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Effects of Charismatic Content and Delivery on Follower Task Performance

The Moderating Role of Task Charisma Conduciveness

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The current study examined the moderating effect of task type on the effectiveness of charismatic leadership. Using a laboratory study, the content (visionary, nonvisionary) and delivery (expressive, unexpressive) of a leadership speech were manipulated, along with the charisma conduciveness of performance tasks. Based on the propositions asserted by Shamir and Howell, the authors suggest that charisma-conducive tasks are low in analyzability (more complex) and require greater levels of initiative and creativity. In addition, the authors expected that the effects of charismatic leadership on task performance should be more pronounced in terms of quality than quantity of performance. As expected, visionary content and expressive delivery resulted in higher attributions of charismatic leadership. In addition, visionary content led to better quality of performance on more charisma-conducive tasks.

Keywords: *charismatic leadership; charisma conduciveness; task performance; content; delivery*

A recent study of more than 850 of the largest companies in the United States revealed that charismatic CEOs are preferentially hired over noncharismatic CEOs, based on the assumption that they will improve

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followers' performance (Khurana, 2002). Indeed, empirical research has supported the link between charismatic leadership and follower outcomes (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). Yet situational factors can enhance or impede the success of charismatic leaders. For example, charismatic leaders are more effective in crisis situations (Halverson, Holladay, Kazama, & Quiñones, 2004; Halverson, Murphy, & Riggio, 2004; Pillai, 1996; Pillai & Meindl, 1990) and when leading followers who are high in achievement orientation, self-esteem, and need for structure (Ehrhart & Klein, 2001). However, little research has examined the effects of other situational factors on the link between charismatic leadership and follower performance (Shamir & Howell, 1999; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999; Yammarino & Bass, 1991).

One situational variable that is likely to be important is the type of task being completed by followers (Shamir & Howell, 1999). The current study examines the effects of task type on the relationship between charismatic leadership and follower performance using a laboratory study in which both leader and task characteristics are manipulated. Charismatic leadership is manipulated in terms of the leader's visionary content and expressive delivery, and the tasks are manipulated in terms of their expected susceptibility to the effects of charismatic leadership. This study adds to the literature in two important respects. First, this study examines the extent to which visionary content and expressive delivery uniquely affect follower performance. Second, we examine the moderating effects of task type on the relationship between charismatic leadership and follower performance.

The present study has both practical and theoretical relevance for charismatic leadership. It is important to understand when and how charismatic leaders are able to improve follower performance, considering the significant cost and effort that organizations undertake to attract and retain charismatic leaders. Insofar as task characteristics moderate the charismatic leadership–performance relationship, organizations should evaluate the tasks required by their employees before hiring or promoting charismatic leaders. Leaders may also consider the type of tasks on which their followers work when deciding how to approach a leadership situation to match their behavior to the requirements of the situation. In terms of theoretical contributions, considering the role of the task adds an important contingency to models of charismatic leadership that has been relatively ignored in past research. Organizational researchers seeking to examine the effects of charismatic leaders on follower outcomes should find it important to consider the moderating effect of task type.

Theoretical Background and Hypothesis Development

The current study focuses on two dimensions of charismatic leadership first examined by Holladay and Coombs (1994) and later examined by Awamleh and Gardner (1999) and Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996): visionary content and expressive delivery. These facets of charismatic leadership have each received a great deal of attention in the literatures on charismatic and transformational leadership (Baum, Locke, & Kirkpatrick, 1998; Berson, Shamir, Avolio, & Popper, 2001). Vision is included as a component in the theories of Bass (1985), Bennis and Nanus (1985), Conger and Kanungo (1987), House (1977), Kouzes and Posner (1987), and Tichy and Devanna (1986). In fact, charismatic leadership is sometimes referred to as visionary leadership (Sashkin, 1988). A vision is an idealized representation of the organization that the leader wants to achieve and toward which the organization is working (House & Shamir, 1993). The vision and the articulation of that vision function to inspire followers to work toward the leader's goals (Conger & Kanungo, 1987).

Indeed, recent research has demonstrated a positive relationship between charismatic leadership and the use of an inspirational vision, whereas there was a negative relationship between charismatic leadership and the use of an instrumental vision (Sosik & Dinger, in press). Leaders' visions are also reflected in their use of rhetorical devices. Fiol, Harris, and House (1999) found that charismatic leaders used more inclusive language and higher levels of abstraction in their overall speech patterns. Similarly, Shamir, House, and Arthur (1993) suggest that charismatic leaders' speeches contain more references to values and moral justifications, the collective and the collective identity, history, the worth and efficacy of the individuals and the group, higher expectations for the followers, and distant (as opposed to proximal) goals. Emphasizing the moral values of the goal, its history, and the importance of the group and collective identity heightens followers' dedication to organizational goals (Shamir et al., 1993) and builds enthusiasm among followers (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Gardner & Avolio, 1998).

Although the ability to inspire a group is influenced by the message one is sending, the delivery of the message plays a significant role in inspiring followers (Hunt & Conger, 1999). Charismatic leaders use a communication style that is extremely expressive to captivate listeners (Bass, 1985; Gardner & Avolio, 1998; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). Expressiveness includes having energy, leaning toward followers, maintaining direct eye contact, having a relaxed posture, and exhibiting animated facial expressions. Bass (1985)

suggests that charismatic persons exhibit confidence and power through body posture, speaking rate, gestures, smiles, eye contact, and touch. The exhibition of these speech and behavioral patterns makes the leader appear more confident and more likable to the followers (Weierter, 1997). Therefore, both visionary content and expressive delivery should result in greater attributions of charismatic leadership.

Although there are multiple conceptualizations of charismatic and transformational leadership, the predominant model is that of Bass and Avolio (1994). Their model distinguishes among three facets of transformational leadership: charisma, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. In this study, we focus on the charisma dimension of transformational leadership. The charisma construct also includes three facets: attributed charisma, idealized influence, and inspiration motivation. Attributed charisma reflects perceptions of the charismatic leader's personal power and expressed confidence. Idealized influence involves perceptions of the leader's behavior related to serving as a role model for followers by stressing values and beliefs, moral behavior, and a collective mission. Inspiration motivation refers to perceptions of the leader's behaviors aimed at adding meaning to one's work, typically resulting in an increase in follower enthusiasm for the work itself. These behaviors include articulating a compelling vision and expressing optimism that the vision will be achieved.

It is important to note that in Bass's (1985) original conceptualization of transformational leadership, the inspiration construct was theorized to be distinct from the charisma construct, which only included behavioral idealized influence and attributed charisma or idealized influence. However, Bass and Riggio's (2006) recent examination of charismatic leadership suggests that "idealized influence and inspirational motivation usually form a single factor of charismatic-inspirational leadership. The charismatic-inspirational factor is similar to the behaviors described in charismatic leadership theory" (p. 6). Working within the framework, we expect that leaders who use visionary content and expressive delivery will be attributed greater levels of charismatic leadership measured by attributed charisma, idealized influence, and inspiration motivation.

Hypothesis 1a: Visionary content will lead to greater attributions of charismatic leadership than nonvisionary content.

Hypothesis 1b: An expressive delivery will lead to greater attributions of charismatic leadership than an unexpressive delivery.

Task Performance

In addition to affecting perceptions of charisma, leaders' visionary content and expressive delivery are expected to affect followers' task performance. Only one study has experimentally examined the unique effects of visionary content and expressive delivery on follower task performance (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). The findings from that study suggest that only visionary content influences follower performance (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). Vision should be related to follower performance because charismatic vision includes high expectations for and confidence in followers' ability to reach difficult goals, thereby increasing follower self-efficacy (Shamir et al., 1993). In addition, vision often stresses the individual's tie to the collective identity, causing followers to perceive the group's goals as their own goals (Shamir et al., 1993).

However, as noted by Locke et al. (1991), vision is more likely to affect performance if it is effectively communicated to followers. An examination of organizational leaders demonstrated that both the leader's vision and the leader's communication of the vision affect performance (Baum et al., 1998). Other research has linked expressive delivery to performance outcomes. Towler and Dipboye (2001) found that expressive delivery by trainers resulted in better recall of training material. Expressiveness may cause followers to attend more closely to the leader's message and, therefore, learn more information. An expressive delivery can also lead to the perception that the leader is committed to the vision and is motivated by that vision, resulting in perceptions that the leader is more confident and powerful (J. M. Howell & Frost, 1989). Finally, an expressive delivery demonstrates a leader's optimism and confidence to his or her followers.

> *Hypothesis 2a*: Visionary content will lead to greater task performance than nonvisionary content.
> *Hypothesis 2b*: An expressive delivery will lead to greater task performance than an unexpressive delivery.

Task Charisma Conduciveness

Furthermore, we expect that task type will influence the extent to which visionary content and expressive delivery affect follower task performance. There is little research examining the interaction between charismatic leadership and task type. The notable exception is a body of research exploring

the effects of leadership style on group attitudes and performance in a group decision support system (GDSS), which is a system where groups work together using networked computer terminals. The GDSS research has examined the moderating effects of task characteristics and suggests that transformational leadership is more effective at improving follower performance when task interdependence is high (Sosik, 1997; Sosik, Avolio, Kahai, & Jung, 1998). In addition, although transformational leadership generally leads to better performance than nontransformational leadership, this effect may be more pronounced when group members are anonymous than when they are identified (Sosik, Avolio, Kahai, & Jung, 1998; Sosik, Avolio, & Kahai, 1997; Sosik, Kahai, & Avolio, 1999).

In addition, Kahai, Sosik, and Avolio (1997) examined the moderating effect of task structure on the relationship between leadership style (directive or participative) and task performance and found that participative leadership was more effective than directive leadership at improving follower performance on a less structured task, whereas directive leadership was more effective at improving follower performance on a more structured task. They suggest that under a participative leader, followers feel compelled to participate in the task, and this effect should be most pronounced when task difficulty is high, such as when a task is low in structure. In addition, Sosik (1997) found that transformational leadership leads to greater performance as measured by the number of original ideas but not the total number of ideas on an idea generation task.

In sum, these findings from the GDSS environment provide evidence that the task can moderate the effectiveness of different leadership styles. In all cases, leadership was manipulated by the content of the leader's message (rather than the delivery), followers worked as a group, and the task was a creative, idea-generation type task (Kahai et al., 1997; Sosik, 1997; Sosik, Avolio, Kahai, & Jung, 1998; Sosik et al., 1997, 1999; Sosik, Kahai, & Avolio, 1998). The current research examines the moderating role of task type on the effectiveness of charismatic leadership (visionary content and expressive delivery) on individual follower performance in a non-GDSS environment. In addition, we will manipulate the type of task and expect that charismatic leaders are most effective at improving performance on creative tasks, like those used in the GDSS work. Shamir and Howell (1999) offer a useful framework to understand the importance of task type in charismatic leadership.

They suggest that charismatic leaders should be more effective at improving follower performance on tasks that are more challenging and complex and require greater levels of initiation, responsibility, creativity,

and effort (Shamir & Howell, 1999). In addition, tasks for which extrinsic rewards cannot be linked to performance and tasks that are low in analyzability are expected to enhance the relationship between charismatic leadership and follower performance (Shamir & Howell, 1999). Analyzability reflects the extent to which a task can be broken down into mechanical steps to be explained to others (Perrow, 1970). In the current article, we define tasks that are low in analyzability and more challenging and complex and high in the requirement of initiative and creativity as charisma-conducive tasks. Just as Kahai et al. (1997) found that participative leaders elicited better performance on less structured tasks than did directive leaders, we expect that charismatic leaders should elicit better performance on less structured tasks than noncharismatic leaders.

There are several reasons that charismatic leadership, in terms of visionary content and expressive delivery, should be more likely to influence performance on charisma-conducive tasks. First, because less analyzable tasks have no common procedures or methods for leaders to explain to their followers, leaders must rely on vague or distal goals, which are both characteristics of charismatic vision (Shamir et al., 1993). Rather than specifying simple steps and procedures, leaders can address the importance of the task and enhance follower motivation on a broader level. Leaders can also use their visionary content and expressive delivery to set high expectations for followers and emphasize organizational values, such as demonstrating the initiative, responsibility, creativity, and intense effort required by charisma-conducive tasks. Furthermore, even in the absence of vision, an expressive delivery demonstrates optimism and confidence in followers, which should be more important on challenging tasks (Shamir et al., 1993).

Task type can also be explained by McGrath's (1984) circumplex model of tasks, which groups tasks into four categories: generate, choose, negotiate, and execute. We focus on two types of tasks, which are particularly relevant to the workplace. Shamir and Howell's (1999) propositions would suggest that generate tasks should be more charisma conducive than choose tasks. Generate tasks include creativity tasks (e.g., brainstorming) and planning tasks (e.g., determining a course of action). Such tasks are low in analyzability and high in creativity. Choosing tasks include tasks where individuals solve problems with a correct, or at least a preferred, answer, making performance more easily measured. These tasks are higher on analyzability because rules can exist for the basis by which one should make choices. They are often less complex and require less creativity than generate tasks. Therefore, choosing tasks are less charisma conducive than are generating tasks.

Hypothesis 3a: The relationship between visionary content and task perfor-
    mance will be stronger for more charisma-conducive tasks.
Hypothesis 3b: The relationship between expressive delivery and task
    performance will be stronger for more charisma-conducive tasks.

Task Performance Measurement

Shamir and Howell (1999) also suggest that charismatic leaders are more
effective at improving performance on tasks with ambiguous performance
outcomes because the lack of clear performance-outcome contingencies
requires leaders to motivate followers by other means. Specifically, they can
use their vision and delivery to inspire performance increases. The vision
may even include direct references to the quality of performance. Indeed,
much of the previous experimental research on charismatic leadership has
demonstrated greater performance improvements in quality than quantity
compared to other types of leadership (J. M. Howell & Frost, 1989;
Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996; Shea, 1999). Similarly, Sosik (1997) found that
transformational leadership content led to a greater number of original ideas
generated (which might be considered a measure of quality), although it did
not lead to a greater number of total ideas generated (quantity). We expect
that visionary content and expressive delivery should result in greater perfor-
mance increases in quality than in quantity.

Hypothesis 4a: The relationship between visionary content and task perfor-
    mance will be stronger for task quality than quantity.
Hypothesis 4b: The relationship between expressive delivery and task perfor-
    mance will be stronger for task quality than quantity.

Method

Participants

Students in 11 undergraduate psychology classes from a large public uni-
versity volunteered to participate in the study for class credit. This was a com-
muter school in which students were older than those at the typical 4-year
university and where most students worked full- or part-time. The total sam-
ple consisted of 120 women, 47 men, and 1 participant who failed to provide
his or her gender, generating a total of 168 participants. The mean age of par-
ticipants was 26.57 years ($SD = 7.91$, range 18-59) of the 135 participants
who responded to this question. The mean work experience was 7.99 years

($SD = 6.06$, range 0.25-32.00), and the majority of participants (80%) were currently employed.

Procedure

Participants were told to envision that they were listening to a live speech by their boss, Robert Adams, the CEO of Colonial Software, in which he would review their goals for the upcoming year. The name of the CEO, name of the company, and procedure were all the same as those used by Awamleh and Gardner (1999). Participants rated their leader on the charisma scale of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X/Short Form; Bass & Avolio, 1995) and completed a series of three tasks (counterbalanced across conditions). All participants were debriefed at the end of the session. Sessions lasted approximately 1 hour. There were two sets of manipulations in this study. First, the content of the leader's speech (visionary or nonvisionary) and the delivery of that speech (expressive or unexpressive) were manipulated as a 2 × 2 between-subjects manipulation. In addition, the performance tasks were manipulated to represent three levels of charisma conduciveness (low, medium, high), and two different measures of task performance (quantity and quality) were examined in a 3 × 2 within-subjects design.

Stimuli

Both the speech content (visionary content vs. nonvisionary content) and deliveries (expressive delivery vs. nonexpressive delivery) were taken from a study done by Awamleh and Gardner (1999) with the authors' permission. The speech content was originally adapted from a doctoral dissertation with the author's permission (Sidani, 1993). These speeches and deliveries were chosen for the current study because they have been shown to have systematic differences in visionary content and expressiveness of delivery (Awamleh & Gardner, 1999). Delivery was manipulated by using an actor who was trained to deliver both the visionary and nonvisionary speeches in a charismatic and expressive manner and a noncharismatic and nonexpressive manner. Expressiveness was operationalized as level of eye contact, facial expressions (smiles), hand and body gestures, and vocal fluency. These manipulations were consistent with the method used by Holladay and Coombs (1993, 1994; please see Awamleh & Gardner, 1999, for the full results of the factor analysis and description of stimuli development).

Content was manipulated to encompass differences in both content themes and rhetorical devices. Appendices A and B contain the verbatim speeches for

both the visionary and nonvisionary content conditions. Awamleh and Gardner (1999) noted that a factor analysis showed that only the visionary speeches contained charismatic rhetorical techniques proposed by Shamir, Arthur, and House (1994) and rhetorical devices shown by Den Hartog and Verbug (1997). The rhetorical techniques included more references to history and tradition, collective identity, followers' worth and efficacy, leader's similarity to and identification with followers, values and moral justifications, distant goals and the distant future, hope, and faith and fewer references to individual self-interest, tangible outcomes and instrumental justifications, proximal goals, and the near future (Shamir et al., 1994). The rhetorical devices used included contrast, list, combination, puzzle-solution, headline-punchline, position taking, and pursuit, repetition, and alliteration (Den Hartog & Verbug, 1997).

Measures

Three scales from Bass and Avolio's (1995) leadership questionnaire (MLQ-5X/Short Form) were used to measure charismatic leadership: Idealized Influence, Inspiration Motivation, and Attributed Charisma. Ratings are made on a Likert-type scale anchored with 0 (*not at all*) and 4 (*frequently, if not always*). An example of the question for Idealized Influence is, "Talks about his most important values and beliefs." An example of an item from Inspiration Motivation is, "Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved." An example of Attributed Charisma is, "Acts in ways to build your trust." Each of the subscales had an adequate level of internal consistency (Idealized Influence $\alpha = .75$, Inspiration Motivation $\alpha = .88$, Attributed Charisma $\alpha = .86$). Although these three factors are conceptually unique, they are expected to be part of an overall construct of charisma (Bass, 1985). Therefore, it is expected that these three factors will load on a higher order factor, representing the construct of charisma.

To test this model, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted using the AMOS 5.0 statistics program. Some of the error variances were allowed to correlate after an examination of the modification indices. Three goodness-of-fit indices were used based on predicted versus observed covariances, based on the comparison of the given model with an alternative model, and based on predicted versus observed covariances but penalizing for lack of parsimony (Jaccard & Wan, 1996). Based on these indices, the hypothesized model was found to be acceptable. The overall chi-square test for the model was not significant, $\chi^2(47) = 59.85$, $p > .05$, indicating a good fit of the model. A measure of residual fit, the root mean square error of approximation, was .04, and values below .05 suggest a good fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). The

Figure 1
Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Multifactor Leadership
Questionnaire Charisma Items
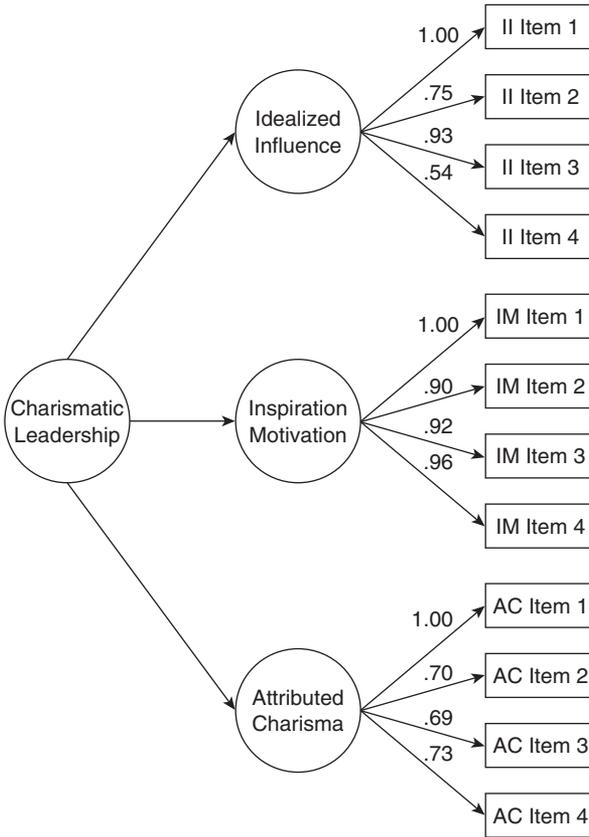
comparative fit index was .99, also indicating a good fit (Arbuckle, 1997). In addition, all of the items had acceptable factor loadings (Figure 1).

Performance Task

Three tasks, varying in charisma conduciveness, were chosen for use in this research. Based on the theoretical work by Shamir and Howell (1999),

task charisma conduciveness was defined as the extent to which tasks are low in analyzability, require creativity, and require initiative. To establish construct validity for the chosen tasks, five expert raters (graduate students in industrial/organizational psychology) rated eight tasks on three items. Specifically, they rated each task on the extent to which it was analyzable (low in analyzability to high in analyzability), required creativity (requiring little creativity to requiring a great deal of creativity), and required initiative (requiring little initiative to requiring a great deal of initiative). Answers were recorded on a 1 to 5 scale, and the mean of the three items, after reversing the analyzability item, was taken.

The lowest scoring task ($M = 3.40$, $SD = 0.89$), middle scoring task ($M = 9.60$, $SD = 2.30$), and highest scoring task ($M = 13.60$, $SD = 0.89$) were a fact-checking task, letter-writing task, and creative-thinking task, respectively. Based on McGrath's (1984) task types, the fact-checking task would be considered a choosing task, whereas the letter-writing and creative-thinking tasks would be considered generating tasks. Although there were only five raters, paired samples t tests were conducted to test the differences among tasks. There were significant differences between the fact-checking and creative-thinking tasks, $t(4) = 20.82$, $p < .01$, the fact-checking and letter-writing tasks, $t(4) = 5.87$, $p < .01$, and the letter-writing and creative-thinking tasks, $t(4) = 2.90$, $p < .05$. Other tasks that were not chosen included a math task and a hiring task. These tasks would be considered a choosing and a generating task, respectively.

In addition, in line with Shamir and Howell (1999), we assessed task performance measurement by examining task performance quality and quantity. Measures of quantity are much less ambiguous (i.e., performance is easily determined) than measures of quality. Many previous studies have examined differences in the effects of charismatic leadership on task performance quantity and quality, generally finding stronger effects for charismatic leadership on task performance quality than quantity (J. M. Howell & Frost, 1989; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996; Shea, 1999). Therefore, both a quantity and quality measure were assessed for each of the performance tasks. The low charisma-conducive task was a fact-checking task that involved scanning for errors in copied names and places. The fact-checking task was scored by both the number of correct items each participant found (quality) and the number of items he or she attempted (quantity).

In the medium charisma-conducive task, participants were asked to write a persuasive letter to their fictitious shareholders. To assess letter quality, undergraduate participants at another university rated the letters on a seven-item scale created for the current study. The scale had a high level

of reliability (α = .98). The raters went through a training session in which the purpose of the letters was explained and the criterion by which to evaluate the letters was reviewed. The raters went through several sample letters with the experimenter before rating all of the letters to get an idea of the range of letter quality. Three individuals rated each letter, and there was an adequate level of interrater agreement (.85). A quantity measure was also taken by counting the number of words used in each participant's letter (using a word count program).

The high charisma-conducive task was a creative-thinking task that required participants to develop new company slogans. To assess quality, six raters each rated half of the total number of slogans in a random order, after undergoing a short training session. In the training session, the experimenter provided a definition of slogan quality (how persuasive, memorable, and creative the slogan was), and the group went through a random sample of slogans and discussed how they would rate those slogans and why. The raters were graduate students in industrial/organizational psychology and were paid for their ratings. Each slogan was rated on a single item, which reflected the quality of the slogan on a 5-point scale anchored with 1 (*very low quality*) and 5 (*very high quality*). An intraclass correlation showed an adequate level interrater agreement (.72). Quantity was measured by counting the total number of slogans produced by each participant.

Results

Data Screening

Correlations among the study variables are presented in Table 1. Hypotheses 1a and 1b were tested using multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), and the remaining hypotheses were examined with repeated measures MANOVA. The assumptions for MANOVA include independence of observations, univariate and multivariate normality of the dependent variables, and homogeneity of variance and covariance (Stevens, 1996). The assumptions were generally satisfied. Observations were adequately independent, although data were collected in several small groups, which consisted of students from the same classes. The variances were similar across the dependent variables. Outliers (data that were more than three standard deviations from the mean) were identified and replaced with the grand mean. The fact-checking quantity score was negatively skewed, and a square root transformation was used. In addition, for the repeated measures MANOVA,

Table 1
Correlations Among Study Variables

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Content	1.52	0.50	1												
2. Delivery	1.56	0.50	.07	1											
3. Delivery MC	1.89	1.29	.06	.76**	1										
4. Content MC	1.32	1.16	.30**	.61**	.75**	1									
5. MLQ II	1.93	0.89	.22**	.40**	.42**	.45**	1								
6. MLQ IM	1.87	1.24	.33**	.64**	.62**	.66**	.64**	1							
7. MLQ AC	1.17	1.09	.28**	.60**	.64**	.73**	.57**	.81**	1						
8. Fact quantity	5.00	1.00	-.13	.23**	.13	-.02	.08	.09	.05	1					
9. Fact quality	5.00	1.00	-.08	.05	-.04	-.19*	-.07	-.06	-.11	.70**	1				
10. Letter quantity	5.00	1.00	-.08	.11	.08	.00	-.01	.10	.05	.15	.16*	1			
11. Letter quality	5.00	1.00	-.05	-.04	-.06	-.11	-.06	-.05	-.08	.22**	.23**	.69**	1		
12. Slogan quantity	5.00	1.00	-.05	.17*	.10	-.03	.02	.00	-.08	.20*	.18*	.27**	.25**	1	
13. Slogan quality	5.00	1.00	.22*	-.12	-.03	.07	-.11	.07	.03	.02	.06	.14	.19*	.08	1

Note: MC = manipulation check; MLQ = Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire; IM = inspiration motivation; AC = attributed charisma. Content is scored as 1 = nonvisionary, 2 = visionary. Delivery is scored as 1 = unexpressive delivery, 2 = expressive delivery.
*p < .05. **p < .01.

Mauchly's Test of Sphericity revealed that the effects for task charisma conduciveness were consistent with this assumption.

Manipulation Checks

To test the effectiveness of the content and delivery manipulations, two manipulation checks were analyzed. The manipulation checks consisted of three items and were anchored with 0 (*not at all*) and 4 (*frequently, if not always*). Both the manipulation check for delivery (e.g., "The CEO maintained eye contact with the audience.") and content (e.g., "The CEO's speech used vivid language.") had high levels of internal consistency ($\alpha = .79$, $\alpha = .81$). Analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed a statistically significant effect for delivery on the delivery manipulation check, $F(1, 166) = 231.98$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .58$, and the means were in the expected directions (expressive delivery $M = 2.76$, $SD = 0.82$; unexpressive delivery $M = 0.78$, $SD = 0.86$). The ANOVA for the content manipulation check also revealed a statistically significant effect, $F(1, 166) = 16.65$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .09$, for content. Participants in the visionary content condition ($M = 1.65$, $SD = 1.21$) rated their leader higher than those in the nonvisionary content condition ($M = 0.95$, $SD = 0.98$).

Test of Hypotheses

A 2×2 MANOVA was conducted with content (visionary, nonvisionary) and delivery (expressive, unexpressive) as the independent variables and the three MLQ factors as the dependent variables. Consistent with Hypotheses 1 and 2, the ANOVA revealed significant multivariate effects for content, Wilks's $\lambda = .86$, $F(3, 162) = 9.05$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .14$, and delivery, Wilks's $\lambda = .55$, $F(3, 162) = 44.80$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .45$, in the predicted directions. The content by delivery interaction was not statistically significant, Wilks's $\lambda = .99$, $F(3, 162) = 0.74$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2 = .01$. Univariate tests revealed significant effects for both content and delivery on each of the MLQ dimensions (Table 2).

To test all of the hypotheses regarding task performance, a $2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 3$ repeated measures ANOVA was conducted with content (visionary, nonvisionary) and delivery (expressive, unexpressive) as the between-subjects variables and performance measure (quantity, quality) and task charisma conduciveness (low: fact checking, medium: letter writing, high: creative thinking) as the within-subjects variables. Performance on each type of task was the repeated measures dependent variable. First, we examined the effects of visionary content on overall task performance. Contrary to

Table 2
Univariate ANOVA Analyses for Multifactor
Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Subscales

Content	Nonvisionary		Visionary		MLQ Subscale	F Value	η^2
	M	SD	M	SD			
	1.73	0.92	2.12	0.83	Idealized Influence	7.56**	.04
	1.45	1.14	2.26	1.20	Inspiration Motivation	26.85**	.14
	0.84	0.93	1.46	1.15	Attributed Charisma	16.00**	.09
Delivery	Unexpressive		Expressive		MLQ Subscale	F Value	η^2
	M	SD	M	SD			
	1.53	0.82	2.24	0.82	Idealized Influence	29.63**	.15
	0.98	0.92	2.57	0.98	Inspiration Motivation	123.85**	.43
	0.43	0.65	1.75	1.02	Attributed Charisma	97.46**	.37

Note: $n = 168$.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Hypothesis 2a, there was no main effect for content on task performance (Tables 3 and 4). Next, to test Hypothesis 3a, we examined the interaction between content and task charisma conduciveness.

Because it was expected that vision would have a greater effect on performance the more charisma conducive the task, the interaction between vision and the linear contrast of task performance was tested. The linear contrast tests the hypothesis that individuals will score lowest on the Level 1 variable (low charisma-conducive task), followed by the Level 2 variable (medium charisma-conducive task), and finally the Level 3 variable (high charisma-conducive task), as opposed to testing the omnibus hypothesis that at least one of the levels differs from at least one of the other levels. The vision by linear contrast interaction specifically tests the hypothesis that the linear trend described above differs by vision condition (visionary content, nonvisionary content). When a contrast, such as this one, is hypothesized a priori, it is appropriate to test the contrast regardless of a significant main effect (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The expected linear contrast by vision interaction was statistically significant, $F(2, 163) = 5.50$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .03$. Participants in the visionary content condition performed best on the high charisma-conducive task, followed by the medium charisma-conducive task, and then the low charisma-conducive task. Participants in the nonvisionary content condition had the opposite pattern of results.

Table 3
Repeated Measures ANOVA Analyses for Performance Tasks

	Wilks' λ	F Value	η^2
Content	—	0.00	.00
Delivery	—	2.30	.01
Content $\times$ delivery	—	2.99	.02
Measure	1.00	0.15	.00
Measure $\times$ contnt	0.99	2.30	.01
Measure $\times$ delivery	0.87	23.83**	.13
Measure $\times$ content $\times$ delivery	0.98	3.21	.02
Task	0.99	0.00	.00
Task $\times$ content	0.97	2.73	.03
Task $\times$ delivery	0.98	1.29	.02
Task $\times$ content $\times$ delivery	1.00	0.28	.00
Measure $\times$ task	1.00	0.00	.00
Measure $\times$ task $\times$ content	0.93	6.34**	.07
Measure $\times$ task $\times$ delivery	0.99	1.05	.01
Measure $\times$ task $\times$ content $\times$ delivery	1.00	0.14	.00

Note: n = 168.
*p < .05. **p < .01.

Hypotheses 4a, which examined the interaction between the content and task performance measure, was not supported (Table 3). There was a three-way interaction, however, among content, task charisma conduciveness, and task performance measure. Therefore, the results of the previous two-way interaction between task charisma conduciveness and content should be treated carefully, and attention should be paid to the three-way interaction (Overall, Lee, & Hornick, 1981). To explain the three-way interaction, two additional repeated measures MANOVAs were conducted. In the first, only the three quantity performance variables were included as the within-subjects measures, and in the second, only the three quality performance variables were included as the within-subjects measures. The ANOVA for quantity no longer yielded the linear contrast effect of content on task performance, $F(2, 163) = 0.69$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2 = .00$. However, the linear contrast effect was statistically significant for the measures of quality, $F(2, 163) = 8.56$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .05$. Participants in the visionary had better performance quality on the more charisma-conducive tasks (Figure 2), in support of Hypotheses 3a and 4a.
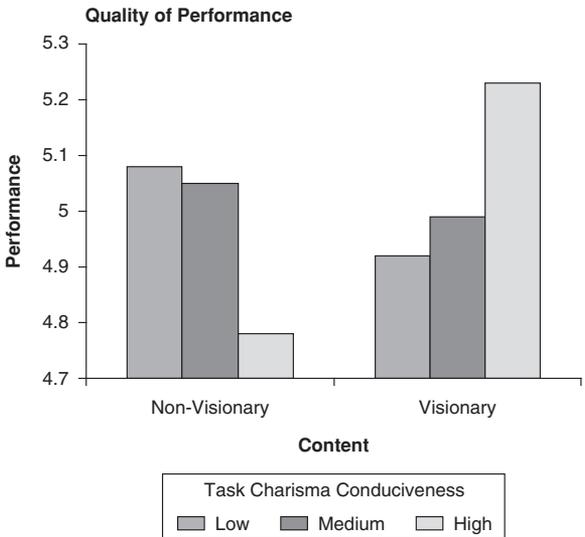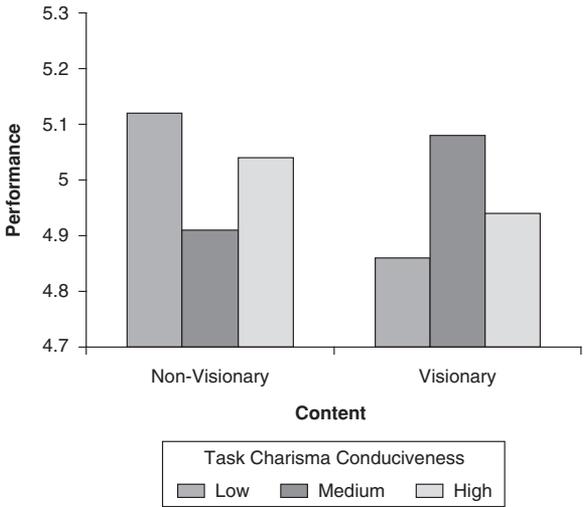
Next, to test Hypothesis 2b, we examined the effect of delivery on mean task performance across the quantity and quality of all three tasks. The

Table 4
Means and Standard Deviations for Task Performance Outcomes

Delivery	Fact Quantity		Fact Quality		Letter Quantity		Letter Quality		Slogan Quantity		Slogan Quality	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Nonvisionary content												
Unexpressive	4.73	0.97	4.97	1.00	4.67	0.94	5.01	0.96	4.76	0.96	4.92	0.89
Expressive	5.50	0.98	5.20	1.00	5.14	0.84	5.09	1.12	5.32	1.15	4.64	0.91
Across delivery conditions	5.14	1.05	5.09	1.00	4.92	0.92	5.05	1.04	5.05	1.09	4.77_1	0.91
Visionary content												
Unexpressive	4.74	1.06	4.93	1.02	5.09	0.98	5.07	0.91	4.87	0.91	5.35	1.08
Expressive	4.97	0.86	4.91	0.99	5.06	1.14	4.87	0.99	5.01	0.91	5.11	1.01
Across delivery conditions	4.88	0.95	4.92	1.00	5.07	1.07	4.95	0.96	4.95	0.91	5.21_1	1.04
Across vision conditions content												
Unexpressive	4.74_1	1.01	4.95	1.00	4.88	0.98	5.04	0.93	4.81_1	0.93	5.13_2	1.01
Expressive	5.21_1	0.95	5.04	1.00	5.10	1.01	4.97	1.05	5.15_1	1.03	4.90_2	1.00

Note: Values in the same column with the same subscript indicate a significant difference at $p < .05$ using Fischer's least significant difference post hoc tests.

Figure 2
Effect of Content on Quantity and Quality of Task Performance
of Low, Medium, and High Charisma-Conducive Tasks

Quality of Performance

effect for delivery was not statistically significant (Tables 3 and 4). To test Hypothesis 3b, we examined the interaction between task charisma conduciveness and delivery. The interaction was not statistically significant (Table 3). Hypothesis 4b examined the interaction between delivery and task performance measure. The interaction was statistically significant (Table 3). Two follow-up ANOVAs were run with quantity (average of quantity of performance across the three tasks) and quality (average of quality of performance across the three tasks) as the dependent variables. Participants in the expressive delivery condition performed better than those in the unexpressive delivery condition in quantity, $F(1, 166) = 10.92$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .06$, but there was no difference between conditions in quality, $F(1, 166) = 0.49$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2 = .00$. Therefore, Hypothesis 4b was not supported, as the opposite was found.

Post hoc tests were conducted to test the differences between the content conditions and between the delivery conditions for each of the performance tasks using Fisher's least significant difference (LSD) tests. In this procedure, follow-up tests are only performed for the individual ANOVA tests that reached statistical significance. Fisher's LSD is a powerful post hoc test that avoids the inflation of the familywise error rate (D. C. Howell, 1997). In this study, then, follow-up tests were only run for the different task by content means and task by delivery means, but not for the task by content by delivery means because that interaction was not statistically significant (Table 4).

Discussion

Although previous research supports the relationship between charismatic leadership and follower performance (Lowe et al., 1996), little attention has been paid to the role of the task as a determinant of the effectiveness of charismatic leaders. The main goal of the current study was to examine the moderating effect of task type on the relationship between charismatic leadership and follower task performance. Visionary content led to increases in the quality of follower performance on more charisma–conducive tasks (tasks that are less analyzable and require greater levels of initiative and creativity). These effects did not hold true for expressive delivery, however. Expressive delivery only led to higher quantity of task performance, and the effect of delivery on performance did not differ by task type.

This study replicates and extends previous research on charismatic leadership. Only three laboratory studies, to the authors' knowledge, have examined the unique effects of visionary content and expressive delivery on

follower outcomes. These studies demonstrated the effects of both of these aspects of charismatic leadership on follower perceptions of their leader (Awamleh & Gardner, 1999; Holladay & Coombs, 1994; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). Our findings were consistent with the previous research such that both visionary content and expressive delivery led to greater perceptions of charismatic leadership. Of the previous studies, only one examined the effects of visionary content and expressive delivery on follower task performance. That study found that visionary content led to better follower task performance and that delivery had no effect on follower task performance (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). We found that both content and delivery affected performance, but these relationships were moderated by task type.

Using Shamir and Howell's (1999) framework, we expected and found that visionary content had a stronger effect on the performance of tasks that were less analyzable and required greater levels of initiative and creativity (charisma-conducive tasks). This effect was more pronounced for performance quality than performance quantity. The findings from the current study on both task type and task performance measurement build on previous research on charismatic leadership. Regarding task performance measurement, previous research has found that charismatic leadership leads to greater performance improvements in quality than quantity (J. M. Howell & Frost, 1989; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996; Shea, 1999; Sosik, 1997). The current research uses Shamir and Howell's (1999) framework to explain this relationship and offers empirical support for the stronger relationship between visionary content and performance quality than quantity.

Our findings related to task type integrate well with research on leadership in a GDSS environment and extend those findings by examining the effects of charismatic leadership on individual follower performance (rather than group performance) outside of a GDSS environment. The GDSS work has demonstrated that transformational leadership, conveyed through content, improves follower performance on relatively creative, idea-generation-type tasks (Sosik, 1997; Sosik et al., 1997; Sosik, Avolio, Kahai, & Jung, 1998; Sosik et al., 1999). The current study also found that leader visionary content led to better performance than nonvisionary content on a creative task. Furthermore, we found that the relationship between visionary content and follower performance was reversed for less charisma-conducive tasks such that the nonvisionary leader elicited better performance on those tasks.

Kahai et al. (1997) examined task structure in a GDSS environment. They found that participative leadership was more effective than directive leadership at improving follower performance on a less structured task,

whereas directive leadership was more effective at improving follower performance on a more structured task, similar to our findings. Although participative and charismatic leadership are not the same, the effects of these types of leadership may have activated similar processes in followers, increasing task motivation and self-efficacy, resulting in better performance on charisma-conducive tasks. Furthermore, our manipulation of nonvisionary leadership may strongly resemble directive leadership, such that both are based on a contingent-reward style interaction. The current research also adds to the GDSS work by examining both visionary content and expressive delivery aspects of charismatic leadership rather than just examining the content component of charismatic leadership.

Contrary to our hypothesis, we found that expressive delivery led to better quantity of performance than unexpressive delivery and delivery had no effect on performance quality. Although additional research is needed to confirm the nonhypothesized relationship between expressive delivery and performance quantity, one possibility is that expressive deliveries heighten follower arousal, causing them to work hard to produce a greater output but not necessarily higher quality output. Similar to Kirkpatrick and Locke's (1996) findings, it appears that although the effects of expressive delivery outweigh the effects of visionary content when it comes to perceptions of leader charisma, visionary content plays a more important role than expressive delivery in improving follower performance.

Implications

The findings from the current study have important theoretical implications. The moderating effect of task charisma conduciveness adds a contingency to charismatic leadership theory that has been relatively ignored (e.g., Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1987). One theory that has addressed the role of task type, however, is path-goal theory (House, 1971; House & Dessler, 1974). Path-goal theory suggests that leaders should adopt one of four leadership styles (directive, achievement oriented, supportive, participative) depending on the characteristics of followers (satisfaction and perceptions of their abilities) and the situation (task, authority system, work group). Task characteristics include the extent to which the task is routine and structured. Path-goal theory would suggest that achievement-oriented or participative leadership should be used when tasks are complex and difficult to motivate followers to perform well, despite the task's difficulty.

The findings from the current study could be interpreted in a similar way. Charisma-conducive tasks are more challenging than are less charisma-conducive tasks, which may make the need for a leader's vision more important.

A leader's confidence in his or her followers' ability to complete a task should build followers' self-efficacy and motivation, facilitating the successful completion of the task. In addition, a charismatic vision may provide meaning to the task, which can add to followers' motivation. Under these conditions, followers might work to get the task done right, resulting in high quality rather than simply working to get the task done, which might be indicated by a higher level of quantity. A lack of vision for followers could, therefore, translate into very poor performance on more difficult tasks, whereas the effects would be less pronounced for the easier tasks.

One additional caveat of path-goal theory is that followers must believe that they have the ability to complete the task, and this is most important when tasks are challenging and complex. The same would likely be true for charismatic leadership and charisma-conducive tasks. Although charismatic leadership is actually believed to increase followers' expectations about their ability to complete a task (Shamir et al., 1993), followers' beliefs in their abilities should also affect their performance. Although path-goal theory did not initially examine the role of charismatic leadership, the similarities between path-goal theory and this research seem fitting considering that path-goal theory led to the formulation of House's 1976 theory of charismatic leadership (House, 1996). It is also important to note that House has updated path-goal theory in light of research findings and theoretical advancements. The updated path-goal theory includes references to value-based leadership (e.g., charismatic leadership) and suggests that jobs that are highly routine do not lend themselves to charismatic leadership.

The results of this study also have practical implications for leaders. Our results indicate that the effectiveness of charismatic leadership depends on characteristics of the task being performed by followers. Organizations should consider the importance of performance quantity versus quality in their decision to select or promote a charismatic leader or noncharismatic leader. For example, if performance quality is much more important than quantity, the use of charismatic vision might be especially relevant. Previous research has demonstrated the link between transformational leadership and total quality management outcomes (Sosik & Dionne, 1997). Regarding task type, charismatic leaders in non-charisma-conducive jobs or industries might be encouraged to adopt a contingent-reward or structuring style of leadership rather than focusing on the communication of a charismatic vision to followers. When followers are in a more charisma-conducive job or industry, leaders should communicate a vision to followers to improve followers' task performance.

Charisma-conducive jobs or industries would be characterized by a high need for creativity and innovation, along with unstructured tasks. Examples

of creative jobs include advertising, research and development, and interior design. Indeed, research has linked charismatic leader behaviors to follower creativity in organizations (Jaussi & Dionne, 2003; Shin & Zhou, 2003). Certain industries may also be especially charisma conducive, although jobs within any industry are likely to vary. Wise (2003) offers a useful framework for examining differences in the level and type of creativity required in different industries. For example, the high-tech industry, by nature, requires greater levels of creativity and innovation from its employees, and transformational leadership has been linked to follower innovation (J. M. Howell & Higgins, 1990; Jung, Chow, & Wu, 2003). Entrepreneurial endeavors are also highly charisma conducive, which may explain evidence for the effectiveness of charismatic leadership in entrepreneurial firms (Baum et al., 1998).

Finally, the very top levels of management would be charisma conducive because of the unstructured nature of working in top management teams (Edmondson, Roberto, & Watkins, 2003). It is important to note, however, that there is likely to be a great deal of variation within and between jobs and industries in charisma conduciveness. For example, an HR representative may spend much of his or her time administering pay and benefits, which is relatively low on charisma conduciveness. The task is highly analyzable and requires little creativity or innovation. However, that same HR representative may plan a large meeting or event, create a new bonus system for employees, or generate new ideas of how to recruit new applicants. These tasks would be more charisma conducive because they require greater levels of creativity and have no correct method of completion. Furthermore, another HR representative may have very different job duties that are more or less charisma conducive.

Therefore, whether it is for research or practice, the charisma conduciveness of a job should be measured rather than assumed. Current employees or independent coders could rate the analyzability, initiative, and creativity of employees' jobs. An adapted version of a more standardized instrument such as the job diagnostic survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1975) or Job Characteristics Inventory (Sims, Szilagyi, & Keller, 1976) or a simple measure of task structure (House & Dessler, 1974) may also prove useful for examining the charisma conduciveness of a job. Such measures could also be used to conduct field research on this topic. Similarly, standardized instruments could be used to measure leader characteristics. Although it would be difficult to manipulate a leader's visionary content and expressive delivery in the field, ratings of leaders' vision and communication of that vision could be used (Baum et al., 1998).

Limitations and Conclusion

There are some potential limitations on generalizing the findings of this research. First, it is important to note that a manipulation check was not used to measure followers' impressions of the charisma conduciveness of the tasks used. Although the tasks were previously rated on charisma conduciveness when they were chosen, without a manipulation check we cannot say with certainty that the participants perceived the tasks as intended. Second, leadership was conveyed by means of a videotaped speech. Although this research did not capture all of the nonverbal behavior involved in face-to-face interaction, we believe that our procedures captured a very common and important situation. Taped and live televised presentations are frequently used by high-level leaders such as CEOs to communicate with and influence followers and are likely to become more important as the virtual workplace becomes more common. Our research may be more relevant to situations in which followers have little prior knowledge of the leader and the sole source of information is a video presentation.

Third, it could be argued that the measure of charismatic leadership used in the current study only served as a manipulation check for our manipulation of charismatic leadership. Fourth, the use of college students with little vested interest in the outcome raises concerns about the relevance of the findings to actual followers in an organization. However, the students in our experiment were older than the average college population and had more work experience, and most were currently employed. Furthermore, the use of a laboratory study allowed for the isolation of leader characteristics and task characteristics, which would not be possible in a field setting. Not only would it be impossible to isolate a leader's visionary content and expressive delivery in a field setting, but it would also be unfeasible to isolate differences in the charisma conduciveness of tasks. Followers of charismatic leaders are likely to find their tasks more interesting, regardless of task type (Shamir et al., 1993).

Through the systematic manipulation of these two factors (task and leadership) in the absence of other contextual influences, we were able to examine a causal relationship between two charismatic leader behaviors (visionary content and expressive delivery) and followers' task performance of tasks ranging in charisma conduciveness. With this in mind, and considering the benefits that this laboratory study provided in experimental control, we believe that the benefits gained outweigh the costs in external validity. However, with the foundation of this initial study, future research should continue to examine this topic in field settings.

In conclusion, the current study fills two gaps in the extant literature on charismatic leadership and follower task performance. First, we demonstrated that both the visionary content and expressive delivery components of charismatic leadership influence follower task performance. Second, we found that the extent to which each of these components affects follower task performance is dependent on the type of tasks in which followers are engaged.

Appendix A
Content of Leader's Visionary Speech

As of today, our number-one priority is to help give American business a much needed shot in the arm. For some, the American dream is in question. The single most important key to the resurgence of that dream, to its vitality, and the building of a positive vision of the future, is an innovative, vibrant, growing, and highly productive business community. What greater challenge is there? We have the talent; we have the skills; we have the commitment to help America once again assert its prominent position in the world economy. That kind of commitment is what it's going to take from us to survive in the competitive arena. It will mean acting, on your own initiative, without hesitation, calling on all of your talents, skills, creativity, and savvy, whenever and wherever it's required. Too many think that our dream is impossible. Too many think it is unreal. But that is a dangerous, defeatist belief. We need not accept that view. Our problems are made by humans and thus can be solved by humans. You can be as big as you want. No problem of human density is beyond human beings. Our reasons and spirit have often solved the seemingly unsolvable, and we believe that it can be done again. In your hands my friends, more than mine, will rest the final success of our course. Together, we are going to create something no one has ever done before. All of us as members of this organization, will be responsible for this fundamental change. I want people who want to win, who want to listen, who want to tell, who want to fulfill our dream. I am very much excited about what the future holds. Now let's get on with it.

Appendix B
Content of Leader's Nonvisionary Speech

Good morning and welcome to the Annual Management Meeting. As in the past, the purpose of the meeting is to review and discuss the overall objectives for the coming year. Once again, the firm's principle objective is to accomplish the sales goal while controlling operating expenses. Control of operating expenses will be the key to successfully reaching profitability goals, especially in light of the current

economic environment. Last week capital budgets were presented to the corporate staff for approval. I am pleased to report that the budgets were generally approved. If the desired goals for the company are achieved, and if you show support for the organizational objectives, your efforts, of course, will be recognized and rewarded. It is a duty of this firm's management and employees to work to achieve the desired objectives. If this is done, it will establish the position of this organization as a leader in the industry. If this is not done, it may very well threaten the company's existence in such a competitive environment. I hope I have made clear to you the rewards associated with the accomplishment of the company's plans and the consequences of non-performance. Remember, if you deliver, you will be rewarded; and if you don't, you won't. Thus, it is in your best interest to excel and help the organization reach its goals. Such an understanding is important so as to clarify your responsibilities and your rights in this organization. Thank you very much for your time.

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