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The paradox of power sharing: Participative charismatic leaders have subordinates with more instead of less need for leadership

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The paradox of power sharing: Participative charismatic leaders have subordinates with more instead of less need for leadership

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Although charismatic and participative leaders have been noted for their positive effects on criteria such as performance, job satisfaction, and commitment, few studies have looked at the relations with subordinates' leadership needs. In this study, the relations between charismatic and participative leadership, team outcomes, and a team's need for leadership were investigated. The sample consisted of South Pacific CEOs and their top-level management teams from Fiji, Tonga, Samoa, Vanuatu, and the Solomon Islands. Results showed that charismatic leadership was related to both group-level need for leadership and positive team outcomes. However, team outcomes did not mediate the relations between leadership and a team's need for leadership. Additionally, a moderator effect was found between participative leadership and charismatic leadership in explaining a team's need for leadership, implying that teams of subordinates with participative charismatic leaders need more instead of less leadership from their CEOs.

Keywords: Employee participation; Leadership; Organizational effectiveness; Satisfaction; Supervisor/subordinate relations; Top management teams.

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Although a great many studies have focused on the positive effects of charismatic and participative leaders (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Eagly, Johannesen Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Lim & Ployhart, 2004; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Stewart, 2006), not many studies have focused on the effects leaders and outcomes have on the nature of followership. One potentially important effect of charismatic and participative leadership is on subordinates' need for leadership (de Vries, Roe, & Taillieu, 1999). In this study, we will look at the relations between charismatic leadership and participative leadership on the one hand and group-level need for leadership and team outcomes on the other. We will argue that (1) charismatic leadership is related to both group-level need for leadership and team outcomes, (2) team outcomes mediate the relations between both charismatic leadership and participative leadership and group-level need for leadership, and (3) that charismatic leadership and participative leadership interact in the explanation of subordinates' group-level need for leadership. Data from the GLOBE study conducted in Fiji, Tonga, Samoa, Vanuatu, and the Solomon Islands are used to test these hypotheses.

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NEED FOR LEADERSHIP

Need for leadership is defined as "the extent to which an employee wishes a leader to facilitate the paths toward individual, group, and/or organizational goals" (de Vries, Roe, & Taillieu, 2002, p. 122). Need for leadership can vary from no need at all, in which case a subordinate feels that a leader will be unable to facilitate goal attainment, to a strong need for leadership, in which case a subordinate feels that without a leader he or she will be unable to fulfil his/her own goals, group goals, and/or organizational goals. According to de Vries (1997; de Vries et al., 2002), need for leadership is a social-contextual need, which comes about in social settings and which can vary depending on circumstances. That is, in one social setting (e.g., in a sports team) a subordinate may feel a strong need for leadership in order for the team to function effectively, whereas in other social settings (e.g., at work), the same subordinate may feel no need for leadership because the task does not depend on leadership input and because s/he may have sufficient expertise to fulfil leadership functions him/herself.

The two central aspects of the need for leadership definition are the leader him/herself and the outcomes or goals of the subordinate, his/her group, or the organization. The first way in which a subordinate may develop a need for leadership is through the leader him/herself. Leaders are in a unique position to provide (or not provide) subordinates with all kinds of relational and task-related benefits. Weak or absent leaders lack this opportunity, and are thus more likely to decrease subordinates' need for leadership. Changes

in the amount of supervision have been found to be associated with need for leadership, with stronger need for leadership among subordinates of leaders who provide more instead of less leadership (de Vries et al., 2002; Martin, 1983). In the ultimate ''weak'' leadership situation, when a leader is absent, need for leadership has been found to be considerably weaker than in the presence of leadership (de Vries, 1997). This is not entirely self-evident, because in the absence of leadership team coordination may be impaired, which may result in a strong rather than a weak need for leadership among subordinates.

Why is absent leadership associated with weaker need for leadership? The most plausible explanation comes from the ''substitutes for leadership'' theory. Substitutes for leadership are individual, task, and organizational characteristics that are able to ''negate the leader's ability to either improve or impair subordinate satisfaction and performance'' (Kerr & Jermier, 1978, p. 377). That is, either leadership does not emerge because there are substitutes in place that prevent potential leaders to have an impact or team members or the leader him/herself create substitutes that make leadership superfluous. Several substitutes have been proposed, including subordinate characteristics such as ''ability, experience, training, and knowledge'', task characteristics such as ''task-provided feedback'', and organizational characteristics such as ''advisory and staff support'' (Howell, Dorfman, & Kerr, 1986). These substitutes have been theorized to moderate the relations between leadership and outcomes, such that higher levels of the substitutes are associated with weaker relations between leadership and outcomes. Although this theoretical model looked promising, subsequent empirical research failed to consistently find any of the proposed moderating effects of the substitutes for leadership (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Ahearna, & Bommer, 1995). However, some of the substitutes have been found to be related to need for leadership. In line with expectations, ''ability, experience, training, and knowledge'' and ''need for independence'' were negatively related to need for leadership. In contrast with what one would expect based on the substitutes for leadership theory, ''professional orientation'', ''organizational formalization'', ''organizational inflexibility'', and ''advisory and staff support'' were positively related to need for leadership (de Vries, Roe, Taillieu, & Nelissen, 2004). The substitutes for leadership theory argues that professional work and bureaucratic organizations may reduce the ability of leaders to have an impact because of subordinates' professionalism and standard bureaucratic operating procedures, but these results suggest that the complexity of professional and bureaucratic organizations actually enhance subordinates' need for leadership because leaders may add value by helping subordinates to overcome some of the barriers in these organizations which could prevent subordinates from being effective.

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A second way in which a subordinate may develop a need for leadership is through the outcomes of the individual or group. Note that in the previous section we briefly spoke of leadership benefits. Leadership behaviours in themselves may be regarded as "beneficial" insofar as the behaviours are positively evaluated.[1] But additionally, apart from the behaviours themselves, one of the reasons subordinates may be prone to need leadership is because leaders may help subordinates realize positive individual and group outcomes. Consequently, subordinates' need for leadership may be both a result of leadership itself and the outcomes that leaders help bring about. One way in which the outcomes may have an effect on need for leadership is by the attribution of these outcomes to the leader. According to the romance of leadership theory (Meindl, 1990; Meindl, Ehrlich, & Dukerich, 1985), information about the outcomes of an individual or group is processed together with information about focal characteristics of the group, of which the leader is the most salient. Based on associative processes, people tend to believe that leaders have an extraordinary influence on group outcomes, especially when these outcomes are highly positive or negative. Consequently, when positive group outcomes are brought about, the leader is often romanticized by followers, whereas when negative outcomes are brought about, people are quick to blame the leader. In the former case, high need for leadership may ensue; in the latter case, subordinates may believe they are better off without a leader and are thus much less likely to need leadership. Note the difference between the concept of romance of leadership and need for leadership; the romance of leadership theory postulates strong romanticization processes in both positive and negative outcome situations, but less so in intermediate (neither positive nor negative) outcome situations, whereas the need for leadership theory suggests that positive outcome situations result in high need for leadership, negative outcome situations in low need for leadership, and intermediate outcome situations in intermediate levels of need for leadership.

Up until now, leadership and outcomes have been discussed in general terms. In this article, we choose to focus on two leadership constructs, charismatic leadership and participative leadership. First of all, in the last 20 years, research on leadership has focused predominantly on charismatic (or transformational) leadership. Of all leadership styles, charismatic leadership has probably been the most widely studied (Judge &

[1]Note that need for leadership does not appear to be an artefact of evaluation. If this were true, "ability, experience, training, and knowledge" would be positively related to need for leadership and organizational inflexibility would be negatively related to need for leadership. In addition, need for leadership has been found to be unrelated to a common method factor (de Vries et al., 2002).

Piccolo, 2004) and found to be more effective than, or at least as effective as, other leadership styles (Bass et al., 2003; Koene, Vogelaars, & Soeters, 2002). Additionally, in contrast with, for instance, transactional leadership styles, charismatic leaders are leaders who seem to be more deeply and emotionally involved with their subordinates, which may result in a stronger impact on need for leadership. Second, although less studied than charismatic leadership, participative leadership may be interesting in its relation with need for leadership because participative leadership seems to appeal to subordinates' self-determination and self-management, which may contrast with subordinates' need for leadership. However, we will argue that participative leaders may actually strengthen subordinates' need for leadership. In the following paragraphs, we will focus on charismatic and participative leadership consecutively and their potential effects on need for leadership.

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Charismatic leadership

Several meta-analyses have established positive relations between transformational or charismatic leadership and work outcomes (DeGroot, Kiker, & Cross, 2000; Fuller, Patterson, Hester, & Stringer, 1996; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Lowe et al., 1996; Stewart, 2006). In an individual-level analysis of the relation between transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership and individual and organizational outcomes, Judge and Piccolo (2004) found strong positive relations between both transformational and charismatic leadership and subordinates' job satisfaction, satisfaction with the leader, motivation, leader effectiveness, and group performance. Inspection of the results for transformational and charismatic leadership separately (Judge & Piccolo, 2004) revealed that there was no significant difference in the effects of these two leadership constructs which are, apparently rightfully so, often equated with each other. In a meta-analysis of 93 team-level studies, Stewart (2006) found that the relation between transformational leadership and team performance was stronger than the relations between group composition and team design variables and team performance. Both of these studies and the ones published previous to these two (e.g., DeGroot et al., 2000; Fuller et al., 1996; Lowe et al., 1996) indicate that charismatic or transformational leadership is an important construct that has a major impact on people's work life attitudes and behaviours.

There have been, however, only a few studies that have looked at the effects of charismatic leadership on the relationships between leaders and subordinates, and particularly, the effects of charismatic leadership on need for leadership. To conceptualize the relations between leadership and job outcomes on the one hand and need for leadership on the other hand, de

Vries and van Gelder (2005) have proposed the Implicit Followership Theory. This theory argues that job outcomes, leadership, and followership are mutually dependent and strongly intertwined. That is, leaders may have a real (or imagined) effect on the performance or success of a group, which in turn may engender stronger leadership perceptions. Leaders may also have a real (or imagined) effect on the nature of followership (i.e., strong or weak need for leadership), which, in turn, may strengthen or weaken leadership perceptions. In other words, leadership perceptions are determined by *and* determine followership and success perceptions.

The implicit relation between success and leadership perceptions has been noted and studied for some time. Studies have confirmed that a reciprocal relation between leadership and success perceptions exists. On the one hand, the presence of prototypical leadership labels has been found to enhance performance perceptions (Lord, Foti, & de Vader, 1984). On the other hand, positive performance cues have been found to cause stronger prototypical leadership labelling (Meindl, 1990; Phillips & Lord, 1982; Puffer, 1990; Rush, Thomas, & Lord, 1977). The implicit relation between need for leadership and leadership has been tested by de Vries (2000) and de Vries and van Gelder (2005). De Vries (2000) showed that manipulations of need for leadership and performance resulted in significant differences in leadership ratings of a fictitious leader, with especially high leadership ratings in conditions in which a team performed well and subordinates exhibited strong need for leadership. In a second test of the Implicit Followership Theory, de Vries and van Gelder (2005) reproduced these findings and also showed the reverse relation between leadership and followership perceptions, i.e., manipulations of charismatic leadership resulted in significant differences in need for leadership perceptions, with higher charismatic leadership associated with perceptions of stronger need for leadership among subordinates.

Until now, not many field studies have been conducted on the relations between charismatic leadership and concepts akin to need for leadership. Kark, Shamir, and Chen (2003) looked at both dependence and empowerment of transformational leaders and found that higher transformational leadership co-occurred with both higher dependency *and* higher empowerment. However, Kark et al. did not look at the relations between dependence on the leader and leadership outcomes such as effectiveness, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Similar to Kark et al. de Vries et al. (1999) found a positive relation between charismatic leadership and need for leadership. They noted that subordinates seem to need more leadership, instead of less, when a charismatic leader is present. At the same time, they found positive relations between charismatic leadership and outcome variables such as subordinates' job satisfaction and organizational commitment. However, de Vries et al.'s study did not investigate the

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relations between the outcomes and need for leadership. The question thus remains in what ways leadership, outcomes, and need for leadership are related to each other in field settings.

Although the relation been leadership and need for leadership has been investigated at the individual level (de Vries et al., 1999, 2002), more and more studies seem to suggest that leadership, and especially charismatic leadership, is a group-level phenomenon (Stewart, 2006). In this study, we also take a group-level perspective on need for leadership. Conceptualized in terms of a group-level need, leadership, and especially CEO leadership, may play an even stronger role because the organizational and top management team structure and culture are inextricably linked with leadership behaviours (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004; Schein, 1985; Tsui, Zhang, Wang, Xin, & Wu, 2006). Furthermore, operationalized at the group level, idiosyncratic perceptual mechanisms, which may cause individual need for leadership to affect leadership perceptions, are less likely to play a role, as they are likely to be cancelled out in the process of aggregation. Consequently, it is probably more likely that leadership behaviours affect a group's need for leadership instead of vice versa. In line with the previously mentioned thinking, we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 1: Charismatic leadership is positively related to positive team outcomes, such as a team's job satisfaction, commitment, and effectiveness.

Hypothesis 2: Charismatic leadership is positively related to a team's need for leadership.

One question that remains, however, is whether the effect of charismatic leadership on need for leadership is a distinctive effect, separate from the outcomes, or whether charismatic leadership affects need for leadership through the outcomes. Previously, we have discussed the possible role of outcomes in shaping subordinates' need for leadership. In line with notions derived from the romance of leadership theory (Meindl, 1990; Meindl et al., 1985), it may be argued that subordinates need their leaders mainly because they can bring about outcomes that are desired by the subordinates, and, consequently, that these outcomes mediate the relation between charismatic leadership and need for leadership. However, it may also be true that need for leadership is an attitude separate from the outcomes and that leaders may be able to instill, through their charisma, a need for leadership in their subordinates independent from the outcomes that they bring about. In this study, we will investigate these conflicting positions through the following, third, hypothesis:

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Hypothesis 3: Team outcomes mediate the relations between charismatic leadership and need for leadership.

Participative leadership

Participative leadership involves the process in which leaders share some or all of their influence with their subordinates (Locke & Schweiger, 1979; Wagner & Gooding, 1987). The main area in which participative leadership is of relevance is in decision-making situations; participative leadership can vary from consultation of group members by a leader to majority or consensus decision making by the group in which the leader restricts him/herself to a facilitator role. In Vroom and Jago's (1988) normative model, the effectiveness of participative leadership in terms of decision quality, commitment, and costs, depends on a number of situational contingencies. Although situational variables do seem to make a difference (Brown & Finstuen, 1993), research has shown that participative leadership by itself is positively related to outcomes (Cotton, Vollrath, Froggatt, Lengnick-Hall, & Jennings, 1988; Field & House, 1990; Heilman, Hornstein, Cage, & Herschlag, 1984; Wagner, 1994). For example, in a meta-analysis by Stewart (2006), the relation between empowering leadership, a concept akin to participative leadership, and team performance was as strong as the relation between transformational leadership and team performance. However, unlike transformational leadership but in line with contingency expectations, heterogeneity statistics indicated that there were possible moderator effects, such as situational variables, that may increase or decrease the strength of the relation between empowering leadership and team performance.

As an example of a situational contingency, the normative model of Vroom and Jago (1988) proposes that leaders should use a more participative style of leadership when development of subordinates is deemed to be important. Interestingly enough, however, the process of participation may actually increase rather than decrease subordinates' need for leadership and dependency on the leader, at least in the short run. For instance, in a study by Mulder and Wilke (1970), participation actually increased rather than decreased the amount of power and influence an expert had over somebody with less expertise. Participation seems to make apparent the difference in expertise and information available to supervisors and subordinates, which consequently may make a subordinate more instead of less dependent on the supervisor.

Leaders may also have reasons for not using participative leadership. For example, to prevent their authority from being undermined, school teachers are more likely to use more coercive power bases (i.e., less participative

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leadership), when conflicts between them and pupils arise (Schwarzwald, Koslowsky, & Brody-Shamir, 2006). Leaders may similarly be less likely to use participative leadership when they are less confident that participative leadership will engender subordinates' cooperation and acceptance of the leader's expertise and suggestions. Thus, self-confidence and ability are not only more likely to make a leader choose a participative style, but leaders may also be more likely to more fully exhibit their self-confidence and ability when using a participative leadership style than when using a more authoritarian style. As such, when leaders use a more participative style, the difference in expertise between a leader and his/her subordinates is likely to become more apparent (Mulder & Wilke, 1970), which in the short run may strengthen subordinates' need for leadership. The previous lines of reasoning are reflected in the following two hypotheses:

Hypothesis 4: Participative leadership is positively related to positive team outcomes, such as a team's job satisfaction, commitment, and effectiveness.

Hypothesis 5: Participative leadership is positively related to need for leadership.

Participative charisma

There is a surprising lack of research on the interaction of leadership styles. Most studies on leadership look at the interaction with situational characteristics; theoretically the interaction between different leadership styles may also be of great interest. Recently, studies have shown that personality traits may interact to predict various job outcomes (Judge & Erez, 2007; Witt, Burke, Barrick, & Mount, 2002). Similar suggestions may also be put forward in the area of leadership research. Athough charismatic leadership and participative leadership are likely to be related to each other, both theoretically and practically it is useful to regard participative charismatic, authoritarian charismatic, participative noncharismatic, and authoritarian noncharismatic leaders as endpoints of a rotated two-dimensional charismatic and participative leadership space. The question is whether the combination of charismatic and participative leadership yields different findings from a separate inspection of these leadership styles. Because leadership has its strongest effects on subordinates' attitudes towards the leader, it is reasonable to assume that an interaction of leadership styles will also have its greatest effects on leadership attitudes such as need for leadership. In the case of a charismatic leader who is participative, subordinates may have an especially high need for leadership

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because: (1) Subordinates may be more strongly eager to please their charismatic leader and to fulfil his/her vision, but (2) the leader's participativeness may provide uncertainty to what exactly needs to be done in order to realize his/her ideals. On the other hand, need for leadership may be especially low in the case of an authoritarian noncharismatic leader because: (1) There are no visions or ideals which heighten the sense that the leader is needed in order to realize them, and (2) a nonparticipative or authoritarian leader may cut short discussions and problem-solving efforts of subordinates for which the leader was needed. Additionally, when faced with a problem, subordinates of an authoritarian leader may be more likely to turn to others in order to avoid confronting his/her authoritarian style. Consequently, although there are no other studies to back up our position, we would like to investigate whether participative leadership and charismatic leadership interact in the prediction of need for leadership using the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 6: Charismatic and participative leadership interact in the prediction of need for leadership.

To summarize, in this study we will employ a group-level perspective to investigate the relations between leadership, outcomes, and need for leadership. Not only does this study add to our knowledge by employing a team-level design to study the relations between abovementioned variables, but it will also investigate these relations to find out whether previously established relations (e.g., between leadership and outcomes) also hold in teams of nonwestern top-managers who report directly to a CEO.

METHOD

Sample and procedure

All data, except for data on need for leadership and job satisfaction, were collected as part of the GLOBE research project carried out by more than 170 scholars in more than 60 countries. This study used the standard GLOBE measures and two additional measures on need for leadership and job satisfaction that were only used as part of the data collection in the South Pacific. The South Pacific islands region is a somewhat remote setting, in which traditional ways of life go together with subsidiaries of modern, western companies. All CEOs of organizations with more than 40 employees in Fiji, Samoa, the Solomon Islands, Tonga, and Vanuatu were contacted by a formal letter and a follow-up telephone call to participate in the GLOBE project. The CEOs of these organizations were asked to nominate four to eight top managers to fill out a questionnaire; the final data used in this

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study were provided by these top managers. Of the CEOs approached, 132 volunteered to participate and to provide a list of top managers to recruit for the study. The final sample included data from 62 Fijian, 22 Samoan, 23 Solomon Islands, 18 Tongan, and seven Vanuatu organizations. Of the 132 CEOs, 111 (74.2% male) filled out a short CEO questionnaire. The mean age of the CEOs was 44.9 ($SD = 10.0$). Of the top managers nominated by the CEO and subsequently approached by us, 246 (46.6%), representing 88 organizations, filled out a top manager questionnaire. The number of top managerial team members included in this study from each organization ranged between 1 and 6 ($M = 2.80$, $SD = 1.27$). The mean age of the top managers was 39.1 years ($SD = 9.3$). Although the sample can be considered to be somewhat unusual, our experiences with the managers who were part of this sample suggested that they were mostly far from traditional and most often resorted to western management practices when running their company.

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Measures

All data included in this study were obtained from the top managers of the aforementioned 88 organizations. To prevent common source bias from occurring, (1) we randomly assigned top managers to two conditions, the first which contained measures on CEO leadership and need for leadership, and the second which contained measures on team outcomes, and (2) we aggregated data to the top managers' team level. The CEO leadership and need for leadership measures used in this study, which are discussed later, were obtained from almost half of the sample of top managers ($N = 125$) nominated by the CEOs, representing 75 of the aforementioned 88 organizations. Of these 125 nominees, 25.6% were single respondents representing one organization, 52.8% consisted of two respondents from the same organization, and 21.6% consisted of three respondents of the same organization. The team outcome measures were obtained from the other half of the top managers ($N = 121$), representing 72 of the 88 organizations. Of these 121 nominees, 27.3% were single respondents representing one organization, 49.6% consisted of two respondents, 19.8% of three, and 3.3% of four respondents of the same organization. There was no significant difference between the two halves of top managers who were nominated by a CEO with respect to age, $t(df = 231) = 1.21$, $p = .21$; however, there were somewhat more female top managers who responded to the leadership measures (29.5%) than to the team outcome measures (17.4%), $\chi^2(df = 1) = 5.00$, $p = .03$.

Leadership measures. To measure the top managers' perception of charismatic and participative leadership of the CEO we used items from the

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Multi-Culture Leader Behaviour Questionnaire (MCLQ; Hanges & Dickson, 2004; House, Delbecq, Taris, & Sully de Luque, 2001). House et al. (2001) based the charismatic leadership scale on work conducted on charismatic leadership by Bass and colleagues (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1990). The charismatic leadership scale used in this study was the same as the one used by de Hoogh et al. (2005) and consisted of eight items related to a leader's vision, values, personal sacrifices, convictions, self-confidence, and performance standards. An example of an item is: ''Has a vision and imagination of the future.'' Respondents rated the items on a 1 (''strongly disagree'') to 7 (''strongly agree'') scale. The internal consistency reliabilities of charismatic leadership and the other scales were calculated after the scores were aggregated (see below under ''Analyses'') and are noted in Table 1. The internal consistency reliability of the charismatic leadership scale was .86.

To measure the top managers' perception of participative leadership of the CEO, six items from the MCLQ (Hanges & Dickson, 2004; House et al., 2001) were used. These items reflected the degree to which a leader allows his/her subordinates discretion to carry out projects and tasks, the extent to which a leader lets subordinates participate in strategic decision making, and the willingness of the leader to change decisions based on recommendations by subordinates. The items were: ''Tends to be unwilling or unable to relinquish control of projects or tasks'' (reversed), ''Does not allow others to participate in decision making'' (reversed), ''Gives subordinates a high degree of discretion to perform their work'', ''Allows subordinates to have influence on critical decisions'', ''Seeks advice concerning organizational

TABLE 1
Descriptives and correlation matrix with reliabilities (in italic) on the diagonal

	M	*SD*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*
1. CEO gender	1.12	0.32	—							
2. CEO age	44.91	10.00	−.25	—						
3. Charismatic leadership	5.68	0.91	.20	.06	*.86*					
4. Participative leadership	5.32	1.06	.11	.18	.63**	*.77*				
5. Team need for leadership	4.01	0.67	−.03	.06	.54**	.48**	*.93*			
6. Job satisfaction	3.94	0.47	−.07	.13	.45**	.48**	.40**	*.88*		
7. Commitment	5.90	0.87	.02	.16	.51**	.43**	.33*	.49**	*.79*	
8. Team effectiveness	5.38	0.88	.08	.12	.58**	.46**	.44**	.53**	.61**	*.60*

CEO gender: 1 = male, 2 = female; *N* varies between 57 and 73 management teams except for the correlation between CEO gender and CEO age ($N = 108$); for explanation of the scales and scale score range, see text. *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$.

strategy from subordinates", "Will reconsider decisions on the basis of recommendations by those who report to him/her." Respondents rated the items on a 7-point ("strongly disagree" to "strongly agree") scale. The internal consistency reliability of participative leadership was .77.

To measure top managers' need for leadership, we used the 17 items of de Vries et al. (2002). Prior work of de Vries (1997) distinguished between an individual's "subjective" individual need for leadership and a more "objective" group-level need for leadership. Subjective (individual-level) need for leadership refers to the extent to which subordinates themselves need their leader, and objective (group-level) need for leadership refers to the extent to which subordinates believe a supervisor is necessary given the type of job of the team members. De Vries (1997) found that an individual's need for leadership correlated .65 with group-level need for leadership. The profile of individual need for leadership correlated even stronger with the profile of group-level need for leadership, (i.e., .92). Additionally, it was found that an individual's abilities and expertise were strongly related to the difference between somebody's individual need for leadership and somebody's group-level need for leadership. Consequently, prior work suggests that individual and group-level need for leadership show strong overlap and that the main difference between these two lie in the stronger prevalence of an individual's abilities and expertise in his/her individual need for leadership. To rule out the effect of an individual's abilities and expertise and to make sure that need for leadership reflected subordinates' needs at the management team level instead of at the individual level, the questionnaire used the group-level need for leadership items, which measured a team's need for leadership on the 17 aspects given the nature of the tasks of the top-level management team. The items consisted of a stem ("A CEO in this type of work is needed to ... ") and the following 17 separate aspects: set goals, decide what work should be done, transfer knowledge, motivate, coordinate, plan, and organize work, maintain external contacts, provide information, gear all activities of the team for one another, create a good team spirit, provide support, arrange things with upper management, handle conflicts, give work-related feedback, correct mistakes, help solve problems, recognize and reward contributions, and inspire. The 17 items were scored on a 5-point scale with the following anchors: 1 = "not at all", 2 = "not much", 3 = "partly", 4 = "mainly", and 5 = "a lot". A study by Schyns, Kroon, and Moors (2008) has shown that (subjective) need for leadership is positively related to dependence on a leader, $r = .32$, $p < .01$, $N = 588$, but that these measures are also distinct. In contrast to the need for leadership items, Kark et al.'s (2003) dependence on a leader items asks directly whether the effectiveness of subordinates is affected by a leader's absence. Because in this way a confound may result between the dependence measure and outcomes, the dependence on a leader

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measure was not included in this study. The internal consistency reliability of the team need for leadership scale in this study was .93.

Team outcome measures. Top managers' team outcomes were measured in a separate questionnaire from the leadership measures. To measure top managers' job satisfaction, we used a 19-item version[2] of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967). The items asked how respondents felt about certain aspects of their jobs. The answering categories ranged from 1 (''very dissatisfied'') to 5 (''very satisfied''). Examples of items were: ''The chance to do different things from time to time'', ''The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities'', and ''My pay and the amount of work I do''. In this study, the internal consistency reliability of the Job Satisfaction questionnaire was .88.

The other team outcome items were derived from the MCLQ (Hanges & Dickson, 2004; House et al., 2001). We used six items to measure top managers' commitment and four items to measure the perceived effectiveness of the top management team. All 10 items were measured using a seven-point (''strongly disagree'' to ''strongly agree'') answering scale. Examples of commitment items are: ''I am optimistic about my future with this organization'' and ''I am willing to make serious personal sacrifices to contribute to the success of the organization.'' The internal consistency reliability of commitment was .79. Examples of team effectiveness items are: ''People at my level work well together'' and ''The top managers work as an effective team.'' The internal consistency reliability of team effectiveness was .60.

Analyses

To match the leadership measures with the team outcome measures, all scales were aggregated to the organizational level. Note that for each of the organizations, one to four respondents filled out either the leadership or the team outcome measures included in this study. To justify aggregation, we calculated the intraclass correlation coefficients ICC(1) and ICC(2) (Shrout & Fleiss, 1979) on the organizations with two to four respondents ($k = 42$ organizations and $n = 92$ respondents in the case of the leadership measures and $k = 39$ organizations and $n = 88$ respondents in the case of the team outcomes measures). Both the ICC(1) and the ICC(2) are a function of the within-group and between-group variance; they are equal to one if all of the variance is at the between-group level and none is at the within-group level. The ICC(1) is associated with the reliability of single ratings in a

[2]Due to a copying error, the last item of the 20-item Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire was omitted from the questionnaire.

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group, while the ICC(2) is associated with the reliability of the group means. For all of the variables, analyses of variance yielded significant between-group differences; ICC(1) ranged from 0.26 for team effectiveness to 0.52 for charismatic leadership, with a mean of 0.33, and ICC(2) ranged from 0.44 for team effectiveness to 0.70 for charismatic leadership, with a mean of 0.52. The somewhat lower results of team effectiveness are in line with the lower internal consistency reliability noted in the previous paragraph. Consequently, care should be taken when interpreting the results from the team effectiveness measure. However, for all of the variables it appeared to be justifiable to aggregate the data to the team level. To make full use of the data, we also included data from teams with only one respondent on either the leadership measures or the team outcomes included in this study. All correlational and regression results reported in the results section are based on aggregated data. Matched and complete data (i.e., on both leadership and team outcomes) was available for 57 teams.

To test the hypotheses we used a moderated mediation test suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986). Specifically, in the first step of the analyses, we regressed charismatic leadership, participative leadership, and the interaction between charismatic and participative leadership on the dependent variable team need for leadership. In line with procedures advocated by Aiken and West (1991), charismatic leadership and participative leadership were standardized before being multiplied to constitute the interaction term. In the second step, we regressed these three independent leadership variables on the mediator variables. Because there are three possible mediators (i.e., the team outcome variables job satisfaction, commitment, and team effectiveness), this analysis was repeated three times. Finally, in the third step we regressed the three independent leadership variables and the mediator on the dependent variable team need for leadership. Again, this analysis was performed three times for each of the mediators. The complete model is shown in Figure 1.

RESULTS

Descriptive and correlational statistics are reported in Table 1. Note that the background information (CEO gender and CEO age) were obtained from the CEO him/herself, and the leadership and team outcome scales were obtained from two separate questionnaires which were aggregated to the management team level. Both CEO gender and CEO age were unrelated to any of the leadership and team outcome variables. Most of the correlations between the leadership scales and team outcomes were higher than .40, except for the correlation between need for leadership and commitment ($r = .33$). Two of the correlations were higher than .60, the relation between charismatic and participative leadership was .63, and the relation between

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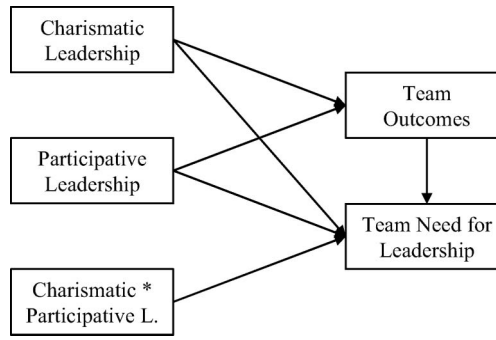

Figure 1. Model of the investigated relations between charismatic leadership, participative leadership, their interaction, team outcomes, and team need for leadership (for a full explanation, see text).

team effectiveness and commitment was .61. The correlations offer support for the positive relation between charismatic leadership and team outcomes (Hypothesis 1), for the positive relation between charismatic leadership and team need for leadership (Hypothesis 2), for the positive relation between participative leadership and team outcomes (Hypothesis 4), and for the positive relation between participative leadership and team need for leadership (Hypothesis 5).

To test the direct relations, mediation effects, and moderator effect proposed in the introduction, we conducted a three-step analysis suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986), as described in the Method section. In the first step of the analyses, team need for leadership was regressed on charismatic leadership, participative leadership, and the interaction between charismatic and participative leadership. The outcome of this moderated multiple regression, testing Hypotheses 2, 5, and 6, showed that charismatic leadership and the interaction between charismatic and participative leadership were significantly related to team need for leadership and that participative leadership had a marginal significant relation with team need for leadership (see Table 2). Thus, not only was the relation between charismatic leadership and team need for leadership (Hypothesis 2) again supported, the evidence also supported the interaction between charismatic leadership and participative leadership in the prediction of team need for leadership (Hypothesis 6). The moderated regression offered less support for the relation between participative leadership and team need for leadership when controlling, in participative leadership, for the variance associated with charismatic leadership (Hypothesis 5). To visualize the interaction between charismatic and participative leadership, regression lines depicting the relation between charismatic leadership and need for leadership were drawn for low (one standard deviation below the mean) and high (one standard

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TABLE 2
Multiple regressions to test the hypothesized moderator and mediation effects

	DV = Team need for leadership		
	1. IV → DV	*2. IV → M*	*3. IV&M → DV*
IV1 = Charismatic leadership	.32*	.25	.33*
IV2 = Participative leadership	.22†	.34*	.12
IV1 × IV2	−.24*	.09	−.26*
M = Job satisfaction			.17
ΔR^2			.02
Adjusted total R^2	.35**	.22**	.38**
IV1 = Charismatic leadership	.32*	.39**	.37*
IV2 = Participative leadership	.22†	.14	.17
IV1 × IV2	−.24*	−.07	−.24*
M = Commitment			.01
ΔR^2			.00
Adjusted total R^2	.35**	.24**	.36**
IV1 = Charismatic leadership	.32*	.48**	.32*
IV2 = Participative leadership	.22†	.10	.16
IV1 × IV2	−.24*	−.11	−.23*
M = Team effectiveness			.11
ΔR^2			.01
Adjusted total R^2	.35**	.32**	.36**

$N = 72$ in the first step (IV → DV); $N = 57$ in subsequent steps (IV → M and IV&M → DV); IV = independent variable; M = mediator; DV = dependent variable. $^{\dagger}p < .10$, $^{*}p < .05$, $^{**}p < .01$.

deviation above the mean) participative leadership. The graph in Figure 2 shows that teams of subordinates indicate a strong need for leadership at high levels of participative leadership or at high levels of charismatic leadership, but a weak need for leadership when leaders show low levels of both participative and charismatic leadership.

In the second step of the analyses, the mediators (team outcomes) were regressed on charismatic leadership, participative leadership, and the interaction between charismatic leadership and participative leadership. None of the three analyses (i.e., for job satisfaction, commitment, and team effectiveness, separately) yielded a significant interaction effect. Interestingly, the analyses did show different effects of charismatic and participative leadership. In the case of job satisfaction, participative leadership was the significant predictor and charismatic leadership was not. However, the results for commitment and team effectiveness were reversed. Participative leadership was not significantly related to commitment and team effectiveness, whereas charismatic leadership was. Thus, Hypothesis 1, suggesting relations between charismatic leadership and team outcomes, and Hypothesis 3, suggesting relations between participative leadership and team

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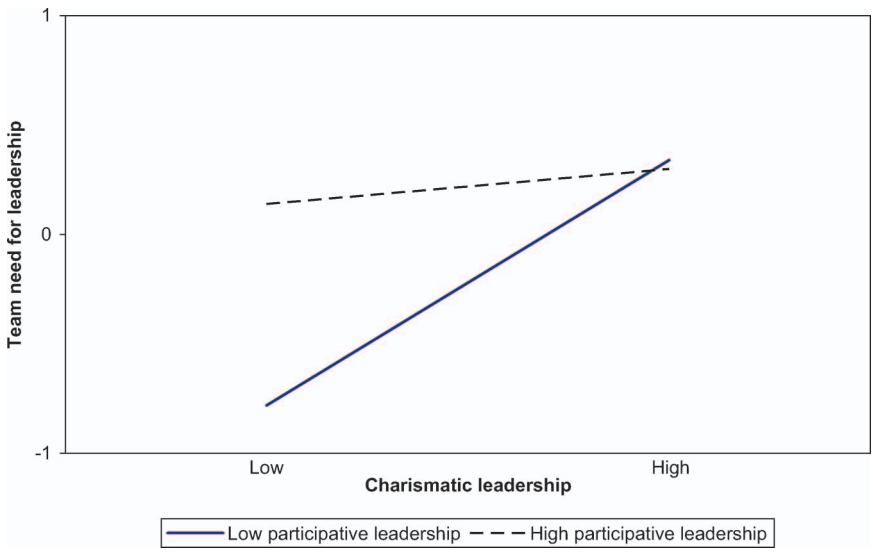

Figure 2. Team need for leadership as a function of the interaction between charismatic leadership and participative leadership (lines are drawn at one standard deviation below and above the means of charismatic and participative leadership).

outcomes, were both partially supported for the three team outcome variables. Note again that the discrepancy between these findings and those of the correlational analyses are probably mainly due to the overlap between charismatic leadership and participative leadership.

In the third and final step, team need for leadership was regressed on the three independent variables and the mediators again in three separate analyses (for each of the three mediators subsequently—see the third column of Table 2). None of the three mediators showed a significant relation with team need for leadership, thus disconfirming Hypothesis 3 by failing to show the presence of a mediation effect. Sobel tests for each of the three different mediation effects also failed to demonstrate the presence of mediation. The indirect effects from charismatic leadership on team need for leadership through the respective mediators were $z = 1.19$ ($p = .23$, two-tailed) for job satisfaction, $z = 0.09$ ($p = .93$, two-tailed) for commitment, and $z = 0.74$ ($p = .46$, two-tailed) for team effectiveness.

DISCUSSION

In the past 20 years, many studies have focused on the potential positive effects of charismatic or transformational leadership in terms of outcome variables, but not many studies have focused on the effects of leadership on

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followership. In this study, we focused on the possible effects of charismatic leadership on a team's need for leadership. The results of this study not only suggest that charismatic leadership and group-level need for leadership are positively related, but also that subordinates especially need leadership in their team in the presence of participative charismatic leaders. Furthermore, the results suggest that the relation between charismatic leadership and group-level need for leadership is not mediated by team outcomes. The results support and extend findings from scenario studies (de Vries, 2000; de Vries & van Gelder, 2005) and field studies (de Vries et al., 1999; Kark et al., 2003) whilst including top managers from a nonwestern setting (i.e., island nations in the South Pacific). Consequently, the results suggest that it is possible to generalize the findings over vastly different samples and different methods.

The mediation hypothesis, suggesting that the relation between charismatic leadership and group-level need for leadership is mediated by team outcomes, was not supported for any of the three criteria. Consequently, it appears that romanticization of leadership in terms of a team's need for leadership is mainly brought about by a leader's charisma, and not so much by the team outcomes. These results are in line with notions of charismatic leadership (de Vries & van Gelder, 2005; Kark et al., 2003) that seem to suggest that the need for leadership of groups of subordinates are dependent on the behaviours exhibited by the leader rather than the outcomes, which are a result of these very same behaviours. Although romanticization theory (Meindl, 1990; Meindl et al., 1985) seems to suggest that subordinates have a stronger need for leadership when outcomes are positive, this appears to be brought about because subordinates focus primarily on the leadership behaviours to determine whether they need leadership or not. The evaluation of leadership thus seems to take precedence over the evaluation of outcomes in subordinates' need for leadership.

With respect to the interaction hypothesis, charismatic and participative leadership were found to significantly interact in the prediction of group-level need for leadership. Group-level need for leadership seems to be especially low in conditions in which a low-charismatic low-participative leader is present and especially high in all other conditions. A low-charismatic low-participative (authoritarian) leadership style may act as a deterrent for groups of subordinates, forcing them to consider other ways to accomplish their own and organizational goals. Conversely, in line with Mulder and Wilke (1970), participative leadership may increase the need for leadership of subordinates by making them realize what expertise is missing, whereas, in line with de Vries et al. (1999), charismatic leadership may invoke need for leadership in a group by virtue of the heightened sense of a desired goal or mission visualized by the leader. The combination of these elements appears to bring about the strongest need for leadership in groups

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of subordinates, because it strengthens the sense of a mission for which the leader is needed and because it creates uncertainty by enhancing the felt responsibility of groups of subordinates for the attainment of the mission.

Implications

This study shows that groups of subordinates have a stronger need for leadership, and are thus more likely to be receptive to and dependent on leadership when their leaders are charismatic and when these leaders combine charisma with participative behaviours. Although causality was not tested in this study, previous studies (e.g., de Vries & van Gelder, 2005) suggest that the relation between charismatic leadership and need for leadership or leadership dependency can be bidirectional: (1) Subordinates with high need for leadership are more likely to view their leaders as charismatic or are more likely to ''promote'' charismatic leadership behaviours in their supervisor, and (2) charismatic leaders are more likely to instill a need for leadership in their subordinates or are more likely to select subordinates with a high need for leadership. According to Padilla, Hogan, and Kaiser (2007), suggestible subordinates are more likely to share the characteristics that suggest low self-esteem or high emotionality: unmet basic needs, negative core self-evaluations, and low maturity. In line with these suggestions, de Vries et al. (2004) found negative relations between both age and expertise on the one hand and need for leadership on the other and a positive relation between emotionality and need for leadership.

Interestingly, participative leaders may hold more power over their subordinates by virtue of the fact that their expertise becomes more apparent when they use a participative style of leadership (Mulder & Wilke, 1970). Consequently, participative leadership may often be seen as a strength of a leader (s/he can afford to be participative) instead of as a weakness or indecisiveness (s/he does not know what to do and needs consultation). Charismatic leaders may like to use a participative leadership styles to strengthen their bond with subordinates in order to create a stronger common social identity.

Although this study does not show any negative effects of need for leadership, caution is warranted. Real-life examples, such as Enron and WorldCom (Khurana, 2002; Tourish & Vatcha, 2005) in the US and Ahold and DSB Bank in The Netherlands have shown that short-term positive organizational outcomes can go awry when subordinates become too dependent on a charismatic leader whose leadership and decisions increasingly go unchecked. What can be done to inoculate subordinates against overly powerful charismatic leaders? This question is especially important

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because some of the outcomes of charismatic leadership in terms of satisfaction, commitment, and performance are, at least in the short term, very positive. At first sight, individual characteristics seem to offer the best antidote; that is, older more experienced and emotionally stable subordinates are less likely to become susceptible to charismatic leaders than their younger, less experienced, and more emotional counterparts (de Vries et al., 2004). However, changes in age, experience, and emotionality are not likely to originate in the subordinates themselves, nor from their leader. Additionally, operationalized at the group level, need for leadership is less likely to be a result of individual characteristics. Instead, contextual variables seem to be the most likely to prevent overdependence of subordinates on strong leaders. For example, organizational environments that promote decentralization (low power distance), individualism (instead of collectivism), and multiple power bases (checks and balances) probably offer the most effective remedy against possible negative side-effects of charismatic leadership (Luthans, Peterson, & Ibrayeva, 1998; Padilla et al., 2007). To decrease group-level need for leadership, inoculation procedures may include strong professional bodies, intervision (i.e., supervision between colleagues), the installation of a ''devil's advocate'', and professional training. The common element of these possible antidotes is the exposure of subordinates to different and credible opinions and expertise. In a meta-analysis comparing devil's advocacy to a single expert in decision making, Schwenk (1990) found that conditions with a devil's advocate offered better decisions than conditions with a single expert. Similarly, de Dreu and West (2001) found that, in contrast to homogenous groups, minority dissent in group decision-making procedures resulted in more creative solutions and team innovation. Consequently, ''organized dissent'', whether through an individual devil's advocate or through a minority subgroup, seems to offer the most promising avenue to decrease group-level need for leadership in the face of a strong leader.

However, in this study, the positive effects associated with charismatic leadership seemed to outweigh negative effects. Additionally, in a field study, de Vries et al. (2002) found some support for a proposed moderator effect of need for leadership on the relation between leadership and individual outcomes. Among subordinates with a strong need for leadership there was a somewhat stronger relation between leadership styles and individual outcomes than among subordinates with a weak need for leadership. Consequently, it may be true that groups of subordinates with a strong need for leadership may gain somewhat more from a charismatic and participative leader than subordinates with a weak need for leadership. As long as the leader is ''authentic'', these individual outcomes may strengthen the bond between a subordinate and his/her leader and may have a positive impact on a subordinate's career and long-term job well-being.

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Limitations

There are three main limitations in this study. First, the data was obtained from a highly unusual and, at the group level, somewhat small sample. Second, data on need for leadership was obtained from the same source as the data on leadership itself. And third, there are limitations to the establishment of causality in this study. With respect to the first limitation, although the final group-level sample ($N = 57$) used to test the main hypotheses is somewhat small, this size is not unusual in group-level studies. Furthermore, although the location may be somewhat "exotic", global studies on implicit leadership theories have shown that CEO leadership does not differ to a great extent between different regions in the world (Den Hartog et al., 1999). Additionally, personal experience with the managers in the sample of this study suggested that most of them were highly educated and well-acquainted with western management practices. However, future studies might like to investigate whether cultural values moderate the relations between leadership, outcome variables, and need for leadership.

As for the second limitation, one of the strengths of this study is its group-level design, which may limit problems inherent in same-source data. Furthermore, criteria data was obtained from different subordinates of the same leader, safeguarding the relations between the criteria and both need for leadership and leadership from this limitation. However, the use of different sources may also prevent looking at cross-level effects, such as investigated in Within and Between Analyses (WABA; Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984). Future research might like to obtain predictor and criteria data from all sources in order to investigate not only group-level, but also individual-level and cross-level effects.

With respect to the third limitation, field studies are notably weak for establishing causality but offer, in contrast to experimental studies, rich and more realistic data. Operationalized at the group level, we believe it is more likely that leadership affects need for leadership than the reverse, which entails idiosyncratic perceptual processes. However, such a reversed causality cannot be ruled out completely.[3] In a study by Pillai (1996), for

[3]We did test the relations between charismatic leadership, team outcomes, and team need for leadership using a structural equation model, which showed that a mediational model had a worse fit than a nonmediational model. Although theoretically, we believe that the final model in this study is more defensible, empirically, it was impossible to distinguish between the following three models: one, our model in which charismatic leadership influenced both team outcomes and team need for leadership, a second model in which team need for leadership influences charismatic leadership, which, in turn influences team outcomes, and a third model, in which team outcomes influenced charismatic leadership, which in turn influenced team need for leadership. Results from the structural equation analyses can be obtained from the first author.

instance, it was found that perceptions of crisis foster the emergence of charismatic leadership who were subsequently rated as more effective than leaders in noncrisis situations. These findings suggest that at the group level, an enhanced group-level need for leadership may have an effect on perceptions of leadership. To rule out such an interpretation, future studies might further investigate the relations between charismatic and participative leadership, need for leadership, and team outcomes using experimental designs to complement this study.

CONCLUSIONS

First of all, this study shows that CEO charismatic leadership is positively related to both team outcomes and team need for leadership, but that the team outcomes do not mediate the relations between CEO charismatic leadership and team need for leadership. Consequently, teams of subordinates seem to need leadership mainly on the basis of their CEOs charisma instead of on the basis of the outcomes that are a result of his/her leadership. Second, this study shows that charismatic leadership and participative leadership interact in the prediction of a team's need for leadership. That is, participative charismatic leaders seem to have groups of subordinates with more instead of less need for leadership. Together, the results seem to indicate that leadership not only has positive effects on important outcomes, but also seems to change the nature of followership through its effect on need for leadership.

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