

# Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies

<http://jlo.sagepub.com/>

---

## **Making Sense of Motivational Leadership: The Trail from Transformational Leaders to Motivated Followers**

Remus Ilies, Timothy Judge and David Wagner  
*Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies* 2006 13: 1  
DOI: 10.1177/10717919070130010301

The online version of this article can be found at:  
<http://jlo.sagepub.com/content/13/1/1>

---

Published by:



<http://www.sagepublications.com>

On behalf of:



[Midwest Academy of Management](#)

**Additional services and information for *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies* can be found at:**

**Email Alerts:** <http://jlo.sagepub.com/cgi/alerts>

**Subscriptions:** <http://jlo.sagepub.com/subscriptions>

**Reprints:** <http://www.sagepub.com/journalsReprints.nav>

**Permissions:** <http://www.sagepub.com/journalsPermissions.nav>

>> [Version of Record](#) - Jan 1, 2006

[What is This?](#)

# Making Sense of Motivational Leadership: The Trail from Transformational Leaders to Motivated Followers

Remus Ilies - Michigan State University  
Timothy Judge - University of Florida  
David Wagner - Michigan State University

---

*This paper presents a theoretical model that integrates two related, but distinct mechanisms by which transformational leaders influence follower motivation. That is, we propose that an affective mechanism by which charismatic leaders induce positive emotional experiences in their followers, and a cognitive mechanisms that includes communicating the leader's vision and its effects on goal setting explain the connection between charismatic and transformational leadership and follower motivation. Further, we specify the pathways through which affective and cognitive processes influence three components of follower motivation: The direction of action, the intensity of effort, and effort persistence.*

---

Research on leadership has pervaded the organizational literature for decades. Found among the various theories are comments and claims suggesting that “effective leaders motivate” (Locke, 1991, p. 70). Bass’s (1990) comprehensive treatment of leadership mentions the term “motivation” hundreds of times. According to his model, (Bass, 1985, p.23), leader behaviors result in follower “heightened motivation to attain designated outcome(s)” which then leads to performance. Path-goal theory maintains that “one of the strategic functions of the leader is to enhance the psychological states of subordinates that result in motivation to perform” (House & Dessler, 1974, p. 30). Despite the high quantity of research on the topic of leadership, there still remains considerable work to be done in understanding the motivational effects of leadership. That is to say, neither motivation nor leadership research provide an adequate account for specifically how leadership and

motivation are linked (House & Podsakoff, 1994; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993).

Accordingly, the purpose of the present manuscript is to contribute to our understanding of the effects of motivational leadership. We focus specifically on a well-supported theory of leadership—transformational or charismatic leadership. We further consider two distinct (albeit related) psychological processes that are assumed to result in heightened follower motivation—cognitive and affective mechanisms. In the next section of the paper, we consider past research on transformational or charismatic leadership and discuss the potential motivating effects of transformational leaders.

## Past Research on Transformational/Charismatic Leadership

The term charisma (Greek for ‘gift’) has a distinguished history—it appears in 19 separate verses in the New Testament. It was Weber (1947), however, who associated charisma with organizational leadership. The first theory formally linking charisma to leadership was House’s (1977) theory, which argues that leaders promote organizational change by articulating a clear vision and creating a strong bond with followers that leads to acceptance of the vision. While House was developing his theory of charismatic leadership, Burns (1978), in his analysis of political leadership, introduced the concept of transformational leadership. According to Burns, transformational leaders motivate followers by appealing to common ideals and moral values. Bass (1985) extended Burns’s concept further, and argued that transformational leadership is comprised of four distinct dimensions: idealized influence

(charisma), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. There are other terms, sometimes used synonymously, such as visionary leadership (e.g., Locke, 1991b; Sashkin, 1988), to describe this form of leadership.

A considerable amount of research has accumulated on each theory of leadership. House and Shamir (e.g., House & Shamir, 1993), Conger and colleagues (e.g., Conger & Kanungo, 1998), and Howell and colleagues (e.g., Howell & Frost, 1989) have been among those contributing to research on charismatic leadership. Avolio and Bass (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1994) have been the leading researchers on transformational leadership. There have even been separate meta-analyses of the effects of transformational (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996) and charismatic leadership (Fuller, Patterson, Hester, & Stringer, 1996), published in the same year.

Despite extensive research on charismatic and transformational leadership, it is not entirely clear how the two concepts should be integrated. Virtually all writers on the subject agree that there are strong similarities in the concepts. Some argue that despite the similarities, one concept is to be preferred over the others. Bass and Avolio (1994) argue that charisma is only one lower-order component of transformational leadership. Conversely, others prefer charisma over transformational leadership. Conger and Kanungo (1998, p. 70) write, “the Conger-Kanungo model of charismatic leadership is the most comprehensive.” Shamir et al. (1993, p. 577) prefer the label charismatic on the grounds that “charisma is a central concept in all of them.” Other writers use the terms synonymously (e.g., Baum, Locke, & Kirkpatrick, 1998). Den Hartog and Koopman (2001, p. 173) conclude, “Despite the broad array of terms used by different authors within this approach, there seem to be more similarities than differences between these view of the phenomenon of leadership.” Supporting this conclusion, the meta-analyses of transformational (Lowe et al., 1996, Table 5, p. 410) and charismatic (Fuller et al., 1996, Table 2, p. 280) leadership found nearly identical effects. Charisma correlates very highly with the other dimensions of transformational leadership (ave.  $r=.84$ ; Lowe et al., 1996, p. 421), and

many authors load the purportedly distinct factors on a common factor (e.g., Judge & Bono, 2000).

Whatever the proper label and structure of this form of leadership, it appears to matter. The aforementioned meta-analyses suggest that charismatic (Fuller et al., 1996) or transformational (Lowe et al., 1996) leadership is related to both subjective perceptions and objective criteria indicating effective leadership. Supportive studies have been laboratory (Jung & Avolio, 1999) and field (Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999), cross-sectional (Yammarino, Dubinsky, Comer, & Jolson, 1997) and longitudinal (Howell & Avolio, 1993), correlational (Judge & Bono, 2000) and experimental (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996). Transformational or charismatic leadership is associated with perceptions of effective leadership (Shamir, Zakay, Breinin, & Popper, 1998) and objective measures of group (Sosik, Avolio, & Kahai, 1997), work unit (Avolio, Howell, & Sosik, 1999), and organizational (Geyer & Steyrer, 1998) performance.

At the same time, beyond the definitional difficulties noted above, there is a mysterious quality to this leadership. Some of the concern and debate has been over whether charismatic or transformational leadership is of the exceptional nature—reserved for a few gifted individuals—or of a more prosaic nature for the masses (see Beyer, 1999). A more microanalytical—but equally important—concern is the need to understand how transformational leadership works. As Bass (1999, p. 24) commented, “Much more explanation is needed about the workings of transformational leadership.” Although there have been recent efforts to look inside this “black box” (Jung & Avolio, 2000), a particularly pressing area is the need to understand the motivational effects of transformational or charismatic leaders. Shamir et al. (1993, p. 578) commented, “There is no motivational explanation to account for the profound effects of [charismatic] leaders.” Similarly, House and Aditya (1997, p. 442) concluded, “The neocharismatic theories offer inadequate or untested explanations of the process by which the theoretical leader behaviors are linked to, and influence...followers.”

There have been a few exceptions to the dearth of attention to the motivational effects of transformational leaders. Shamir et al. (1993) offered a self-concept-based explanation for the motivational effects of charismatic leaders, predicting that charismatic leadership is effective because it raises follower self-esteem, collective identity, and intrinsic valence of work. Shamir et al. (1998) tested the theory based on a sample of Israeli Defense Forces (IDF) officers. Based on the results, Shamir et al. (1998, p. 404) concluded, "In general, the self-concept-based theory (Shamir et al., 1993) did not receive much support." Bono (2001) also tested various aspects of Shamir et al.'s (1993) theory. Though several hypothesized links were supported, the results were not particularly supportive of self-concept theory with respect to job performance. Path-goal theory (House & Dessler, 1974) is another leadership theory that emphasizes follower motivation, arguing that follower motivation results from a complex interaction of leadership style, follower characteristics, and situational attributes. However, reviews of theory indicate mixed support and flawed tests (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Ahearne, & Bommer, 1995; Wofford & Liska, 1993). Podsakoff et al. (1995, p. 457) concluded, "There is little support" for the predictions of path-goal theory. Thus, if there are motivational effects of transformational leaders, it appears that one must look at additional processes beyond those previously proposed.

In the next section of the paper, we present a model of the relationship between transformational leadership and follower motivation. In the model, we make a distinction between affective and cognitive processes, which is an issue we discuss next. We should also note that, in the model, we use the terms transformational and charismatic leadership, treating charisma as a theoretically-relevant (particularly for our purposes) indicator of transformational leadership. Further, we do not make distinctions among possible dimensions of transformational leadership, such as those in the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ; Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1995). As noted by Yammarino et al. (1997, p. 210), the correlations among the MLQ dimensions tend to be "very high," the MLQ dimensions tend to correlate very similarly with outcomes, and "recent

theoretical...and empirical...work suggests an overall measure is a parsimonious, valid, and reliable approach."

## Hypothesized Model

In order to propose a model of the effects of transformational leadership on follower motivation, we first must describe our conceptualization of motivation. At the most basic psychological level, organisms are motivated to seek rewards (approach motivation) and avoid threats (avoidance motivation) in order to survive. Starting from the seminal work of Gray (1981), it has become increasingly accepted that two distinct brain mechanisms control the sensitivity to stimuli following approach or avoidance behaviors (see Depue & Iacono, 1989). Reinforcement Sensitivity Theory (RST; Gray, 1981, 1990) specifies that these two neurobehavioral systems, namely the Behavioral Activation System (BAS) and the Behavioral Inhibition System (BIS), are activated by stimuli signaling reward (or relief from punishment) or punishment (or frustrative nonreward), respectively. Thus, the BAS regulates approach motivation and the BIS regulates avoidance motivation (Depue & Iacono, 1989; Fowles, 1987). These two broad motivational systems are believed to contain four differentiable components: affective/emotional, cognitive, neurobiological, and behavioral (e.g., Fowles, 1987; Watson, 2000). As the biological component is beyond the scope of this paper, our conceptualization of motivation includes affective and cognitive processes, and behavioral tendencies and actions resulting from (and, in some cases, causing) these affective and cognitive processes. Thus, we include both autonomic motivation (driven primarily by approach and avoidance) and cognitive motivation (i.e., based on choice and deliberation) in our model of motivation.

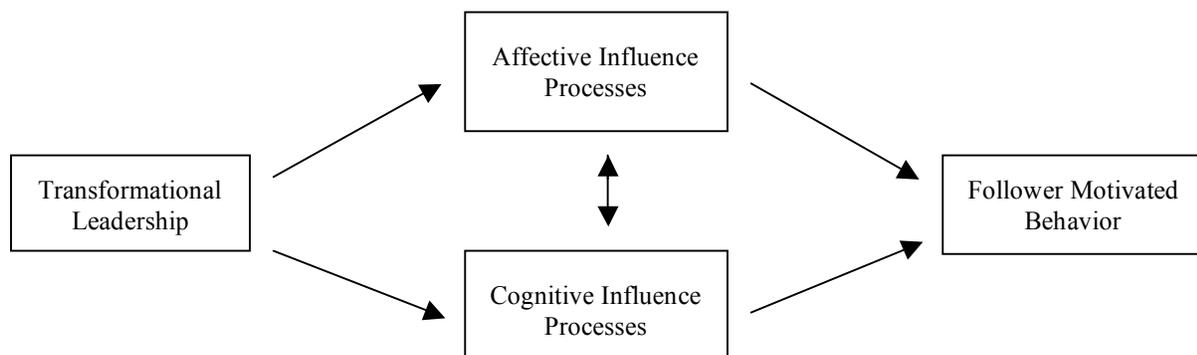
This conceptualization of motivation is broader than some conceptions of motivation. Traditionally, work motivation theorists have treated behaviors either as a component or as an outcome of motivation by focusing on *pre-behavior choices* or on *effort components*. Campbell and Prichard (1976), for example, define motivation to include: (a) the choice to initiate effort, (b) the choice to expend a certain

amount of effort, and (c) the choice to persist over time. Similarly, Ambrose and Kulik (1999, p. 231), following Pinder (1998), view motivation as composed of forces that “initiate work-related behavior and determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration.” Thus, these authors conceptualize motivation in terms of choices and view direction, amplitude/intensity, and persistence as immediate products of motivation. Others consider the effort components (direction, amplitude, and persistence) as being motivational factors per se, and not outcomes of motivation (e.g., Bandura, 1991; Locke, 1997). We adopt the latter perspective in this paper and consider the behavioral component of motivation (comprising direction of effort, effort amplitude, and persistence) to be part of the work motivation construct. (Following Naylor, Pritchard and Ilgen [1980], we use the terms “amplitude” and “intensity” interchangeably.)

From a conceptual standpoint, we focus on the influence that transformational leaders have on the behavioral component of followers’ motivation through affective and cognitive

processes. The overarching model is presented in Figure 1. In order to more specifically describe the model and generate testable propositions, we then further decompose the behavioral component of motivation into three subcomponents, according to the classical model of work motivation (e.g., Campbell & Pritchard, 1976): direction, amplitude, and persistence. Figure 2 shows a detailed model that portrays the mechanisms through which transformational leaders influence followers’ motivation. Finally, after we discuss the affective and cognitive links between transformational leadership and follower motivation, adopting a self-regulation approach to motivation (e.g., Bandura, 1991), we address the interdependence between affective and cognitive influences on motivation using Higgins’s (1997, 1998) theory of regulatory focus. In sum, our model of motivation includes affective and cognitive processes that influence the effort variables of *direction*, *amplitude*, and *persistence*, and a *self-regulation* process that combines affect and cognition.

**Figure 1**  
Conceptual Model of the Influence of Transformational Leadership on Follower Motivated Behavior



### Affective Influence Processes

As noted, the broad neurobehavioral systems that regulate motivation are believed to have distinct affective, cognitive, biological, and behavioral components. Gray’s (1981) reinforcement sensitivity theory is linked to basic emotion and mood theories by the assumption that people experiencing positive emotions or affect are motivated to perform approach behaviors, and people

experiencing negative emotions are predisposed to avoidance behaviors. Watson (2000, p. 24) considers the subcomponents of the motivational systems (affective, cognitive, biological, and behavioral) to naturally exist in synchrony with one another and that “*altering the organism’s standing on any one component produces corresponding changes in all the others.*” It follows that by influencing followers’ emotional experiences

and their affective states, transformational leaders can induce changes in followers' behavior—influencing them to exert effort on tasks that are important for the organization. In the broadest terms, with respect to affective influence processes on follower motivation, we propose that the emotions and affective states of leaders themselves influence the emotions and affect of followers which, in turn, influence followers' motivation.

### Emotions, Mood and Affect

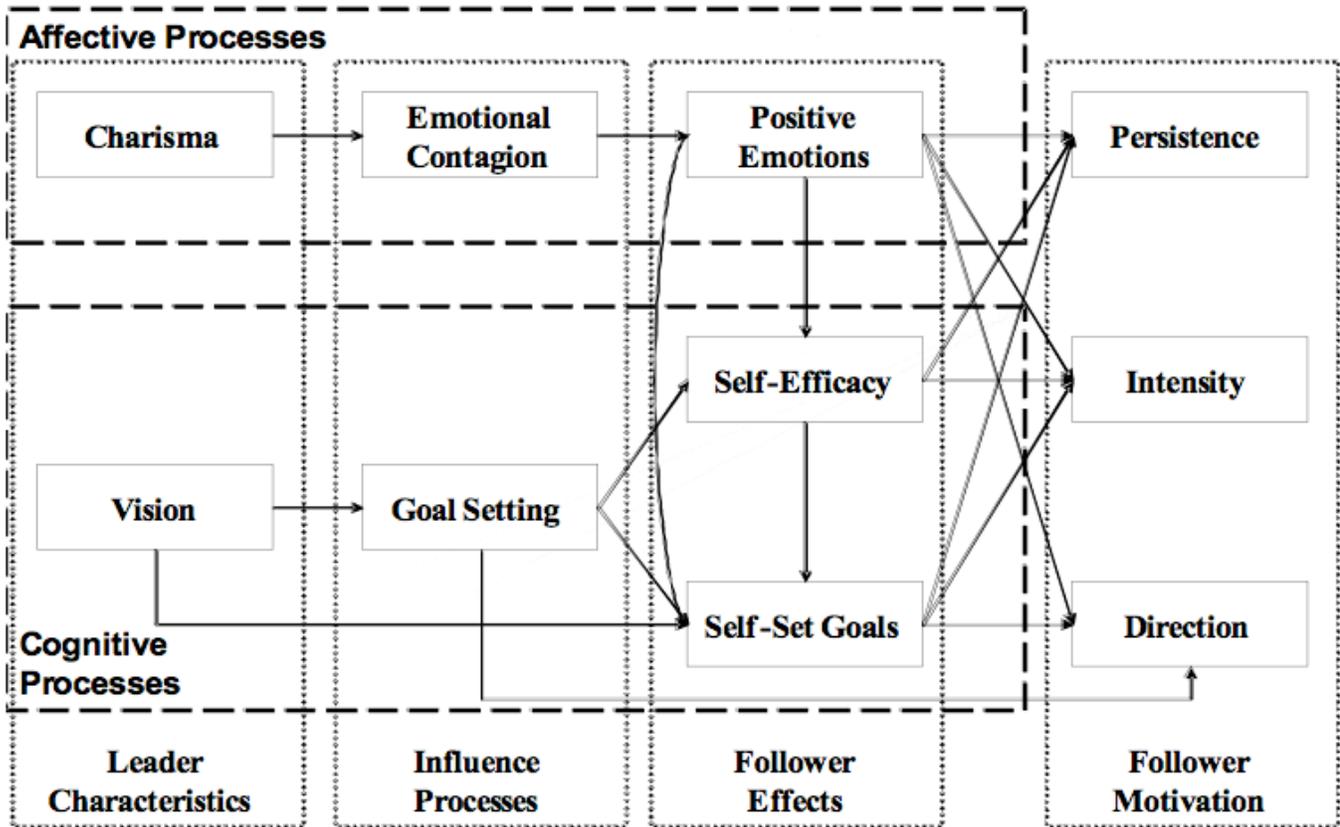
At this point it is necessary to discuss the distinction between emotions, mood and affect. Like other authors (e.g., Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Fisher, 2000; Kelly & Barsade, 2001), we see affect as an inclusive term that refers to both emotions and moods. Emotions and moods, however, are distinct phenomena. Three main factors distinguish mood from emotions: *intensity*, *duration*, and *causal antecedents* (Frijda, 1994; Watson, 2000). Emotions are more intense and shorter-lived than moods, and they are more likely to be caused by external events (mood states are subject to endogenous influences such as the circadian cycle; Watson, 2000). Emotion theorists (e.g., Eckman, 1992; Izard, 1991; Plutchik, 1994) focus on discrete emotions such as joy, fear, anger, and disgust. Mood theorists generally take a dimensional perspective on the study of affect, focusing on broad factors such as Pleasantness-Unpleasantness and Activation (e.g., Larsen & Diener, 1992; Russell & Carroll, 1999), or Positive Affect (PA) and Negative Affect (NA; e.g., Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). To bridge the gap between the categorical and the dimensional approaches, Watson and Clark (1994) have developed the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule-Expanded Form (PANAS-X), which measures both *higher-order affect dimensions* (PA and NA) and *specific affects* that correspond to distinct emotions (PA: joviality, self-assurance, attentiveness; NA: fear, sadness, guilt, hostility).

Due to the difficulty of capturing true emotions in the workplace, the distinction between emotions and specific affects is often, understandably, blurred in the organizational behavior literature (e.g., Lee & Allen, 2002). Here, we use the term “emotions” to describe emotional experiences ranging from intense (pure) emotions to more attenuated affective states. The terms “positive affect” and “negative affect” refer to Watson and Clark's (1994) higher-order factors of PA and NA throughout the paper. We use the term “positive emotions” to describe emotional experiences corresponding to the lower-order dimensions of Watson and Clark's PA (e.g., joviality, self-assurance) or to the adjectives used as markers for PA (e.g., determined, enthusiastic).

### Leader Charisma and Emotions

As shown in Figure 2, the dimension of transformational leadership that is essential to affective influences is *charisma* (or idealized influence; Avolio et al., 1995). Though not explicitly focusing on emotional dimensions per se, the literature on charismatic leaders describes them as being determined, self-confident, enthusiastic, and energetic (e.g., Conger & Kanungo, 1998; House, 1977; Sashkin, 1988). Determination, self-confidence, enthusiasm, and energy are all positive emotions that are considered markers of positive affect (Watson & Clark, 1994; Watson et al., 1988). In addition, evidence indicates that extraversion—a trait that is believed to reflect individual differences in the propensity to experience positive emotions (e.g., Tellegen, 1985)—is strongly related to leadership emergence in groups (Watson & Clark, 1997). Accordingly, we posit that:

P-1: Charismatic leaders, as opposed to non-charismatic leaders: (a) experience positive emotions more often and more strongly; (b) on average, experience higher levels of positive affect.



### Transmission of Emotion

Theories of leadership, and especially theories of charismatic leadership, assume that leaders affect their followers' feelings and emotions (e.g., Brief & Weiss, 2002). Conger and Kanungo (1998), for example, assert that charismatic leaders use strong emotions to arouse similar feelings in their followers. Raising follower self-confidence is a central concept in Shamir et al.'s (1993) self-concept-based account of leader influences on follower motivation. George (1996) contends that leaders who are energetic and enthusiastic will similarly energize their followers. Charismatic leaders are also thought to induce feelings of trust and facilitate cooperation and mutual support among followers (e.g., House, 1977; Shamir et al, 1993), which are consistent with the experience of positive emotion. Thus, one gathers from the literature the premise that leaders transfer their own emotions and feelings to their followers, though the forgoing discussion does not identify mechanisms by which this transfer occurs. It is our contention that not only do charismatic leaders experience positive emotions more strongly

and more often than non-charismatic leaders (P-1), but they are also capable of transferring these emotions more effectively to their followers. But how does this transmission take place?

In our view, the primary mechanism through which charismatic leaders transmit their emotions to their followers is the interpersonal process of *emotional contagion*. The basic emotional contagion phenomenon refers to the process through which a person "catches" or is infected with the emotions of another (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994). Hatfield et al. (1994) contend that individual differences in the ability to transmit emotions to others exist, and, following Gray (1971), propose that these differences depend on extraversion. More generally, we believe that personality factors that correspond to differences in the BAS (i.e., extraversion and PA; e.g., Watson, 2000) are relevant to the leaders' capacity to transmit their emotions to followers. Below we describe research on emotional contagion and its relevance to motivation and leadership.

An oft-used measure of individual differences in the capacity to transmit emotions is the Affective Communication Test (ACT; Friedman, Prince, Riggio, & DiMatteo, 1980). The ACT includes items such as “I can easily express emotion over the telephone” or “I am able to give a seductive glance if I want to.” In their article on the development of the ACT, Friedman et al. (1980, p. 347) concluded that “much of what is meant by charisma can be understood in terms of expressiveness.” These authors found that extraversion was one of the strongest personality correlates of the ACT, which is consistent with an association between individual differences in the BAS and the capacity to transmit emotion. An instrument similar to the ACT is the Facial Expressiveness Scale (FES), which was developed by Klein and Cacioppo (1993; see also Verbeke, 1997) and contains items such as “People can tell I have a problem from my expression” or “People have told me that I am an expressive person.”

Several studies have examined the links between leaders’ and followers’ emotions or affect. Lewis (2000, p. 228), in a laboratory investigation of negative emotions, found “consistent main effects for leader emotion on follower affect.” She also found that the emotional tone of the leader impacted followers’ perceptions of leader effectiveness (leaders expressing anger and sadness were rated lower than leaders with a neutral emotional tone). George (1995), focusing on positive affect, found similar effects in a field study of sales managers. Specifically, leader positive affect was positively related to the group-level positive affect, and leader positive affect and group positive affect each predicted group performance.

Two recent studies have specifically examined the emotional contagion phenomenon. First, in an experimental study in which they utilized preexisting groups, Sy, Cote, and Saavedra (2005) found that leaders in a positive mood condition influenced their teams such that at the end of a team task, the members of the team showed higher positive affect than did teams led by leaders in the neutral mood manipulation. Furthermore, Sy et al. (2005) highlight that their study provides “a conservative test of the effects of the mood of the leader” (p. 296), suggesting that the

effects of a leader’s moods will have a greater effect on subordinates when the leader—subordinate relationship is more formally structured. Such support points us towards the powerful influence that leaders, and leaders’ moods, can have on their followers.

Second, Bono and Ilies (2006) report the results of multiple experiments addressing charismatic leaders, their expression of positive emotions, and the transfer of positive emotions to their followers. They report several important findings. First, they found that subordinate ratings of leader charisma were positively related to the leader’s use of positive emotional expression. Second, they found that followers of charismatic leaders were more strongly affected by the emotions of their leader. That is, followers of charismatic leaders reported higher positive affect than did followers of non-charismatic leaders. These empirical findings support our contention that charismatic leaders demonstrate more emotional communication than non-charismatic leaders, and that these emotions are transferred to followers of charismatic leaders more strongly than are those of non-charismatic leaders.

P-2: Charismatic leaders transmit their emotions to followers more effectively, compared with non-charismatic leaders.

As we proposed that charismatic leaders experience positive emotions more often and more strongly and they also experience higher average levels of positive affect than non-charismatic leaders, it follows that:

P-3: There is a positive relationship between leader charisma and follower emotional experiences. Specifically, followers of charismatic leaders experience (a) more positive emotions, and (b) higher levels of positive affect, than followers of non-charismatic leaders.

### **Follower Emotion and Motivation**

In the preceding sections, we have proposed that charismatic leaders experience positive emotions more often and more strongly than non-charismatic leaders, and that they transmit these emotions to their followers more effectively than non-charismatic leaders. We now turn to the links between the positive emotions experienced by followers and their work motivation. As shown in Figure 2, we propose that positive emotions influence

motivation directly by influencing the amplitude, direction, and persistence components of motivation, and indirectly through their effects on self-efficacy and self-set goals.

First, we believe positive emotions influence the amplitude of effort exerted by employees. Focusing on general mood, George and Brief (1996) proposed that positive mood influences the initial amount of effort exerted on a task through its influence on the three components of expectancy motivation: valence, instrumentality, and expectancy. Seo, Feldman Barrett, and Bartunek (2004) presented a model connecting core affective experience, consisting of pleasantness and activation, to the behavioral outcomes of direction, persistence, and intensity. The affect—intensity relationship is theorized to occur via expectancy judgments by the individual. In the only published report that tested the relationship between positive affect and expectancy motivation, Erez and Isen (2002) found, in their first study, that positive affect influenced participants' perceptions of expectancy and valence and their performance on an anagram solving task, and, in their second study, that positive affect influenced all three components of expectancy motivation. We should note that because expectancy theory is a cognitive theory, this link implicitly assumes a mediating effect of cognitions on the relationship between emotions and effort. Consistent with research that points to a linear relationship between arousal and task performance (e.g., Matthews, Davies, & Lees, 1990), a more direct explanation of the effect of positive emotions on effort amplitude would focus on the impact of the arousal component of positive emotions on general activation, which should increase the amplitude of effort by making more resources available for performing the task (Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989). Accordingly:

P-4: Positive emotions will positively influence the amplitude of the effort exerted by employees on a specific task through (a) the effect of the valence of emotions on expectancy cognitions, and (b) the effect of emotional arousal on resource availability.

Second, we suggest that employees who experience more positive emotions will

expend their energy in pursuit of goals that are perceived as positive and promotion focused. Seo et al. (2004) discuss the generative—defensive orientation in behavioral choice. They “define generativeness as a behavioral orientation toward exploring and achieving anticipated positive outcomes” (p. 425) and assert that in the pursuit of such outcomes, individuals assume risk and are willing to incur losses. From this perspective, the direction that individuals take can be mapped on a continuum from generative actions, intended to achieve positive outcomes through risk taking and exploration, to defensive actions, in which individuals avoid negative outcomes despite potential opportunities to actively pursue and achieve positive outcomes. Such a perspective falls in line with the many dichotomies presented in the motivation literature, such as Higgins' promotion—prevention approach (Brockner & Higgins, 2001; Higgins, 1997), as well as with Gray's behavioral activation system—behavioral inhibition system approach (Gray, 1981; 1990). Fredrickson's (2001) broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions also suggests that when individuals experience positive emotions, they are more likely to be exploratory, creative, playful, and learning oriented. Thus, we see that the influence of positive emotion is likely to affect the directional aspect of an individual's motivation, including occasions when this affective state is fostered by a charismatic leader. Based on this support, we propose the following:

P-5: Positive emotions influence task direction by inducing promotive/generative actions such as exploration, risk taking, and creativity.

Third, we believe that employees who experience more positive emotions will be motivated to persist longer in their efforts to complete work tasks successfully. With respect to positive mood and task persistence, George and Brief (1996, p. 89) state: “...once a worker is in the process of performing a task, positive mood also enhances proximal motivation in that it results in a worker, for example, persisting.” Such an effect can be explained by two processes: the tendency to form mood-congruent judgments, and the effect of emotional arousal on resource

availability. Mood-congruent judgments associated with positive emotions include more favorable evaluations of goal progress (George & Brief, 1996), and higher levels of task enjoyment (Venhatash & Speier, 1999). As argued by Seo et al. (2004), core affective experiences help determine our progress judgments and these judgments in great part determine an individual's persistence at a goal. From an expectancy theory perspective, positive evaluations of goal progress and high levels of task enjoyment should both lead to increased persistence on a specific task. The arousal component of positive emotions makes more attentional resources available for task performance (Matthews, Davies, & Lees, 1990), which enables employees experiencing positive emotions to persist longer on the tasks that they are performing (e.g., Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989). In sum:

P-6: Positive emotions have a positive effect on task persistence. Employees experiencing positive emotions will persist longer on a specific task because of (a) emotion-congruent evaluations of goal progress and task enjoyment, and (b) increased resource availability facilitated by emotional arousal.

Fourth, following Staw, Sutton, and Pelled (1994), we propose that employees' positive emotions influence their level of self-efficacy with respect to their performance on the task at hand which, in turn, should increase the level of effort amplitude and persistence. If charismatic leaders induce feelings of general self-confidence and enthusiasm (e.g., Burns, 1978; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; House, 1977), these emotions will directly affect followers' task-specific self-efficacy. Other positive emotions (e.g., joy, liveliness) will influence self-efficacy indirectly, through an associative effect of emotions on judgments (Blaney, 1986; George & Brief, 1996).

Again, we refer to the recently published model by Seo and colleagues (Seo et al., 2004) suggesting that affect influences motivation partially through its influence on expectancy judgments. These expectancy judgments represent the level of confidence or the expectation of success that the individual has in a certain outcome. This concept is closely related to task-specific self-efficacy, as it addresses the perceived likelihood of task accomplishment given effort on the task. Seo

et al. (2004) propose that the expectancy judgments related to a task are predictive of the subsequent goal level, and we also subscribe to this perspective in suggesting that a follower's emotional state will have a positive relationship with self-efficacy, and subsequently with self-set goals.

P-7: Positive emotions will positively influence employees' perceptions of self-efficacy (a) directly, and (b) indirectly, through an associative effect of emotion on cognition.

Fifth, we believe that follower affective experience will have a direct effect on self-set goals. Empirical work by Ilies and Judge (2005) examined the dynamic relationships among feedback, affect, and self-set goals. They found that, in a multi-trial study, the effect of feedback on self-set goals was partially mediated by positive affect. This suggests that individual affective experience has some bearing on the level of goals individuals set for themselves. Seo and colleagues (Seo et al., 2004) argue that this is the case, noting that "scholars from several disciplines suggest that affective reaction is a core driver of conscious attention, which then influences the cognitive processes involved in decision making and goal setting" (p. 427). Accordingly, we suggest that individuals who follow a charismatic leader are likely to establish their goals as guided by their affective experiences.

One mechanism by which this occurs could include the behavioral activation system (BAS; Gray, 1990). The BAS is believed to regulate the experience of positive emotions and moods, whereas the behavioral inhibition system (BIS) regulates negative emotions and moods. Stimuli from the environment influence people's affective states, and the resulting affective states will reinforce behavioral motivation. As charismatic leaders induce feelings of positive affect among their followers, the followers will respond with an approach response that will strengthen their connection to the leader. The affect will also result in an approach response towards the content of the stimulus (i.e. the goals) and will therefore be positively related to the follower's self-set goals. Therefore, we propose that:

P-8: Positive emotions will positively influence followers' self-set goals.

### Cognitive Processes

As can be seen in Figure 2, the cognitive half of the detailed model begins with vision. Vision is the only element that is common to all major theories of charismatic and transformational leadership (House & Shamir, 1993). Given its centrality to this form of leadership, it is surprising that there have been relatively few empirical studies of visionary leadership. Larwood, Falbe, Kriger, and Miesing (1995) found that top executives rated their own vision statements using positive descriptors (e.g., action-oriented, flexible, strategic), and these descriptors could be reduced to a set of seven factors such as items relating to vision formulation or vision implementation. Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996) found that several positive follower effects (trust in leader, perceived value congruence with the leader, goals for quality) resulted when a trained actor provided a vision emphasizing high quality. Baum, Locke, and Kirkpatrick (1998) found that entrepreneurial visions that possessed certain attributes (e.g., brief, clear, future-oriented), were well communicated, and focused on growth were associated with higher levels of business venture growth. Despite these articles, which are noteworthy exceptions, few studies in the leadership literature have focused specifically on vision.

### Vision Defined

Given the relatively sparse research attention, one may wonder just what a vision is. As is true of any concept, vision has been defined somewhat differently among writers on the subject. Some definitions of vision merely emphasize the future-orientation of vision, describing it as an “end-state” (Gardner & Avolio, 1998, p. 39) or a “description of...the future” (Kotter, 1990, p. 36). Others, such as House (1995) and Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996), emphasize the ideological nature of vision, indicating that it represents shared values and often has moral overtones. Still other definitions of vision emphasize its goal-orientation; Sashkin (1986, p. 59) comments, “All visions must incorporate a goal.” Finally, some consider vision as a necessary part, or outcome, of the strategy formulation process. For example,

Mintzberg and Waters (1985) define vision as a “strategic umbrella.” Based on the foregoing review, we define vision as a broad, overarching value-based goal that represents the leader’s idealized future of the organization. In this definition, the idealized future may take on ideological or moral aspects, though we do not believe this is necessarily the case in all visions.

As is depicted in the model, we assume that the process of vision formulation and vision articulation is primarily cognitive. Conger and Kanungo (1998) argue that vision formulation is a logical and rational process, and includes elements such as evaluation of the current conditions, environmental scanning, and articulation of how the vision remedies problems in the current status quo. Other writers also emphasize the cognitive aspects of vision, where it represents a “conceptual roadmap” (Tichy & Devanna, 1986, p. 128) or a “memory tool” (Conger & Kanungo, 1998, p. 158). Wofford and Goodwin (1994) argue that vision, representing a leader’s broad, long-term memory construct (schema), is a product of various cognitive processes such as cognitive scripting (action plans for translating vision into goals) and encoding (e.g., expectations of, and attributions about, followers). To be sure, there may be emotional aspects of vision communication (e.g., charismatic leaders may use dramatic emotional expressions or gestures to build commitment to the vision; Gardner & Avolio, 1998), and follower devotion to a charismatic leader’s vision may be the product of emotional or even irrational processes (Weber, 1947). Nevertheless, as noted above, in most conceptualizations of vision, the concept is a relatively cognitive one.

So what does it mean to be a visionary leader? In part, a visionary leader is one who has a vision. Surprisingly, many leaders, even those at the top level, do not have a discernable vision. Hart and Quinn’s (1993) study of CEO’s revealed that vision setter was one of the roles least likely to be pursued, even though it was positively related to performance. At the same time, it probably is not enough to merely have a vision—a leader must know how to bring the vision to fruition. Locke (2003) notes that some visionary

leaders fail because their visions are not properly implemented. This is where goal setting comes into play, as goals are the mechanism by which the vision will be implemented (Zaccaro & Banks, 2001).

### Vision and Goals

Despite their obvious connection, a vision and a goal are not the same concept, in theory or in practice. Indeed, on several dimensions—time-orientation (short-term versus long-term) and specificity (specific versus abstract)—what is desirable for a goal is the opposite of what is desirable for a vision (Kirkpatrick, Locke, & Latham, 1996). Though visions and goals are distinct, they share many compatibilities. Both visions and goals are cognitive concepts that implicitly consider the discrepancy between the present state and a desired future condition. Conger and Kanungo (1998, p. 158) argue that vision is an overarching idealized goal that provides for more specific, tactical goals. In this way, vision is linked to goal setting through a cascade process: A broad, long-term, ambiguous vision is translated into more specific organizational strategies, which are then translated into specific, concrete, finite goals (Zaccaro & Banks, 2001). In Wofford and Goodwin's (1994) cognitive theory, a transformational leader's vision leads to goals of increasing specificity. Thus, though visions and goals are distinct concepts, a vision could be argued to lead to goal-setting. Perhaps this link is strongest for transformational leaders, who may be better at persuasively communicating their vision in a way that leads to follower goals (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). Thus, the difference between a vision and a goal is the following (see Locke, 2003): (a) typically a leader has one vision but there may be many goals that flow from that single overarching vision; (b) because of this, a vision is usually more general, more distal, and less individualized compared to a goal; (c) the relationship between vision and goals is hierarchical, so that the specific goals are derived from the vision, and the attainment of the goals, in turn, fulfills the vision.

While the foregoing provides a basis for linking vision to goals, it does not address the question of specifically how the setting of direction on the part of the leader leads to goals. Wofford and Goodwin (1994) argue

that visionary leadership provides a schema for followers that centers on the vision and leads to subordinate goals. In short, visions provide followers with a cognitive road map that structures their activities; this cognitive road map leads to the setting of challenging goals. But are the goals of visionary leaders necessarily challenging? Northouse (1997, p. 132) notes that transformational leaders "communicate high performance expectations for followers." Similarly, Eden (1992, p. 184) notes that transformational leaders create a "Pygmalion effect by expecting high performance from their followers." He further notes that "one effective way to produce a Pygmalion effect is to set difficult goals" (Eden, 1992, p. 285). Thus, there is reason to believe a vision should lead to the setting of challenging goals for followers.

At this point we should note that, though the common perspective in the motivation literature has been that specific, challenging goals lead to the greatest performance, this stance is based primarily on lab studies performed with simple tasks. This research has greatly illuminated the field. However, recent research has filled in important gaps in our understanding of how goals influence individuals in situations or tasks of greater complexity. Specifically, Kanfer (1996; Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989), in her discussion of the resource allocation model, found that on complex tasks, initially emphasizing learning results in better skill acquisition, such that the individual is more adept at the task and is able to reach a more objectively difficult performance goal later in the performance of the task.

Charismatic leadership could reasonably evoke these higher level learning tendencies in followers, such that their abilities will be further developed and they will subsequently demonstrate greater performance on tasks. This encouragement to initially seek a learning orientation could be due to the feelings of safety and inspiration that the charismatic leader evokes in followers. If a follower feels inspired to greatness by the leader, the follower would be more inclined to implement a learning approach and thus build skills and competencies that would enable greater subsequent performance. Accordingly, as abilities are increased, the follower will experience a concomitant increase in self-

efficacy, further encouraging the establishment of challenging, yet now-reachable goals.

Beyond its effect on the setting of challenging learning and performance goals, visionary leadership also should lead to goal commitment. As Zaccaro and Banks (2001) argue, one way that vision may lead to effectiveness is that the actions of the visionary leader galvanize support for the vision. In House's (1977) theory, charismatic leaders articulate a vision, but also foster ties with followers that lead to support of the vision. Because goal commitment results from a rational appraisal that involves whether the goal can be achieved (Hollenbeck & Klein, 1987), and transformational leaders help clarify contingencies between follower effort and outcomes (House & Shamir, 1993), visionary leadership should result in heightened goal commitment. Indeed, Kirkpatrick et al. (1996) hypothesized a link between visionary leadership and goal commitment, although we are not aware of any empirical data on the subject. (Note that goal commitment component is not included in the model presented in Figure 2 in order to keep it visually interpretable.)

P-9: Visionary leadership will be positively related to goal setting. Specifically, visionary leaders will be more likely to set challenging goals that will be associated with follower commitment to the goals.

### **Follower Goals and Motivation**

Having established the link between vision and goal setting, it remains to discuss the effect of goals on follower motivation. Figure 2 shows that, first, goal setting leads to follower self-efficacy and self-set goals. With respect to the effect of goal setting on self-efficacy, in Locke's (1997, p. 379) integrative model, assigned goals lead to greater self-efficacy because they implicitly "express confidence in the subordinate." Research clearly supports the effect of assigned goals on self-efficacy (Gellatly & Meyer, 1992). Second, many studies have shown that assigned goals, such as those that would be set by the leader, are associated with higher self-set goals (Locke, 1997). According to Locke and Latham (1990), assigned goals lead to self-set goals because of goal choice.

Individuals are more likely to adopt their leader's goal as *their* goal if they feel the goal is appropriate or desirable. As Latham and Locke (1991) point out, the most direct method of influencing goal choice is for an authority figure (i.e., a leader) to assign a goal. Early and Lituchy (1991) conducted three studies and all three showed that self-efficacy and self-set goals mediated the relationship between assigned goals and performance.

The establishment of a goal by a leader is likely to produce a state of disequilibrium in the follower. According to several theories of self-regulation, this discrepancy moves the individual to action in an attempt to reduce the discrepancy. Thus, the presence of a leader and the goals the leader sets will have at a minimum, an effect on felt discrepancies in the follower, leading to efforts to reduce that discrepancy. A charismatic leader will exert authority by appealing to the follower's ideals and values and, to the extent that the goals presented by the leader are in alignment with those values, the externally-set, externally-motivating goal would become internalized. Close alignment of the goal with the individual's values will result in integrated or identified motivation (more closely resembling intrinsic motivation), thereby resulting in greater commitment to the goal and greater subsequent pursuit of the goal through increased intensity and enduring persistence (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Further evidence even suggests that if individuals reject assigned goals, they maintain higher personal goals than if difficult goals had not been set in the first place (Vance & Colella, 1990).

P-10: Leader goal-setting behavior (leader assigning difficult, specific goals) will be related to follower (a) self-efficacy and (b) self-set goals.

In sum, visionary leadership influences followers' self-efficacy and self-set goals through leader goal-setting. But vision can also have a direct effect on followers' personal (self-set) goals. Though goal setting, like other motivation theories, is firmly anchored in the conscious awareness domain (e.g., Locke, 2000), recent research on automatic goal activation suggests that goals can also be activated outside awareness and, in fact, automatically-activated goals are pursued in

the same way as deliberate goals (e.g., Chartrand & Bargh, 1996; see Chartrand & Bargh, 2002). According to Bargh's (1990) auto-motive model of goal pursuit, self-regulation through goals can be activated by relevant environmental stimuli directly and not through deliberation and choice. Thus, it is entirely possible that visionary leadership activates challenging goals in followers both indirectly – through a conscious cognitive process (i.e., leader-set goals) – and directly – through an autonomic activation process. That is, in addition to the vision – leader set goals – follower self-set goals link, elements of the vision that are repeatedly used by transformational leaders to motivate their followers may activate challenging self-set goals in followers via an automatic goal-activation process. Additionally, there may be other mechanisms by which transformational leaders directly affect follower self-set goals. For example, if, as Bass (1990) suggests, transformational leaders empower followers to think autonomously, there may be a direct link from transformational leadership to self-set goals, independent of the leader-set goals. Indeed, Northouse (1997) argues that transformational leadership leads to heightened goals on the part of followers

P-11: Transformational leaders influence follower self-set goals through (a) an automatic goal-activation process, and (b) autonomous establishment of heightened goals.

Turning to the other links in Figure 2, in Bandura's (2000) model, self-efficacy leads to self-set goals. In reviewing the goal setting literature, Ambrose and Kulik (1999, p. 249) simply concluded, "People with high self-efficacy are likely to set high personal goals." It would be irrational to set a personal goal that one believed oneself incapable of achieving. As Bandura (1991, p. 251) notes, "knowledge of how one is doing alters one's subsequent behavior to the extent that it activates self-reactive influences in the form of personal goal setting." In terms of the relationship between self-efficacy and persistence, because goals create discrepancies between the current and desired state (Locke, 1991b), and action creates feedback on this discrepancy (Tubbs & Ekeberg, 1991), it follows that efficacious people will be more likely to persist in the face of continued

discrepancies. Mitchell (1997) comments that self-efficacy leads to persistence because individuals have the confidence to continue in the face of difficulties. Finally, if amplitude can be likened to the intensity or commitment (Naylor et al., 1980) of effort, self-efficacy increases the amplitude of effort because "believing one can do well on a task helps to mobilize the physical and psychological resources to exert effort" (Mitchell, 1997, p. 116). Indeed, Bandura (1991) comments that high self-efficacy individuals will increase the intensity of their efforts when faced with initial obstacles or failure.

P-12: Follower self-efficacy will be positively related to follower (a) self-set goals, (b) persistence, (c) amplitude of effort.

Just as self-efficacy leads to amplitude and persistence, so do self-set goals. Latham and Locke (1991) point out that both self-efficacy and personal goals make independent contributions to motivation. Indeed, self-set goals have been found to lead to greater persistence (Locke, 1997). An obvious reason why difficult goals lead to greater persistence is because difficult goals require dedication of time or effort to reach them (Mitchell et al., 2000). Difficult goals also increase amplitude of effort because the goal "regulates effort or energy expenditure (i.e., intensity) in that people adjust their effort to the difficulty level of the task or goal" (Latham & Locke, 1991, p. 228). Finally, one of the principal properties of goals is that they establish direction (Mitchell, 1997). As Locke (1997, p. 382) notes, "Goals *direct attention and action* toward performance outcomes relevant to the goal and, as a result, away from other outcomes." Thus, as important as the *energizing* function of goals is the *directive* function (Locke & Bryan, 1969)—an individual's goals give a strong sense of direction about their intended future actions.

P-13: Follower self-set goals will be positively related to follower (a) persistence, (b) amplitude of effort, and (c) direction of effort.

In addition to our formal propositions, a few more comments about the lower half of the model in Figure 2 are in order. It is possible that leadership exerts a moderating influence on some of the proposed linkages. For example, if transformational leaders do increase follower self-efficacy (Eden, 1992),

then a transformational leadership style might moderate the relationship between leader-set goals and self-efficacy such that the link between leader-set goals and follower self-efficacy may be stronger for transformational leaders. Similarly, because a vision provides a purpose and meaning to the work (House & Shamir, 1993), leadership vision may moderate the relationship between leader-set and self-set goals, such that the linkage is stronger when there is a clear vision (broad justification) for the goal(s). Finally, feedback has been found to moderate the effectiveness of goal-setting (Locke, 1997). It would stand to reason that one of the reasons that transformational leadership is linked to goals is that such leaders are more likely to provide feedback in relation to goal progress. If so, transformational leadership might also moderate the relationship between goal setting and self-efficacy or self-set goals.

### Self-Regulatory Processes

In the introduction, we have conceptualized work motivation to include a self-regulatory component that combines affective and cognitive processes. It is our contention that in addition to the affective and cognitive influences discussed above, transformational leaders influence followers' self-regulation and this influence combines affect and cognition.

Some leadership theorists contend that transformational leaders influence followers' emotions and, in contrast, non-transformational leaders influence their cognitions. For example, Fiedler and House (1986, p. 78) contrast charismatic and transformational theories of leadership with cognitive leadership theories noting: "Charismatic leaders have their major effect on the emotions and self-esteem of followers, that is, on the followers' affective motivational responses rather than their cognitions and abilities." Because we believe that transformational leaders have both affective and cognitive influences on followers' motivation, we disagree with this position. However, are there any qualitative distinctions between the influence mechanisms used by transformational leaders and those used by non-transformational leaders?

We believe the most important qualitative differences between the motivational effects of transformational and non-transformational leaders reside in the types of goals that followers adopt. That is, not only do followers of transformational leaders set more difficult goals for themselves and are more committed to these goals, but their goals are qualitatively different from those of followers whose leaders are non-transformational. Higgins' (1997, 1998; Brockner & Higgins, 2001) Regulatory Focus Theory (RFT) posits the existence of two distinct foci of motivational self-regulation: *promotion*, which is associated with goals that represent individuals' beliefs of their *ideal selves* and reflect hopes and aspirations, and *prevention*, which is associated with goals representing beliefs of *ought selves* and refer to duties and obligations. Following RFT, we propose that transformational leaders influence their followers to adopt more promotion goals than followers of non-transformational leaders. Furthermore, as the promotion self-regulatory focus has been linked to the BAS and positive affect (e.g., Carver, Sutton, & Scheier, 2000), we believe the inducement of a promotion orientation in followers on the part of transformational leaders is partly mediated by the positive emotions transmitted from transformational leaders to their followers. Thus:

P-14: The positive emotions induced by transformational leaders in their followers cause these followers to set more promotion goals than followers of non-transformational leaders.

### Conclusions and Directions for Future Research

In this paper, we have attempted to connect the phenomenon of charismatic leadership to employee motivation. In doing so, we feel that we have addressed the need for greater integration of the two fields of leadership and motivation, and have presented a model by which charismatic leadership affects follower motivation via two primary mechanisms: affective and cognitive processes. In discussing the proposed model, below we present some implications involved

in testing the model, and provide some suggestions for future research.

### Implications for Testing of the Model

In our view, even though they are conceptually distinct, the affective and cognitive motivational mechanisms proposed in our model are highly related to each other and their effects on follower motivation are probably more complex than those proposed in the model. We have proposed a direct relationship between positive emotions and self-efficacy but other relationships between affective and cognitive constructs are likely to exist. For example, goals are thought to raise arousal (Gellatly & Meyer, 1992), and positive emotions should increase self-set goal difficulty (Baron, 1990). Thus, given the strong “energetic arousal” component of positive emotions (Matthews et al., 1990; Thayer, 1989, 1996), positive emotions and self-set goals may be related positively in a bi-directional manner.

From a theoretical perspective, the direct link between positive emotions and self-efficacy is based on the associative network model of affect and cognition (e.g., Blaney, 1986; Bower, 1981), which suggests that emotions activate similarly-valenced memories and cognitions (e.g., Rusting & DeHart, 2000). More recent models of affect and cognition, however, suggest that the effects of affect on cognitions and behaviors are context-dependent. The mood-as-information model (Clore, Gasper, & Garvin, 2001; Schwarz & Clore, 1983), for example, suggests that one’s current momentary mood provides information for cognitive evaluations. Mood congruent judgments arise only in situations in which people believe their current mood is attributable to the source that is targeted by the evaluation (i.e., good performance, in the case of self-efficacy evaluations). In contrast, the mood-as-input model (Martin, Ward, Achee, & Wyer, 1993; Martin, Abend, Sedikides, & Green, 1997), posits that the way in which mood induced by specific stimuli is used as input to the evaluation process depends on the role fulfillment of the stimuli to be evaluated. For example, negative moods induced by a sad movie signal that the movie has fulfilled its role and thus lead to positive evaluations of the

movie (in contrast to the prediction derived from the associative network model).

From the mood-as-information perspective, positive emotions induced by transformational leaders will lead to judgments of increased self-efficacy only if the emotions are somehow connected to follower performance or goal progress. Such connection is realized when leaders celebrate success and praise good performance. From the mood-as-input perspective, because good performance is positively valenced (people expect to feel good when they perform well), employees will tend to make positive evaluations of goal progress and self-efficacy when they experience positive affect (Martin et al., 1997). Positive goal-progress evaluations and high self-efficacy will lead to challenging subsequent goals through the positive discrepancy creation (i.e., setting goals at a level higher than past performance) mechanism described by social cognitive theory (Bandura & Locke, 2003; Wood & Bandura, 1989).

As a practical matter, one advantage of the proposed model is that measures of most of the concepts exist. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ; Avolio et al., 1995) has factors that assess idealized influence (charisma) and inspirational motivation. Similarly, Conger and Kanungo (1998) have developed a measure of charismatic leadership wherein one of the dimensions is “Vision and Articulation.” In terms of the affect part of the model, we have previously discussed two measures of emotional contagion, the Affective Communication Test (ACT; Friedman et al., 1980) and the Facial Expressiveness Scale (FES; Klein & Cacioppo, 1993). Many measures exist of energetic arousal and positive affect (e.g., Thayer, 1986, Watson & Clark, 1994). As for the cognitive portion of the model, there is a voluminous literature on the proper operationalization of the components of goal-setting and self-efficacy (see Wright, 1990).

Despite the availability of measures, a complex series of decisions would need to be made in testing the model. For example, goal difficulty can be measured in various ways, and it appears that these measures have implications for the relative validity of the goal difficulty concept (Wright, 1990).

Another important issue is the type of task. Goal setting is more effective for relatively simple than complex tasks (Wood, Mento, & Locke, 1987). Transformational leadership, on the other hand, increases the intrinsic meaning of work (work is seen as more challenging and intrinsically fulfilling; Bass, 1985), and therefore could be expected to lead to improved performance on more complex tasks. Therefore, empirical validation of our model would suggest a close look at the strength of the proposed relationships in the context of both complex and simple goals.

### Conclusion

As noted, we believe greater attention to the integration of research in leadership and motivation can further our understanding of the effects of charismatic and transformational leadership. We have proposed in this paper that transformational leadership is an important factor in employee motivation, and we have put forward a model that specifies the mechanisms through which the influence of transformational leadership on employee motivation is realized. In our view, this paper will contribute to research in organizations by stimulating further research to delineate the processes by which leaders exert motivating influence on their followers. We hope that such an approach will also be of benefit to the literature on motivation by convincing motivation scholars to take a broader view of work motivation and study other organizational factors that have distal influences on employee motivation.

### References

- Ambrose, M. L., & Kulik, C. T. (1999). Old friends, new faces: Motivation research in the 1990s. *Journal of Management*, *25*, 231-292.
- Austin, J. T., & Klein, H. J. (1996). Work motivation and goal striving. In K. R. Murphy (Ed.), *Individual differences and behavior in organizations* (pp. 209-257). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Ashforth, B. E., & Humphrey, R. H. (1995). Emotion in the workplace: A reappraisal. *Human Relations*, *48*, 97-125.
- Avolio, B. J. (1999). *Full leadership development*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Avolio, B. J., Bass, B. M., & Jung, D. I. (1995). *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire technical report*. Redwood City, CA: Mind Garden.
- Avolio, B. J., Howell, J. M., & Sosik, J. J. (1999). A funny thing happened on the way to the bottom line: Humor as a moderator of leadership style effects. *Academy of Management Journal*, *42*, 219-227.
- Bandura, A. (1991). Social cognitive theory of self-regulation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *50*, 248-287.
- Bandura, A. (2000). Cultivate self-efficacy for personal and organizational effectiveness. In E. A. Locke (Ed.), *Handbook of principles of organizational behavior* (pp.120-136). Oxford, UK Blackwell.
- Bandura, A., & Locke, E.A. (2003). Negative self-efficacy and goal effects revisited. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*, 87-99.
- Bargh, J. A. (1990). Auto-motives: Preconscious determinants of social interaction. In E. T. Higgins & R. M. Sorrentino (Eds.), *Handbook of motivation and cognition* (Vol. 2, pp. 93-130). New York: Guilford.
- 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.
- Baron, R. A. (1990). Environmentally induced positive affect: Its impact on self-efficacy, task performance, negotiation, and conflict. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *20*, 368-384.
- Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York: The Free Press.
- Bass, B. M. (1990). *Bass & Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications* (3rd ed.). New York: Free Press.
- Bass, B. M. (1999). Two decades of research and development in transformational leadership. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *8*, 9-32.

- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (Eds.) (1994). *Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Baum, J. R., Locke, E. A., & Kirkpatrick, S. A. (1998). A longitudinal study of the relation of vision and vision communication to venture growth in entrepreneurial firms. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*, 43-54.
- Beyer, J. M. (1999). Taming and promoting charisma to change organizations. *Leadership Quarterly, 10*, 307-330.
- Blaney, P. H. (1986). Affect and memory: A review. *Psychological Bulletin, 99*, 229-246.
- Bono, J. E. (2001). *Self-determination at work: The motivational effects of transformational leaders*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Iowa.
- Bono, J. E., & Ilies, R. (2006). Charisma, positive emotions and mood contagion. *The Leadership Quarterly, 17*, 317-334.
- Bower, G. H. (1981). Mood and memory. *American Psychologist, 36*, 129-148.
- Brief, A. P., & Weiss, H. M. (2002). Organizational behavior: Affect in the workplace. *Annual Review of Psychology, 53*, 279-307.
- Brockner, J., & Higgins, E. T. (2001). Regulatory focus theory: Implications for the study of emotions at work. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 86*, 35-66.
- Brockner, J., & Higgins, E. T. (2001). Regulatory focus theory: Implications for the study of emotions at work. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 86*, 35-66.
- Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Campbell, J. P., & Pritchard, R. D. (1976). Motivation theory in industrial/organizational psychology. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial/organizational psychology* (pp. 63-130). Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N. (1998). *Charismatic leadership in organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Carver, C. S., Sutton, S. K., & Scheier, M. F. (2000). Action, emotion, and personality: Emerging conceptual integration. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 26*, 741-751.
- Chartrand, T. L., & Bargh, J. A. (1996). Automatic activation of impression formation and memorization goals: Nonconscious goal priming reproduces effects of explicit task instructions. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 71*, 464-478.
- Chartrand, T. L., & Bargh, J. A. (2002). Nonconscious motivations: Their activation, operation, and consequences. In A. Tesser, D. A. Stapel, & J. V. Wood (Eds.), *Self and Motivation* (pp. 13-41). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Clore, G. L., Gasper, K., & Garvin, E. (2001). Affect as information. In J. P. Forgas (Ed) *Handbook of affect and social cognition* (pp. 121-144). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Den Hartog D. N., & Koopman, P. L. (2001). Leadership in organizations. In N. Anderson, D. S. Ones, H. K. Sinangil, & C. Viswesvaran (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial, work, and organizational psychology* (Vol. 2, pp.166-187). London, UK: Sage.
- Depue, R. A., & Iacono, W. G. (1989). Neurobiological aspects of affective disorders. *Annual Review of Psychology, 40*, 457-492.
- Donovan, J. J. (2001). Work motivation. In N. Anderson, D. S. Ones, H. K. Sinangil, & C. Viswesvaran (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial, work, and organizational psychology* (Vol. 2 pp. 53-76). London, UK: Sage.
- Earley, P. C., & Lituchy, T. R. (1991). Delineating goal and efficacy effects: A test of three models. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 76*, 81-98.
- Eden, D. (1992). Leadership and expectations: Pygmalion effects and other self-fulfilling prophecies in organizations. *Leadership Quarterly, 3*, 271-305.
- Ekman, P. (1992). An argument for basic emotions. *Cognition and Emotion, 6*, 169-200.

- Erez, A., & Isen, A. M. (2002). The influence of positive affect on the components of expectancy motivation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*, 1055-1067.
- Fiedler, F. E., & House, R. J. (1988). Leadership theory and research: A report of progress. In C. L. Cooper & I. T. Robertson (Eds.), *International review of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 73-92). New York: Wiley.
- Fisher, C. D. (2000). Mood and emotions while working: Missing pieces of job satisfaction? *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 21*, 185-202.
- Forgas, J. P., Bower, G. H., & Moylan, S. J. (1990). Praise or blame? Affective influences on attributions for achievement. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 89*, 56-66.
- Fowles, D. C. (1987). Application of a behavioral theory of motivation to the concepts of anxiety and impulsivity. *Journal of Research in Personality, 21*, 417-435.
- Fredrickson, B. L. (2001). The role of positive emotions in positive psychology: The broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions. *American Psychologist, 56*, 218-226.
- Friedman, H. S., Prince, L. M., Riggio, R. E., & DiMatteo, M. R. (1980). Understanding and assessing nonverbal expressiveness: The affective communication test. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 39*, 333-351.
- Frijda, N. H. (1994). Varieties of affect: Emotions and episodes, moods, and sentiments. In P. Ekman & R. J. Davidson (Eds.), *The nature of emotion: Fundamental questions* (pp. 59-67). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Fuller, J. B., Patterson, C. E. P., Hester, K., & Stringer, D. Y. (1996). A quantitative review of research on charismatic leadership. *Psychological Reports, 78*, 271-287.
- Gardner, W. L., & Avolio, B. J. (1998). The charismatic relationship: A dramaturgical perspective. *Academy of Management Review, 23*, 32-58.
- Gellatly, I. R. (1996). Conscientiousness and task performance: Test of cognitive process model. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81*, 474-482.
- Gellatly, I. R., & Meyer, J. P. (1992). The effects of goal difficulty on physiological arousal, cognition, and task performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 77*, 694-704.
- George, J. M. (1995). Leader positive mood and group performance: The case of customer service. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 25*, 778-794.
- George, J. M. (1996). Group affective tone. In M. West (Ed.), *Handbook of work group psychology* (pp. 77-93). Chichester, England: Wiley.
- George, J. M., & Brief, A. P. (1996). Motivational agendas in the workplace: The effects of feelings on focus of attention and work motivation. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 18*, 75-109.
- Geyer, A. L. J., & Steyrer, J. M. (1998). Transformational leadership and objective performance in banks. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 47*, 397-420.
- Gray, J. A. (1971). *The psychology of fear and stress*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Gray, J. A. (1981). A critique of Eysenck's theory of personality. In H. J. Eysenck (Ed.), *A model for personality* (pp. 246-276). New York: Springer.
- Gray, J. A. (1990). Brain systems that mediate both emotion and cognition. *Cognition and Emotion, 4*, 269-288.
- Hart, S. L., & Quinn, R. E. (1993). Roles executives play: CEOs, behavioral complexity, and firm performance. *Human Relations, 46*, 543-574.
- Hatfield, E., Cacioppo, J. T., & Rapson, R. L. (1994). *Emotional contagion*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Higgins, E. T. (1997). Beyond pleasure and pain. *American Psychologist, 52*, 1280-1300.
- Higgins, E. T. (1998). Promotion and prevention: Regulatory focus as a motivational principle. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, 30*, 1-46.

- Hollenbeck, J. R., & Klein, H. J. (1987). Goal commitment and the goal-setting process: Problems, prospects, and proposals for future research. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 72*, 212-220.
- 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: South Illinois University Press.
- House, R. J. (1995). Leadership in the twenty-first century: A speculative inquiry. In A. Howard (Ed.), *The changing nature of work* (pp. 411-450). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- House, R. J., & Aditya, R. N. (1997). The social scientific study of leadership: Quo vadis? *Journal of Management, 23*, 409-473.
- House, R. J., & Dessler, G. (1974). The path-goal theory of leadership: Some post hoc and a priori tests. In J. G. Hunt & L. L. Larson (Eds.), *Contingency approaches to leadership* (pp. 29-55). Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press.
- House, R. J., & Podsakoff, P. M. (1994). Leadership effectiveness. In J. Greenberg (Ed.), *Organizational behavior: The state of the science* (pp. 45-82). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- 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). San Diego: Academic Press.
- Howell, J. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1993). Transformational leadership, transactional leadership, locus of control, and support for innovation: Key predictors of consolidated-business-unit performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78*, 891-902.
- Howell, J. M., & Frost, P. J. (1989). A laboratory study of charismatic leadership. *Organizational Behavior & Human Decision Processes, 43*, 243-269.
- Howell, J. M., & Hall-Merenda, K. E. (1999). The ties that bind: The impact of leader-member exchange, transformational and transactional leadership, and distance on predicting follower performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 84*, 680-694.
- Ilies, R., & Judge, T. A. (2005). Goal regulation across time: The effects of feedback and affect. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*, 453-467.
- Izard, C. E. (1991). *The psychology of emotions*. New York: Plenum.
- Judge, T. A., & Bono, J. E. (2000). Five-factor model of personality and transformational leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*, 751-765.
- Jung, D. I., & Avolio, B. J. (1999). Effects of leadership style and followers' cultural orientation on performance in group and individual task conditions. *Academy of Management Journal, 42*, 208-218.
- Jung, D. I., & Avolio, B. J. (2000). Opening the black box: An experimental investigation of the mediating effects of trust and value congruence on transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 21*, 949-964.
- Kanfer, R. (1996). Self-regulatory and other non-ability determinants of skill acquisition. In P. M. Gollwitzer & J. A. Bargh (Eds.), *The psychology of action* (pp. 404-423). New York: Guilford Press.
- Kanfer, R., & Ackerman, P. L. (1989). Motivation and cognitive abilities: An integrative aptitude-treatment interaction approach to skill acquisition [Monograph]. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74*, 657-690.
- Kelly, J. R., & Barsade, S. G. (2001). Mood and emotions in small groups and work teams. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 86*, 99-130.
- Kirkpatrick, S. A., & Locke, E. A. (1996). Direct and indirect effects of three core charismatic leadership components on performance and attitudes. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81*, 36-51.
- Kirkpatrick, S. A., Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. (1996). Implementing the vision: How is it done? *Polish Psychological Bulletin, 27*, 93-106.
- Klein, D. J., & Cacioppo, J. L. (1993). *The facial expressiveness scale and the autonomic reactivity scale*. Unpublished manuscript, Ohio State University.
- Kotter, J. P. (1990). *A force for change: How leadership differs from management*. New York: Free Press.

- Larsen, R. J., & Diener, E. (1992). Promises and problems with the circumplex model of emotion. *Review of Personality and Social Psychology, 13*, 25-59.
- Larwood, L., Falbe, C. M., Kriger, M. P., & Miesing, P. (1995). Structure and meaning of organizational vision. *Academy of Management Journal, 38*, 740-769.
- Latham, G. P., & Locke, E. A. (1991). Self-regulation through goal setting. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 50*, 212-247.
- Lee, K., & Allen, N. J. (2002). Organizational citizenship behavior and workplace deviance: The role of affect and cognitions. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*, 131-142.
- Lewis, K. M. (2000). When leaders display emotion: How followers respond to negative emotional expression of male and female leaders. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 21*, 221-234.
- Locke, E. A. (1991a). Goal theory vs. control theory: Contrasting approaches to understanding work motivation. *Motivation and Emotion, 15*, 9-28.
- Locke, E. A. (1991b). *The essence of leadership*. New York: Lexington Books.
- Locke, E. A. (1997). The motivation to work: What we know. *Advances in Motivation and Achievement, 10*, 375-412.
- Locke, E. A. (2000). Motivation, cognition, and action: An analysis of studies of task goals and knowledge. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 49*, 408-429.
- Locke, E. A. (2003). Foundations for a theory of leadership in profit-making organizations. In S. Murphy (Ed.), *The future of leadership development*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Locke, E. A., & Bryan, J. F. (1969). The directing function of goals in task performance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 4*, 35-42.
- Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. (1990). *A theory of goal setting and task performance*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Lowe, K. B., Kroeck, K. G., & Sivasubramaniam, N. (1996). Effectiveness correlates of transformation and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic review of the MLQ literature. *Leadership Quarterly, 7*, 385-425.
- Martin, L. L., Abend, T., Sedikides, C., & Green, J. D. (1997). How would it feel if...? Mood as input to a role fulfillment evaluation process. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 73*, 242-243.
- Martin, L. L., Ward, D. W., Achee, J. W., & Wyer, R. S. Jr. (1993). Mood as input: People have to interpret the motivational implications of their moods. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 64*, 317-326.
- Matthews, G., Davies, D. R., & Lees, J. L. (1990). Arousal, extraversion, and individual differences in resource availability. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 59*, 150-168.
- Mento, A. J., Steel, R. P., & Karren, R. J. (1987). A meta-analytic study of the effects of goal setting on task performance: 1966-1984. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 39*, 52-83.
- Mintzberg, H., & Waters, J. A. (1985). Of strategies, deliberate and emergent. *Strategic Management Journal, 6*, 257-272.
- Mitchell, T. R. (1997). Matching motivational strategies with organizational contexts. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 19*, 57-149.
- Mitchell, T. R., Thompson, K. R., & George-Falvy, J. (2000). Goal setting: Theory and practice. In C. L. Cooper & E. A. Locke (Eds.), *Industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 216-249). Oxford, UK: Blackwell.
- Naylor, J. C., Pritchard, R. D., & Ilgen, D. R. (1980). *A theory of behavior in organizations*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Northouse, P. G. (1997). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- O'Reilly, C. A. III. (1991). Organizational behavior: Where we've been, where we're going. *Annual Review of Psychology, 42*, 427-458.

- Plutchik, R. (1994). *The psychology and biology of emotion*. New York: Harper Collins.
- Pinder, C. C. (1998). *Work motivation in organizational behavior*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Ahearne, M., & Bommer, W. H. (1995). Searching for a needle in a haystack: Trying to identify the illusive moderators of leadership behaviors. *Journal of Management*, 21, 423-470.
- Russell, J. A., & Carroll, J. M. (1999). On the bipolarity of positive and negative affect. *Psychological Bulletin*, 125, 3-30.
- Rusting, C. L., & DeHart, T. (2000). Retrieving positive memories to regulate negative mood: Consequences for mood-congruent memory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 78, 737-752.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, 55, 68-78.
- Sashkin, M. (1986). True vision in leadership. *Training and Development Journal*, 40, 58-61
- Sashkin, M. (1988). The visionary leader. In J. A. Conger & R. M. Kanungo (Eds.), *Charismatic leadership: The elusive factor in organizational effectiveness* (pp. 122-160). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Schwarz, N., & Clore, G. L. (1983). Mood, misattribution, and judgments of well-being: Informative and directive functions of affective states. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 45, 513-523.
- Seo, M., Feldman Barrett, L., & Bartunek, J. M. (2004). The role of affective experience in work motivation. *Academy of Management Review*, 29, 423-439.
- Shamir, B., House, R. J., & Arthur, M. B. (1993). The motivational effects of charismatic leaders: A self-concept based theory. *Organizational Science*, 4, 577-594.
- Shamir, B., Zakay, E., Breinin, E., & Popper, M. (1998). Correlates of charismatic leader behavior in military units: Subordinates' attitudes, unit characteristics, and superiors' appraisals of leader performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 41, 387-409.
- Sosik, J. J., Avolio, B. J., & Kahai, S. S. (1997). Effects of leadership style and anonymity on group potency and effectiveness in a group decision support system environment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82, 89-103.
- Sy, T., Côté, S., & Saavedra, R. (2005). The contagious leader: Impact of the leader's mood on the mood of the group members, group affective tone, and group processes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90, 295-305.
- Tellegen, A. (1985). Structures of mood and personality and their relevance to assessing anxiety, with an emphasis on self-report. In A. H. Tuma & J. D. Maser (Eds.), *Anxiety and the anxiety disorders* (pp. 681-706). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Thayer, R. E. (1986). Activation-Deactivation Adjective Check List: Current overview and structural analysis. *Psychological Reports*, 58, 607-614.
- Thayer, R. E. (1989). *The biopsychology of mood and arousal*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Thayer, R. E. (1996). *The origin of everyday moods: Managing energy, tension, and stress*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Tichy, N. M., & Devanna, M. A. (1986). *The transformational leader*. New York: Wiley.
- Tubbs, M. E., & Ekeberg, S. E. (1991). The role of intentions in work motivation: Implications for goal-setting theory and research. *Academy of Management Review*, 16, 180-199.
- Vance, R. J., & Colella, A. (1990). Effects of two types of feedback on goal acceptance and personal goals. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75, 68-76.
- Verbeke, W. (1997). Individual differences in emotional contagion of salespersons: Its effect on performance and burnout. *Psychology and Marketing*, 14, 617-636.
- Watson, D. (2000). *Mood and temperament*. New York: Guilford Press.

- Watson, D., & Clark, L. A. (1994). *The PANAS-X: Manual for the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule - expanded form*. Iowa City: University of Iowa.
- Watson, D., & Clark, L. A. (1997). Extraversion and its positive emotional core. In R. Hogan, J. A. Johnson, & S. R. Briggs (Eds.), *Handbook of personality psychology* (pp. 767-793). San Diego: Academic Press.
- Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54*, 1063-1070.
- Weber, M. (1947). *The theory of social and economic organization*. (Translated by A. M. Henderson & T. Parsons.) New York: Free Press.
- Wofford, J. C., & Goodwin, V. L. (1994). A cognitive interpretation of transactional and transformational leadership theories. *Leadership Quarterly, 5*, 161-186.
- Wofford, J. C., & Liska, L. Z. (1993). Path-goal theories of leadership: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Management, 19*, 857-876.
- Wood, R. E., & Bandura, A. (1989). Social cognitive theory of organization management. *Academy of Management Review, 14*, 361-384.
- Wood, R. E., Mento, A. J., & Locke, E. A. (1987). Task complexity as a moderator of goal effects: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 72*, 416-425.
- 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.
- Zaccaro, S. J., & Banks, D. J. (2001). Leadership, vision, and organizational effectiveness. In S. J. Zaccaro & R. J. Klimoski (Eds.), *The nature of organizational leadership* (pp. 181-218). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.