonical analysis used when the dependent variable is categorical, and is especially useful when the dependent variable has more than two categories. Discriminant analysis takes into account all of the independent variables and their interrelationships to produce a function that maximally distinguishes among the groups. In this particular case, we used discriminant analysis to identify the predictors most useful in distinguishing participants who chose the charismatic leader, participants who chose the relationship-oriented leader, and participants who chose the task-oriented leader.[2] Note that we used only the leader choice measure — not the other preference items — to sort the participants into these three groups. We entered all of the predictor variables and demographic variables into the

---

[2] We also conducted logistic regressions comparing participants who chose the following leaders: charismatic vs. the other two, charismatic vs. relationship-oriented, and charismatic vs. task-oriented. The results were parallel to those found in the discriminant analysis (i.e., the same three predictors were significant), so only the discriminant analysis results are presented for the purpose of parsimony and efficiency.

analysis. The discriminant analysis program selects, through a stepwise method, which variables are most useful in distinguishing among the groups. The three variables selected in this case were extrinsic work value, security work value, and worker participation value. Note that these were the three variables with the highest correlations and highest beta weights for predicting preference for the relationship-oriented, task-oriented, and charismatic leaders, respectively.

Discriminant analysis produces one less function than the number of groups in the analysis. In this case, two functions were produced, both of which were statistically significant ($P \leq .05$). The first function had a canonical correlation of .36 and thus an R^2 of .13; the second function had a canonical correlation of .16 and an R^2 of .02. The structure matrix, showing the correlation between the predictor variables and the functions, aids in interpreting the functions. This matrix reveals that the first function is correlated with security work value ($r = .56$), and worker participation value ($r = -.28$). The second function is most highly correlated with extrinsic work value ($r = .82$).

The group centroids, shown in Fig. 1, graphically display the groups' relative positions on the two functions (Pedhazur, 1997). People who chose the charismatic leader expressed relatively strong worker participation values and relatively weak security and extrinsic work values. Those who chose the relationship-oriented leader expressed moderate worker participation and security values, relative to the other two groups of respondents, and strong extrinsic work values. Finally, individuals who chose the task-oriented leader expressed relatively strong security work values and relatively weak worker participation and extrinsic work values.

6.5. Post hoc qualitative analyses of open-ended survey responses

To gain additional insight into the quantitative findings just described, we examined participants' responses to our open-ended survey questions. These questions asked respondents to (a) list adjectives describing each leader, and (b) explain why they chose the leader they did.

6.5.1. Participants' descriptions of the three leaders

We examined participants' descriptions of each leader, comparing the descriptions provided by participants who rated the leader very favorably and those who rated the leader very negatively. This comparison shows the range of reactions that respondents had to the same leadership styles. This comparison also served as a kind of manipulation check, insofar as participants' descriptions show that participants — whether rating the leader positively or negatively — saw in the leadership style statements the types of leadership behaviors we were trying to emphasize.

We sorted respondents by the strength of their preferences for each leader, comparing the adjectives used to describe each leader by respondents who viewed the leader very positively and respondents who viewed the leader very negatively. The results in Table 4 summarize our findings, revealing the extent to which participants varied in their responses to the same leader. For example, respondents who rated the charismatic leader very favorably described
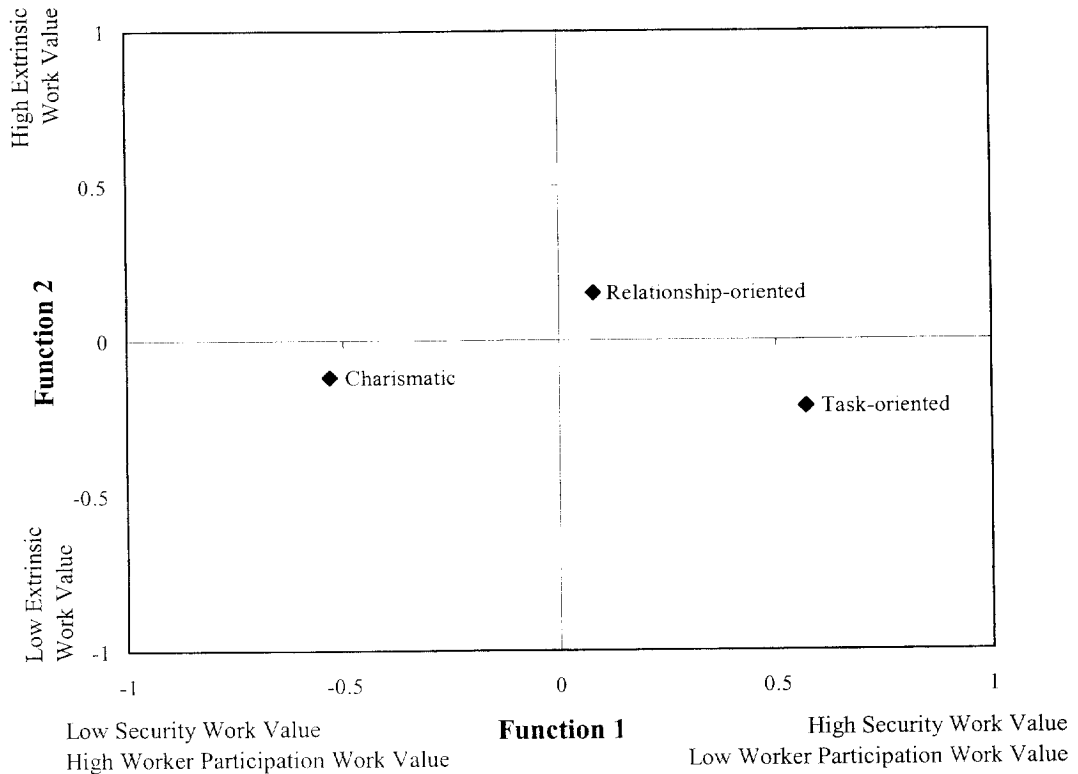
Fig. 1. Group centroids for discriminant functions.

the charismatic leader as "creative, innovative, daring, committed, and energized," as "team-oriented, an achiever, and empowering," and as "creative, free, a survivor, adaptive, and open-minded." Conversely, respondents who rated the same description of the charismatic leader very negatively described this leader as "overbearing, over-enthusiastic, and innovative," and as "ambitious, zealous, and arrogant."

Respondents' comments about the relationship-oriented and task-oriented leaders reveal the same range of responses. Thus, a typical comment by one of the respondents who rated the relationship-oriented leader very positively was that this leader was "caring, kind, thoughtful, personal, real, and understanding." But, respondents who rated the relationship-oriented leader very negatively commented that this leader was "unassertive, over-trusting, conciliatory, and easy-going" and "nice, emotional, and naive." Respondents who rated the task-oriented leader very positively described this leader as "goal-oriented, organized, and tough" and as "task-committed, stern, and successful — an ideal manager." Respondents who rated the task-oriented leader very negatively read the same description, but saw the leader as "dictatorial, too assertive, and hard-working," and as "dogmatic, meticulous, overbearing, controlling, and patriarchal."

Table 4
Adjectives used to describe leaders from respondents with high and low preference

Leader	Adjectives from participants with high preference	Adjectives from participants with low preference
Charismatic	• encouraging, success-oriented, inclusive	• ambitious, zealous, and arrogant
	• team-oriented, an achiever, and empowering	• too pushy, overbearing
	• goal-oriented, clever, creative, successful	• overbearing, over-enthusiastic, and innovative
	• creative, free, a survivor, adaptive, and open-minded	• overconfident, laid-back, easy-going, all talk
	• creative, innovative, daring, committed, and energized	• narrow-minded, forceful
Relationship-oriented	• friendly, trusted, reliable, accountable, flexible	• personal, has no drive, gossipy, underachiever
	• caring, kind, thoughtful, personal, real, and understanding	• nice, emotional, and naïve
	• conscientious, sympathetic, trusting, supportive	• flimsy, soft, people-oriented
	• generous, friendly, a good soundboard	• condescending, caring, appreciative
	• considerate, worker-friendly	• unassertive, overtrusting, conciliatory, and easy-going
Task-oriented	• efficient, respected	• overbearing, domineering
	• realistic, explicit, technically perfect	• boring, rigid, controlling
	• hard worker, good people skills	• untrusting, pushy, strict
	• goal-oriented, organized, and tough	• dictatorial, too assertive, and hard-working
	• task-committed, stern, and successful — an ideal manager	• dogmatic, meticulous, overbearing, controlling, and patriarchal

6.5.2. Participants' explanations for their choice of leader

To clarify our quantitative findings, we explored participants' explanations for their choice of leader. More specifically, we sorted the respondents by the strength of three values most strongly related to the three different leadership preferences and then examined the written comments of the respondents who held each value most strongly.

What explains the significant positive relationship between followers' endorsement of worker participation values and respondents' preferences for the charismatic leader? The comments of participants who strongly value worker participation are instructive. Three such participants wrote, respectively, that the charismatic leader:

> Wants his/her employees to find creative ways to do things. He/she does not sound overbearing, yet he/she establishes a healthy professional relationship. [This leader] lets people do things the way they want and is not very strict.

> Allows the most room for creativity, flexibility, and adaptability. I am frequently innovative and his management most allows for my particular strengths.

> Seems to really believe in and love the job and wants me to also feel that connection with the company by letting me make a lot of decisions. Thus, I feel more pertinent to the company.

These comments suggest that worker participation value may be significantly related to preference for the charismatic leader because respondents who are high in this value believe the charismatic leader would allow them to offer and to implement their creative suggestions for the workplace.

We had not expected, but found, a significant relationship between the extent to which participants valued the extrinsic rewards of work and participants' preference for the relationship-oriented leader. The written comments of participants who strongly value the extrinsic rewards of work aid in interpreting this finding. Three such participants commented, for example, that the relationship-oriented leader:

> Seemed like he was willing to work side-by-side the strong manager and would give credit where credit was due.

> Seems very fair and will reward you for hard work.

> Is concerned for employees and allows managers to experience things themselves. The employees under them are recognized.

These comments suggest that respondents who value extrinsic rewards at work are drawn to the relationship-oriented leader because they believe that this leader will treat them fairly, giving them their due.

Finally, the written comments of respondents who strongly value security at work clarify these respondents' attraction to the task-oriented leader. For example, three of these respondents commented that the task-oriented leader:

> Is exact. There is no room for ambiguity. He lays out everyone's job and ensures each person has the necessary tools to complete the task.

> Has clear goals, is straightforward, reinforcing, and doesn't act like a supervisor but a strict boss that has very high standards.

> Is right for me because I like when I am told exactly what to do. I feel that more is accomplished when individual tasks are assigned.

These comments suggest that respondents who value security and stability at work are drawn to the clarity and order offered by the task-oriented leader.

7. Discussion

7.1. Overview

Our goal in this study was to begin to identify the follower characteristics that might differentiate followers most attracted to charismatic leaders from followers most attracted to

relationship-oriented leaders or to task-oriented leaders. Although a number of leadership scholars have called, over the years, for research on the follower characteristics that predispose certain followers to form charismatic relationships with their followers, the topic has been the focus of remarkably little research. This study thus represents a useful first step.

Our study suggests, first and foremost, that followers do differ in their preferences for different types of leaders. Approximately 50% of the respondents selected the relationship-oriented leader as the leader for whom they would most like to work. Approximately 30% chose the charismatic leader, and 20% chose the task-oriented leader. Further, the results suggest that followers may differ in their perceptions and interpretations of identical sets of leader behavior. The charismatic leader who is "encouraging and energized" to one follower, for example, may be "arrogant and overbearing" to another.

We identified nine follower attributes and values that we believed would predict leader preferences. Eight of these were indeed significantly correlated with followers' preferences for one or more of the three types of leaders. These eight characteristics are: achievement orientation, self-esteem, need for structure (specifically, the desire for structure subscale), and the five work values (extrinsic rewards, intrinsic rewards, interpersonal relations, security, and worker participation). Risk-taking was not significantly correlated with followers' preferences for any of the three leaders. As we discuss below, our findings provide preliminary evidence that need fulfillment and, to a lesser extent, similarity attraction may influence followers' leadership preferences.

Three respondent values — worker participation, extrinsic rewards, and security — emerged in the correlation, regression, and discriminant analyses as particularly useful in predicting followers' leader preferences and in distinguishing among the followers as a function of their choice of leader. Interestingly, these three follower characteristics seem to reflect need fulfillment on the part of the respondents, rather than similarity attraction. Respondents were drawn to leaders who offered something of value — influence, rewards, or stability — rather than to leaders with whom they shared similar characteristics.

The results suggest that the followers who have strong worker participation values are most likely to be drawn to charismatic leaders. These followers appear to be attracted to the collective identity and high aspirations articulated by charismatic leaders, as well as the influence and empowerment they can enjoy with these leaders. The regression results indicate that individuals low in security work value are also drawn to leaders displaying charismatic behaviors. Employees who are eager to be actively involved in making decisions and who do not require a high degree of stability at work may thus, our results suggest, seek to form a charismatic relationship with a leader who shows charismatic behaviors.

Based on our results, followers who value the extrinsic rewards of work may be most satisfied by relationship-oriented leaders. Our finding of a significant relationship between followers' endorsement of extrinsic reward values and followers' preference for the relationship-oriented leader was unexpected. Our qualitative analyses suggest that followers high in this value may feel most confident that the relationship-oriented leader will give them a "fair shake."

Finally, we found that respondents who had strong security values were particularly attracted to task-oriented leaders. These leaders' provision of clear standards, norms, and

guidelines may be appealing to followers who seek order and stability at work. In addition, our regression results indicate that those individuals with high self-esteem, high desire for structure, low value for the intrinsic rewards of work, high value for relationships work co-workers, and low value for participation in decision-making may also be attracted to the task-oriented leader.

In sum, our findings suggest that followers differ in their preferences for charismatic leadership and that followers' leadership preferences are predictable — to some extent — on the basis of follower characteristics and especially follower values. Similarity attraction and need fulfillment may both play a part in the relationship between follower character-istics and leader preference, although based on the predictors that had the strongest relationship with leader preference, need fulfillment appears to be the dominant mecha-nism of the two.

Follower characteristics and values explained only a modest amount of the variance in followers' leader preferences. Additional research is thus needed to further explore the follower characteristics that influence followers' reactions to charismatic and other types of leaders. Although a number of leadership scholars have called for such research — and, indeed, our research was a response to such calls — even the theoretical literature on charismatic leadership offers relatively little discussion of the characteristics likely to distinguish followers who form charismatic relationships with their leaders. A number of variables, beyond the ones we examined in this study, may shape followers' attraction to different styles of leadership. Perhaps, for example, the Big Five personality characteristics (Barrick & Mount, 1991), negative and positive affectivity (George, 1989, 1991), and the content of followers' prior work experience may influence followers' attraction and responses to leaders.

7.2. Strengths and limitations

In this study, we tackled a question that has been too long neglected within the charismatic leadership literature. The design of the study offered important strengths. By separating in time the administration of the dependent and independent variables, we minimized response bias. Further, by studying leader preferences for three types of leaders, we were able to assess respondents' preferences for charismatic leaders vs. their preferences for other types of leaders; our findings do not confound follower attraction to charismatic leaders with follower attraction to leaders per se. Finally, by using paper vignettes to present the descriptions of the leaders, we eliminated numerous potential confounds. Had respondents observed video presentations of the three different leaders, for example, we would have had much greater difficulty controlling the effects of leader appearance, tone of voice, animation, and so on.

Like any study, however, our research is limited in key respects. First, our respondents were undergraduate college students, not full-time older employees. Second, although our use of "paper leaders" helped to yield a clean research design, research participants may have been less engaged in the study than they would have been had they observed videos of each leader or interacted with actors portraying the three leaders. Third, we treated charismatic, relationship-oriented, and task-oriented leadership as if they were independent. As mentioned

earlier, it is possible for a charismatic leader to be either relationship- or task-oriented (Bass & Avolio, 1993). An investigation of varying types of charismatic leaders would be a useful, albeit complex, venture. Fourth, we constrained the leader–follower "relationship" in our study to be a "one-way street" in which all variability in respondents' ratings of the leaders was attributable to between-follower variability. In real organizations, of course, real leaders are likely to differ in their interactions with different subordinates (see research on leader–member exchange: Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Schriesheim, Castro, & Cogliser, 1999). Thus, in real organizations, a follower's reactions to a leader are likely to reflect the leader's behavior toward the follower, follower values and other characteristics, and the interaction of the two. Finally, we did not test the relationship between followers' preferences for leadership and followers' actual behavior and satisfaction on the job. While the link between attitudes and behavior is well-established in the psychological literature, testing the relationship between followers' leadership preferences and followers' behaviors and attitudes in response to real leaders is an important next step for follower research.

7.3. Implications

Our study suggests that followers differ in their attraction to charismatic and other leaders. The more attracted a follower is to a given leader, we speculate, the more likely the follower is to: (a) seek to work for that leader, (b) be satisfied working for that leader, (c) form a leader–follower relationship with that leader, and (d) perform well under the supervision of that leader. These speculations go beyond our data, of course, and thus require future empirical evaluation. Still, our findings, in combination with the literature on recruitment (e.g., Rynes, 1991), suggest that prospective employees may be influenced by their perceptions of their future supervisors. Thus, in choosing between two job offers, an employee may be quite influenced by the relationship the employee imagines he or she might form with the boss or supervisor in each setting. An employee who has strong worker participation values and low security values is more likely, our findings suggest, to seek to work with a charismatic leader than with a task- or relationship-oriented leader. Further, such an employee is likely, our results suggest, to respect and welcome a charismatic leader's style, paving the way — it seems — for the formation of a charismatic leader–follower relationship.

7.4. Conclusion

The influence of values and other follower characteristics on followers' (a) attraction to charismatic leaders; (b) formation of charismatic relationships; and (c) performance under the supervision of charismatic leaders requires a great deal of additional theoretical and empirical analysis. This study represents a preliminary step. Our results suggest that followers differ in their attraction to leaders of differing types and that followers' attraction to differing leaders is, to some extent, predictable on the basis of those follower characteristics related to

similarity attraction and need fulfillment. Work values (for participation, security, and extrinsic rewards) were particularly useful in distinguishing followers based on their leadership preferences.

Appendix A. Introduction to leader descriptions

A.1. Not just Java

You have recently applied for a store manager position at Not Just Java, a combination coffeehouse and fudge shop new to the D.C. area. This chain sells a wide variety of fudge, chocolate, and other sweets, as well as offering a good selection of coffees and a laid-back, relaxed atmosphere. Not Just Java is opening twelve new stores in the D.C./Maryland area. You have been hired to be the store manager of one of the 12 new stores. You have three years of experience working in another coffeehouse chain, where you advanced to the assistant manager position at your last job. You see Not Just Java as an opportunity for you to move upward and onward in your career as a retail manager. In the D.C./Maryland area, four district managers will oversee the 12 new store managers. That is, each district manager will oversee three store managers. The district managers will be in charge of making all major decisions for each of the stores they oversee. The store managers will take care of all the day-to-day details of their store's operation and consult with the district manager on major issues and/or decisions.

Before Not Just Java places you in one of the new D.C./Maryland stores, they would like to find a location that would best fit you and your personality. There are three stores where you would potentially be placed, each of which is under a different district manager. They have consulted with each of these district managers and each of them would like to see you as a manager of one of their stores. Upper management of Not Just Java thinks that *your* opinions are extremely important, and has decided to allow you to make the choice of the district manager for whom you would like to work. The final decision must be made within the week, before the district managers finish their work in their last positions and report to the D.C./Maryland area. To help you make your decision, upper management asked each of the district managers to briefly describe their management style, which you will have the opportunity to read shortly. After reading each description, you will be asked to rate your preferences for the manager through a series of questions. After reading all of the statements, you will then be asked to make a choice of the district manager for whom you would like to work.

To get things started in the D.C./Maryland market, upper management has selected the best, most successful district managers from among their locations in other major cities in the U.S. Each of the three district managers coming to the D.C./Maryland market has been in the company for at least five years. During that time, they have each been awarded the Java Cup at least once. The Java Cup is the company's award for its most successful district managers. The recipients are those managers who oversee the most profitable stores with the highest customer and employee satisfaction ratings. Because they have brought their best district managers to

the D.C. area, upper management of Not Just Java has high expectations for the success for all of the stores these managers will oversee.

You will now have the opportunity to read the management style statement for each district manager, make ratings for each, and then make your choice of the district manager for whom you would like to work.

References

Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 50,* 179–211.

Barling, J., Weber, T., & Kelloway, E. K. (1996). Effects of transformational leadership training on attitudinal and financial outcomes: a field experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81,* 827–832.

Barrick, M. R., & Mount, M. K. (1991). The Big Five personality dimensions and job performance: a meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology, 44,* 1–26.

Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations.* New York: Free Press.

Bass, B. M. (1990). *Bass and Stogdill's handbook of leadership.* New York: Free Press.

Bass, B. M. (1998). *Transformational leadership: industrial, military, and educational impact.* Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1993). Transformational leadership: a response to critiques. In: M. M. Chemers, & R. Ayman (Eds.), *Leadership theory and research perspectives and directions* (pp. 49–80). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Beutell, N. J., & Brenner, O. C. (1986). Sex differences in work values. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 28,* 29–41.

Biernat, M. (1989). Motives and values to achieve: different constructs with different effects. *Journal of Personality, 57,* 69–95.

Brief, A. P. (1998). *Attitudes in and around organizations.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Byrne, D. (1971). *The attraction paradigm.* New York: Academic Press.

Cable, D. M., & Judge, T. A. (1996). Person–organization fit, job choice decisions, and organizational entry. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 67,* 294–311.

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Cohen, J., & Cohen, P. (1983). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Conger, J. A. (1999). Charismatic and transformational leadership in organizations: an insider's perspective on these developing streams of research. *Leadership Quarterly, 10,* 145–179.

Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N. (1987). Toward a behavioral theory of charismatic leadership in organizational settings. *Academy of Management Review, 12,* 637–647.

Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N. (1988). Conclusion: patterns and trends in studying charismatic leadership. In: J. A. Conger, & R. N. Kanungo (Eds.), *Charismatic leadership: the elusive factor in organizational effectiveness* (pp. 324–336). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Dansereau, F., Graen, G., & Haga, W. J. (1975). A vertical dyad linkage approach to leadership within formal organizations: a longitudinal investigation of the role making process. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 13,* 46–78.

de Vaus, D., & McAllister, I. (1991). Gender and work orientation: values and satisfaction in Western Europe. *Work and Occupations, 18,* 72–93.

Dickson, J. W. (1983). Beliefs about work and rationales for participation. *Human Relations, 36,* 911–931.

Eagly, A. H., & Chaiken, S. (1993). *The psychology of attitudes.* Fort Worth, TX: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Erez, M., & Earley, P. C. (1993). *Culture, self-identity, and work.* New York: Oxford.

Fazio, R. H. (1990). Multiple processes by which attitudes guide behavior: the MODE model as an integrative framework. In: M. P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology. vol. 23* (pp. 75–109). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, attitude, intention, and behavior: an introduction to theory and research.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Fleishman, E. A. (1953). The description of supervisory behavior. *Personnel Psychology, 37,* 1–6.

George, J. M. (1989). Mood and absence. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74,* 317–324.

George, J. M. (1991). State or trait: effects of positive mood on prosocial behaviors at work. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 76,* 299–307.

Graen, G., & Cashman, J. F. (1975). A role making model of leadership in formal organizations: a developmental approach. In: J. G. Hunt, & L. L. Larson (Eds.), *Leadership frontiers* (pp. 143–165). Kent, OH: Kent State Univ. Press.

Halpin, A. W., & Winer, B. J. (1957). A factorial study of the leader behavior descriptions. In: R. M. Stogdill, & A. E. Coons (Eds.), *Leader behavior: its description and measurement.* Columbus: Bureau of Business Research, Ohio State University.

Hater, J. J., & Bass, B. M. (1988). Superiors' evaluations and subordinates' perceptions of transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 73,* 695–702.

House, R. J. (1971). A path–goal theory of leader effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 16,* 321–339.

House, R. J. (1977). A 1976 theory of charismatic leadership. In: J. G. Hunt, & L. L. Larson (Eds.), *Leadership: the cutting edge* (pp. 189–207). Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois Univ. Press.

House, R. J., & Dessler, G. (1974). The path–goal theory of leadership: some post hoc and a priori tests. In: J. Hunt, & L. Larson (Eds.), *Contingency approaches to leadership.* Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois Press.

House, R. J., & Mitchell, T. R. (1974). Path–goal theory of leadership. *Contemporary Business, 3,* 81–98.

House, R. J., & Shamir, B. (1993). Toward the integration of transformational, charismatic, and visionary theories. In: M. M. Chemers, & R. Ayman (Eds.), *Leadership theory and research: perspectives and directions* (pp. 81–107). New York: Academic Press.

House, R. J., Spangler, D. W., & Woycke, J. (1991). Personality and charisma in the U.S. presidency: a psychological theory of leader effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 3,* 364–396.

Howell, J. M., & Frost, P. J. (1989). A lab study of charismatic leadership. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 43,* 243–269.

Hunt, J. G. (1999). Transformational/charismatic leadership's transformation of the field: an historical essay. *Leadership Quarterly, 10,* 129–144.

Ibarra, H. (1993). Personal networks of women and minorities in management: a conceptual framework. *Academy of Management Review, 18,* 56–87.

Jackson, D. N. (1974). *Personality research form manual.* New York: Research Psychologists Press.

Jackson, D. N. (1976). *Jackson personality inventory manual.* New York: Research Psychologists Press.

Jackson, D. N. (1977). Reliability of the Jackson personality inventory. *Psychological Reports, 40,* 613–614.

Jermier, J. M. (1993). Introduction: charismatic leadership: Neo-Weberian perspectives. *Leadership Quarterly, 4,* 217–234.

Kerr, S., & Jermier, J. M. (1978). Substitutes for leadership: their meaning and measurement. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 22,* 375–403.

Klein, K. J., & House, R. J. (1995). On fire: charismatic leadership and levels of analysis. *Leadership Quarterly, 6,* 183–198.

Kraus, S. J. (1995). Attitudes and the prediction of behavior: a meta analyis of the empirical literature. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 21,* 58–75.

Lawler, E. E. (1973). *Motivation in work organizations.* Belmont, CA: Brooks/Cole.

Likert, R. (1961). *New patterns of management.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Likert, R. (1967). *The human organization: its management and value.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Loscocco, K. A. (1989). The instrumentally oriented factory worker: myth or reality? *Work and Occupations, 16,* 3–25.

Lowe, K. B., Kroeck, K. G., & Sivasubramaniam, N. (1996). Effectiveness of correlates of transformational and transactional leadership: a meta-analytic review of the MLQ literature. *Leadership Quarterly, 7,* 385–425.

Manhardt, P. J. (1972). Job orientation of male and female college graduates in business. *Personnel Psychology,* *25*, 361–368.

McClelland, D. C. (1985). *Human motivation.* Glenview, IL: Scott Foresman.

Miner, J. B. (1978). Twenty years of research on role motivation theory of managerial effectiveness. *Personnel Psychology, 31*, 739–760.

Neuberg, S. L., & Newsom, J. T. (1993). Personal need for structure: individual differences in the desire for simple structure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 65*, 113–131.

Newcomb, T. M. (1961). *The acquaintance process.* New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

Oliver, N. (1990). Work rewards, work values and organizational commitment in an employee-owned firm: evidence from the UK. *Human Relations, 43*, 513–526.

Pedhazur, E. J. (1997). *Multiple regression in behavioral research* (3rd ed.). Philadelphia: Harcourt Brace.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Leadership Quarterly, 1*, 107–142.

Rynes, S. L. (1991). Recruitment, job choice, and post-hire consequences: a call for new research directions. In: M. D. Dunnette, & L. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology, vol. 2* (pp. 399–444). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Schriesheim, C. A., Castro, S. L., & Cogliser, C. C. (1999). Leader–member exchange (LMX) research: a comprehensive review of theory, measurement, and data-analytic practices. *Leadership Quarterly, 10*, 63–113.

Shamir, B., House, R. J., & Arthur, M. B. (1993). The motivational effects of charismatic leadership: a self-concept based theory. *Organization Science, 4*, 577–594.

Van Tuinen, M., & Ramanaiah, N. V. (1979). A multimethod analysis of selected self-esteem measures. *Journal of Research in Personality, 13*, 16–24.

Yammarino, F. J., Dubinsky, A. J., Comer, L. B., & Jolson, M. A. (1997). Women and transformational and contingent reward leadership: a multiple-levels-of-analysis perspective. *Academy of Management Journal, 40*, 205–222.

Yukl, G. (1998). *Leadership in organizations* (4th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Yukl, G., & Van Fleet, D. D. (1992). Theory and research on leadership in organizations. In: M. D. Dunnette, & L. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology, vol. 3* (pp. 147–197). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.