Resolving Leadership Conceptual Ambiguities: A Postmodern Sociological Resolution

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Abstract

The authors conducted a content analysis of transformational and charismatic leadership concepts from a sample of social and behavioral sciences research published in refereed journals from 1988 to 2008. The content analysis revealed a logical weakness in the measurement and operationalization of leadership traits. To resolve the conceptual ambiguities a postmodern theoretical approach provided salient sociological constructs that allowed a disambiguation of the often-ascribed leadership traits. Additionally, a survey of leadership texts and essays provided an epistemological foundation of leadership narratives. From the literature, the authors identified 10 distinctive intrapersonal (organizational beliefs) and interpersonal (social beliefs) referents linked to emergent leader and follower self-reports and behaviors. Additionally, the authors propose a habitus schema of leader and worker perceptions as an alternative methodology to better identify the likelihood of successful performances in an organizational setting.

Key Words: Leadership, organizational development, charismatic, transformational, leadership traits.

1. Introduction

As the global, postmodern industrial era unfolds, the management of workers remains a significant organizational research topic[1]. Contemporary leadership studies have primarily retained management perspectives that relied on structural-functional, resources-dependent theories (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978/2003), or have examined leaders and workers behaviors because of their instrumental actions or personality traits (March & Simon, 1993; Hoopes, 2005). Hancock and Tyler (2001) argued that an overall weakness in organizational leadership studies has been perspectives linked to traditional "social engineering" (p. 42). Similarly, Anonson et al. (2009) suggested a structural-functional approach that allows managers to retain authority through personal styles of conduct in a post-Fordist organizational context. Until the beginning of the 20th century, leadership as an instrument of the modern industrial organization was not seriously considered, but an ever-expanding American industrial and bureaucratic base captured the attention of Mary Parker Follett and Frederick Taylor (Wren, 2005).

Although Follett was credited with distilling Max Weber's "structures of authority" – "rational, traditional, and charismatic" (Ritzer, 2011, p. 233-234) – it is clear that Taylor's (1911) *The Principles of Scientific Management*, was the first nationally recognized thesis on the subject that argued for a mechanistic behavioral approach to leadership skills. Taylor's systematic theory of leadership relied on identifying components of management success and then teaching those components to competent employees.

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[1] Few would argue that modern interest was fueled by Max Weber's (1922) ideal types of legitimate domination found in his treatise *Economy and Society* (published posthumously by his wife). Weber succinctly stated, "Hence every genuine form of domination implies a minimum of voluntary compliance, that is, an interest (based on ulterior motives or genuine acceptance) in obedience" (1978: 212). Industrial and post-industrial management models have since attempted to corral Weber's ideal types, but unfortunately, as we will demonstrate, operationalization has proven to be a substantial epistemological issue.

Taylor argued that a major technical weakness in American factories' organization at that time was the owners who competed for already well-trained managers instead of "systematically cooperating to train to *make* this competent man" (1911, p.6) [emphasis added]. In a roundabout way, Taylor's argument bolstered Follett's concern with forms of legitimated authority and control, fostering nearly a century of humanistic organizational research.

For example, March and Simon's (1958/1993) organizational theory has retained Taylorist principles but expanded leadership concepts to meet Fordist needs to legitimate a more hierarchical regime of corporate authority. Handy's (1991) *The Gods of Management* quietly invoked Durkheim's (1933/1984) organic functional linkages to justify an evolution of organizational forms, but left leadership that worked to manage states of labor and productivity disequilibrium intact. Similarly, Pfeffer and Salancik's *The External Control of Organizations* published in 1978 extended the traditional functional approach by reconstituting leadership as a rational instrument to meet post-Fordist resource dependent organizations' labor control needs. Of note however, is the authors' neoliberal criticism of management research that focused on leadership traits and workers' effectiveness from a social psychological perspective. As Pfeffer and Salancik's (1978, p.8) sardonically wrote, "While the quest for the omnipotent actor has become considerably more sophisticated, management researchers continue to trudge after the ever-shifting rainbow's end".

Earlier reviews of the contemporary management literature have demonstrated that leadership traits, leadership behaviors, organizational effectiveness, and control of workers have remained ambitious and argumentative, but yet opaque. In an attempt to find common methodological and theoretical ground, this paper seeks to address the following concerns: 1) the logical weakness of modernist management leadership theory[2] and, 2) the conceptual ambiguities associated with transformational and charismatic leadership behavioral traits[3]. This paper then offers a more robust alternative leadership evaluative model adapted from Pierre Bourdieu's (1998) habitus that maps the social and institutional dimensions of the leader-worker dyadic (Atkinson, 2010). A content analysis of selected management literature was used in order to accomplish the research goals mentioned and disambiguate leadership traits.

2. LEADERSHIP THEORY

Management researchers' reliance on traditional leadership theories becomes questionable in a post-Fordist or postmodern organization. Taylorist, Fordist, or post-Fordist management theories have ambiguously described leader and follower emergent behaviors and the micro-conditions that become part of an organization's sustainability discourse (Hancock & Tyler, 2001). Law and Mol (2002) argued that past rational schemes that "order, divide, simplify, and exclude" (p. 2) were weak operationally because these schemes did not address the complexity of group relationships in a postmodern organization. Instead, traditional management theory has insisted that leaders were responsible for team performance or ,conversely, that workers needed leaders to control their behaviors (Katz & Kahn, 1978; Hine, 2000; Thompson, 2010).

Although leadership methodologies have sought reliable measures of stakeholders' cross-cultural, cross-gender, and cross-generational communication biases (Erickson, et al., 2007), advanced information and communication technologies have fostered new stakeholder relationships emerging from an "information-soaked and service-rich" postmodern global economy (Lash & Urry, 1994, p. 28). Other researchers have warned that ignoring the qualitative shifts in labor force participation since globalization or the advance of the late-modernity project (Appadurai, 1996; Latour, 2005) would be to take a myopic view of a firm's organizational complexities.

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[2] Our focus on 'logical weakness' is critical to the foundational excesses we believe that have undermined leadership research. Borrowing from statistics, we intend to demonstrate that a robust leadership model would promote better hypothesis tests. Hacking similarly advised, "A statistical test is called robust when it leads to the same conclusion (e.g., the data show that a hypothesis should be rejected) even when background assumptions (models) vary substantially" (1999: 231). We suspect the current operational constructs do not allow for falsifiability.

[3] A crucial distinction missing in much of the leadership research is linked to attributing specific traits to a single person's behavior. Alexius Meinong's (1901/1983) epistemological work on "existent" and "subsistent" objects becomes informative in this case because social researchers' attributions may have misapplied empirical methods by mixing what exists in space-time (human being) with what exists as an ideal (leadership traits) type (Lambert, 1983: 13). However, Meinong acknowledged that the most difficult epistemological project is the elucidation of judgments inferred from other judgments. "I mean the derivation of judgments from judgments – deducing or proving…All evidence is dependent on judgment, of course, and it has long been customary to juxtapose immediately evident judgments, judgments that stand in their own right, with judgments of mediate evidence" (1983: 126-127).

Harvey's (1990) critique of modern capitalism recognized that organizational relations have significantly changed as work was increasingly de-differentiated into multi-skilled jobs. Thus, clarifying the conceptual ambiguities linked to transformational and charismatic leadership behaviors becomes important for two reasons: to establish a critical method for future leadership research and to encourage researchers to recast leader-worker/actor intentions found in real and virtual environments (Hoyt & Blascovich, 2003). This is necessary because neoliberal, post-Fordist leadership approaches as found in Bromiley's (2005) *The Behavioral Foundations of Strategic Management* have ignored workers "lateral mobility" (Lash & Urry, 1994: 200) expectations. For example, management discourse becomes framed according to a leader's charismatic or transformational traits that relegates workers to objects of control and manipulation.

2.1 Charismatic

The literature reviewed operationally defined charismatic leaders as those who possessed an interpersonal force that could coerce followers' beliefs and actions (Den Hartog, De Hoogh, & Keegan, 2007). Authors described charismatic leadership as uplifting and inspiration provoking, creating practically spiritual experiences in followers (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Researchers also described charismatic leaders as those who possessed artful style in group settings, able to promote group cohesion and commitment to their goals, although capable when necessary of influencing others to act in contradiction with social norms (Huang, et. al., 2005; Choi, 2006; Tuomo, 2006; Miller, 2007; Gehrke, 2008). Cranti and Bateman (2000) operationally defined charismatic leaders as risk takers who had a heightened sensitivity to environmental cues and workers' needs – what they believed was a valuable asset in a competitive market environment.

2.2 Transformational

Manning (2003) operationalized the concept of transformational leaders along a cognitive dimension, explaining that transformational leaders' convictions would psychologically-coerce group members by their "intellectual openness, vision-sharing, and role modeling" (p. 21). Pillai, Schriesheim, and Williams reported that transformational leaders fostered corporate citizenship behaviors in workers, promoting employee "conscientiousness, sportsmanship, civic virtue, courtesy, and altruism" (1999, p. 898). However, some researchers expanded transformational leadership traits to include a servant-leader dimension and others introduced a more neoliberal market exchange-oriented word, transactional. Hautala (2005) shifted the traditional transformational-charismatic dichotomy and replaced charismatic with transformational and then added the term transactional to better delineate an instrumentally-laden preference. Stone, Russell, and Patterson (2003) explained that the difference between a transformational leader and a servant-leader was simply one of leadership "focus", where as transformational leaders were more concerned with "organizational objectives" and servant leaders focused more on "the people who are followers" (p. 349). Arguably, a servant-leader would better fit in the charismatic category. Hoyt and Blascovich (2003) investigated leadership traits in face-to-face and virtual settings and broadly defined transformational leaders as individuals who were charismatic, inspirational, intellectually stimulating, innovative, and "demonstrated a high degree of personal concern for the followers' needs" (p. 680). Again, leadership trait operational ambiguity was introduced.

2.3 Postmodernism & Leadership

A review of the management literature demonstrated that modernist leadership methodologies have addressed granular-psychological and systems-organizational concerns, but neither framework has examined the dialectic of these structures. Although there remains passionate debate over the classification of contemporary life as modern, late-modern, or postmodern (Sarup, 1993), Harvey (1990) may prove instructive: "No one exactly agrees to what is meant by the term, except, perhaps, that 'postmodernism' represents some kind of reaction to, or departure from 'modernism'" (p. 7). Following Harvey's explanation, Law and Mol (2002) argued that a postmodern organizational framework departs from modernist theory by recognizing and examining the complexities of a company and its group systems designs, structures, and communication strategies. Chia (1996) also argued that a postmodern approach to organizational theory would re-examine implicit and explicit performative[4] roles located in leader-worker communications, thus fostering robust research clarity.

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[4] Specifically, we can see how a postmodern organizational theory would accept the complexity of actions and words as performative if we consider in the 1996 Star Trek movie *First Contact,* where Data's response to Cap. Picard's question how long was he tempted by the Borg Queen's offer to join as her king. Data answers, "Zero point six eight seconds, sir...For an android that is nearly an eternity." This demonstrates the complexity of meanings that each actor and each situation can foster. Although Derrida's deconstructive method is also

Although Bolman and Deal (2008) do not fall within the postmodern paradigm, they warned researchers that one-sided approaches to managers' behaviors were logically precarious because leaders face ever-changing external and internal organizational conditions. The benefits of a postmodern leadership model would inform scientific understanding of emergent leader-follower (or follower-leader) behaviors as a consequence of personal biases, intuitive decision-making tools, and the cultural influences found in an organizational milieu (Morris, 2006; Choi, 2006; Neuhauser, 2007; Taylor, 2007; Todorovic & Schlosser, 2007; Jacoby, 2008). The postmodern model would examine performative nuances instead of focusing on a leader's ephemeral behavioral traits, thus helping to assemble the complex personal, cultural, and institutional biases found in work settings (DeLanda, 2006).

3. DATA AND METHODS

A systematic search of Business Source Complete database for management articles with leadership, transformational, and charismatic as keywords was conducted. The first 50 abstracts were reviewed to identify articles that were specifically concerned with leadership traits and worker behaviors. The final sample of 17 peer-reviewed articles in management, organizational development, and social-psychology journals from 1999 to 2008 from researchers in China, the European Union, and North America was selected as shown in Table 1 found in the Appendix. The content analysis used in this study was primarily hermeneutical, relying on identification of key words and phrases used in the various survey and experimental designs that provided operational definitions of transformational and charismatic leadership traits. After compiling the key operational references to the two leadership traits under study, additional qualitative assessments were made to identify situational logic or contextual references[5] that informed the participants' comprehension[6] of leadership traits. This step allowed a further distilling of the two variables – transformational and charismatic – into two distinct and linked categories: organizational referents and social referents as illustrated in Figure 1 in the Appendix.

4. RESULTS

Singleton and Straits (2010) described content analysis as a robust method that allowed researchers to mine secondhand data by relying on the "symbolic content of communication" whether verbal or written (p. 427). Content analysis for this project allowed a mapping of linkages among the hypothesized leadership categories – transformational and charismatic – providing a more parsimonious measurement of the underlying concepts and subsequent ambiguities identified. The content classifications or recording units revealed a wide dispersion of descriptions used as operational definitions of charismatic and transformational leadership traits as shown in Table 1. A second stage mining of the leadership traits allowed further partitioning that helped identify 13 organization/institutional terms linked to transformational traits and 10 social psychological constructs linked to charismatic traits as shown in Table 2 in the Appendix.The content analysis of the 26 descriptive phrases revealed another level of structure – two structural dimensions of traits associated with stakeholders' institutional beliefs in an organizational setting and their social beliefs about organizational leaders as illustrated in Figure 1. The use of transformational or charismatic as defining behavioral leadership traits were ambiguous because each study's overall purpose or intent shifted, influencing researchers to continuously expand their leadership traits and attributional distinctions[7].

4.1 Charismatic Ambiguity

Researchers have linked a subjects' perception of a leader's charismatic style to the "interpersonal treatment" (Scott, 2007, p. 1597) they received from managers. For example, Groves (2005) suggested that charismatic leadership was "best explained by a theoretical model that postulates … followers' attitude toward organizational change, and organizational-change magnitude" (p. 272). Similarly, Erez et al. (2008) linked charismatic behaviors to positive worker affect and Tuomo (2006) demonstrated that charismatic leaders who established ethical-moral contexts in the work environment were more successful in promoting worker performance.

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appropriate as a postmodern tool of interpretation, it appears that Weber's concept of *Verstehen* similarly applies [For more on performativity as used in cultural and literary studies see Berns, 2009 and J. Miller, 2007.

[5] Margaret Archer has aptly described the human agency nuances posed by what she has termed "situational logics", where the full brunt of the Cultural System imposes its situational logic upon all groups depending upon which ideas they seek to hold or challenge (2000: 144).

[6] Archer has written that "(T)hese [cultural] effects mould the context of discursive relations and in turn condition different patterns of ideational development" (2000: 174).

[7] It is important to recognize that "some people experience more—and more chronic—attributional ambiguity than others because something about them adds an extra layer of complexity" (Aronson & Inzlicht, 2004, p. 829) to the process. This demonstrates the logical weakness of using leadership traits as a way of locating and rating group performances since individual emotional states cannot be controlled for.

Thus, charismatic constructs supposedly measured how a worker felt they were treated, how willing they were to accept organizational changes, and how ethical-moral they perceived their managers. This suggests a broad operational stroke for leadership traits, which undermines attempts at verifiability and scientific falsifiability (Popper, 1959).

4.2 Transformational Ambiguity

As previously mentioned, the content analysis revealed the ambiguity of leadership traits developed because of the broadening of operational definitions as the research settings changed or the researchers' focus shifted in the post-Fordist era. Felfe et al. (2004) investigated management and worker organizational citizenship behaviors and how "perceived similarity between subordinate and supervisor" (p. 92) was linked to transformational leadership behaviors. Pillai et al. (1999) examined transformational-transactional leadership traits and discovered that perceived trust in management buoyed organizational citizenship behaviors. Stone et al. (2003) examined transformational and servant leadership and concluded that the only distinction was attributable to a leader's particular focus: transformational leaders were more concerned with organizational outcomes whereas servant leaders who placed the organization subordinate to their followers. McLaurin and Al Amri (2008) reported that transformational leaders fostered "awareness of the vision of the organization" and identified "role modeling, empowering, and making the norms and values clear to all" (p. 15) as key behaviors. The examples given above demonstrated that transformational leadership retained broad operational definitions although the researchers narrowed their research settings or research purposes. Thus, the content analysis revealed that transformational leaders were perceived in an organizational setting that was external to workers and that leaders were perceived as a symbol of their institution.

4.3 Organizational and Social Belief Structures

The last phase of the content analysis allowed a refining of the two dimensions – organizational leadership and social psychological structures into 5 referents for each dimension. The social psychological dimension which comprised the charismatic leader typology was reduced to: (a) leads by example, (b) team focused, (c) fair-minded, (d) demonstrates emotional intelligence, and (e) innovative. The organizational dimension which comprised the transformational leader typology was reduced to: (a) expert, (b) ownership, (c) prestige, (d) networking, and (d) trust. Each one of these external components informed stakeholders' perceptions about their institutional behaviors.

5. DISCUSSION

The content analysis revealed that leadership traits remained an amorphous identifying endeavor. Although researchers have associated transformational or charismatic traits with management figures, their findings did not demonstrate which came first, a leader's charismatic or transformational persona, workers' psychological susceptibility or malleability, or the interactive consequences that lead to successful or unsuccessful group performances[8]. The content analysis did reveal that transformational concepts were tied to organizationally defined characteristics or phrases, suggesting that subjects' heuristic biases (Kahneman & Frederick, 2002) matched those of their superiors in an institutional belief system as framed by the five organizational beliefs (Sloman, 2002). Moreover, the content analysis demonstrated that charismatic traits were linked to social-psychological beliefs that were less about a leader's organizational activities and more about how a subject framed or managed their impressions in a group setting (Blumer, 1969; Goffman, 1974). Thus, the five social beliefs formed a normative structure that allowed workers to integrate their emotional responses to their manager's person-directed behaviors (see Figure 2 in the Appendix).

5.1 An Alternative Theoretical Model

Because the content analysis revealed that the operational definitions of leadership traits remained ambiguous, an alternative, logically stronger evaluation model based on Pierre Bourdieu's (1998) social habitus was proposed. Hanks' (2005) described Bourdieu's habitus as a concept that explains "the regularities immanent in practice" (p. 69). Bourdieu's habitus provides a theoretical framework that correlates an individual's disposition to act within a social setting based on learned schemes of patterned action.

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[8] Hacking brilliantly dubbed this methodological weakness the "looping effect of human kinds" (1999: 34). He described the inevitable classificatory schemes that literally become unusable because of the interactive consequences found in human relationships. If I employ a methodology that defines transformational or charismatic as 'such-and-such', then subjects' responses will inform later interpretations and similarly, actions.

The importance of Bourdieu's concept was his comprehension that a habitus framework does not inhibit or restrict human conduct, but instead acts as a life compass where individual intentionality remains a creative process coupled within institutional or group contexts. Bourdieu's habitus becomes instructive to our research because at least two key societal heuristics or schemes emerged from the content analysis: 1) stakeholders' interactions were a product of their social beliefs; and 2) stakeholders' willingness to meet organizational goals was a product of their intrapersonal decisions about their position and the justification of their position (status) in their company (see Figure 3).

5.2 Proposed Robust and Logically Stronger Metric

From the literature reviewed, it seems reasonable to portend that stakeholders in most work contexts employed abstract decision-making heuristics or "implicit" (Bolman & Deal, 2008, p. 169) programs to explain the rules associated with how they chose to behave. Because a habitus model would rely on these "dispositions, schemes of perceptions, and subjective aspirations" (Atkinson, 2010, p. 3) to locate leader and worker socio-organizational beliefs, researchers could turn to a more parsimonious metric that would inform the degree by which stakeholders were willing to meet common goals. Thus, research efforts would prove more reliable across large, vertically- and horizontally-integrated organizational entities if ambiguous traits were replaced with an evaluation matrix that incorporated organizational and social icons[9] as illustrated in Figure 3 in the Appendix.

To accomplish this, a hypothetical weighted evaluation scale (Table 4 in the Appendix) was developed based on the organizational and social icons identified by the content analysis. As previously discussed, the two headings reveal the dual dimensions that incorporate the social and institutional belief structures of an organization's stakeholders. Each dimension is made up of five referents that stakeholders would rank. However, because the evaluation matrix was designed to discover stakeholder alignment based on their social and institutional beliefs, each respondent would first rank the organizational icons and then rank each social belief icon against that specific institutional icon as shown in Figure 4. The result would be a weighted ranking of the organizational-social belief matrix for each stakeholder. The scale would provide a robust, comparative metric of leader-stakeholder fit in various settings that could be used for comparative purposes.

6. CONCLUSION

The content analysis of leadership traits research revealed that modernist management studies remained focused on finding methods that would motivate workers through the efforts of a single authority. Underlying the Taylorist to Post-Fordist assumptions was a workforce limited in mind and behavioral scope. From the content analysis of the literature reviewed, 10 salient organizational and social referents were identified that provided a plausible theoretical framework of leader and worker emergent performance. The key factors indentified demonstrated associations among organizational icons and social/individual icons that represented a person's constructed social-work space (Berger & Luckman, 1966), providing a robust postmodern methodology for measuring leaders' and workers' dynamic, decision-making and judgment heuristics in organizational settings (Anderson, et al., 2008; Becker, 2007; Albritton, Oswald, & Anderson, 2008).

The benefits of a postmodern leadership model would inform stakeholders' understanding of emergent leader-follower (or follower-leader) interaction as a consequence of personal biases, intuitive decision-making tools, and the cultural influences found in an organizational milieu (Morris, 2006; Choi, 2006; Neuhauser, 2007; Taylor, 2007; Todorovic & Schlosser, 2007; Jacoby, 2008). The postmodern model would examine emergent group performances instead of focusing on a leader's ephemeral behavioral traits by assembling the complex personal, cultural, and institutional biases found in work settings (DeLanda, 2006). Thus, in a postmodern organizational setting, successful leader-group performance would not *simply* rely on utilitarian notions, or on modernist conflict mitigation, but would *instead* emerge as a consequence of their dynamic socio-cultural systems (Archer, 2000). Successful organizations in a postmodern world would require managers and workers who were *free to act willingly* in a way that tests their limits, stretches group boundaries, and exceeds organizational goals, irrespective of their individual cultural milieu (Hesselbein & Goldsmith, 2009). This is in stark contrast to those firms that promote perspectives that *a priori* imply that humanity's survival depends on a "heroic agency" (Law, 1994, p.66).

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[9] The use of icon here borrows from Charles Sanders Pierce's semiotics or theory of signs. Specifically, the attributes chosen for the evaluation matrix signify leadership as an organizational object and social beliefs as subject-object to form an index of behavioral interpretation. Because the organizational and social attributes imbricate one another, like Pierce's pragmatics, the matrix unifies the two dimensions into one symbolic phenomenon (Hillis, 2009: 105-107). icon which stands for something else signs

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Appendix

Figure 1. Content Analysis Discovery Steps: Transformational, Charismatic Linkages
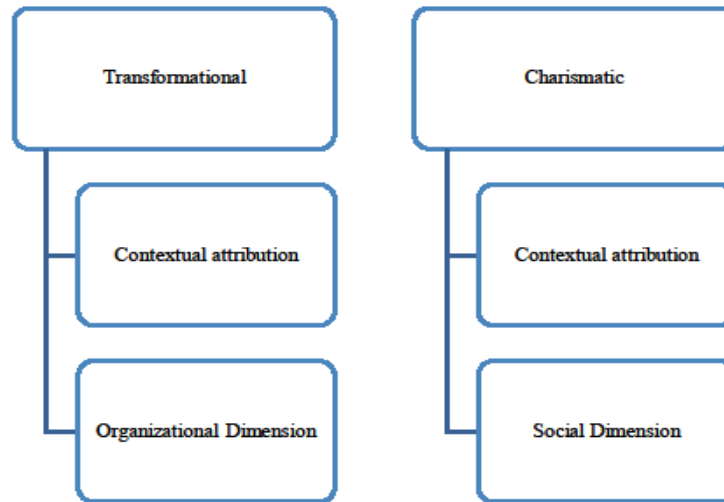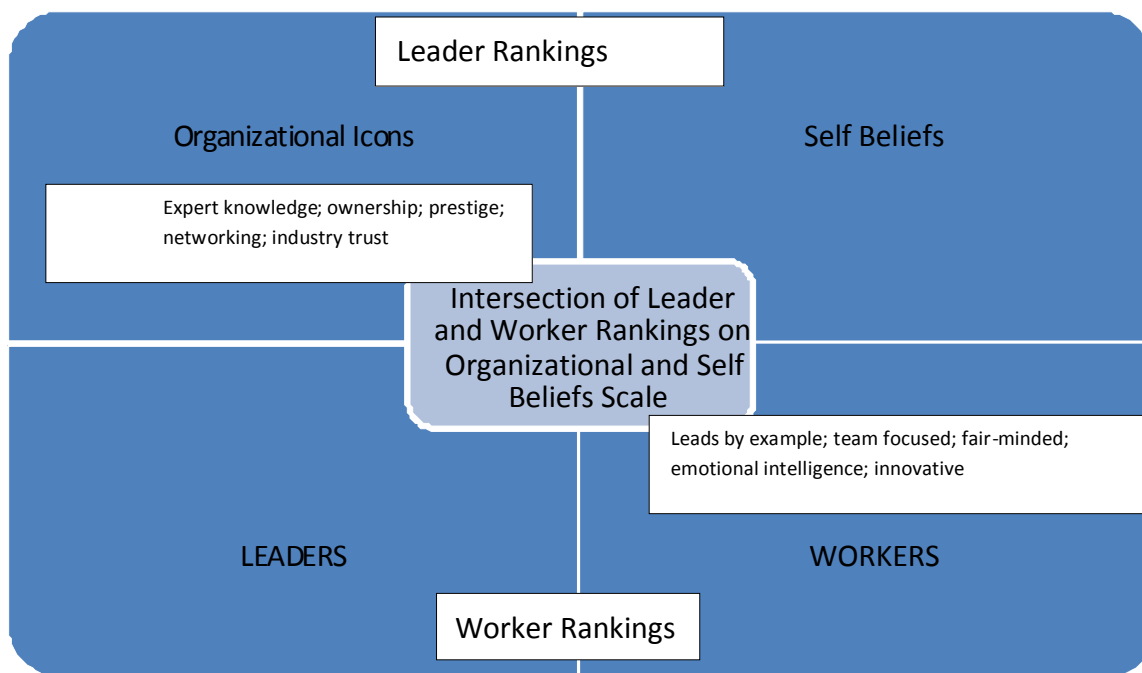

Figure 2. Hypothetical Postmodern Evaluation Scheme

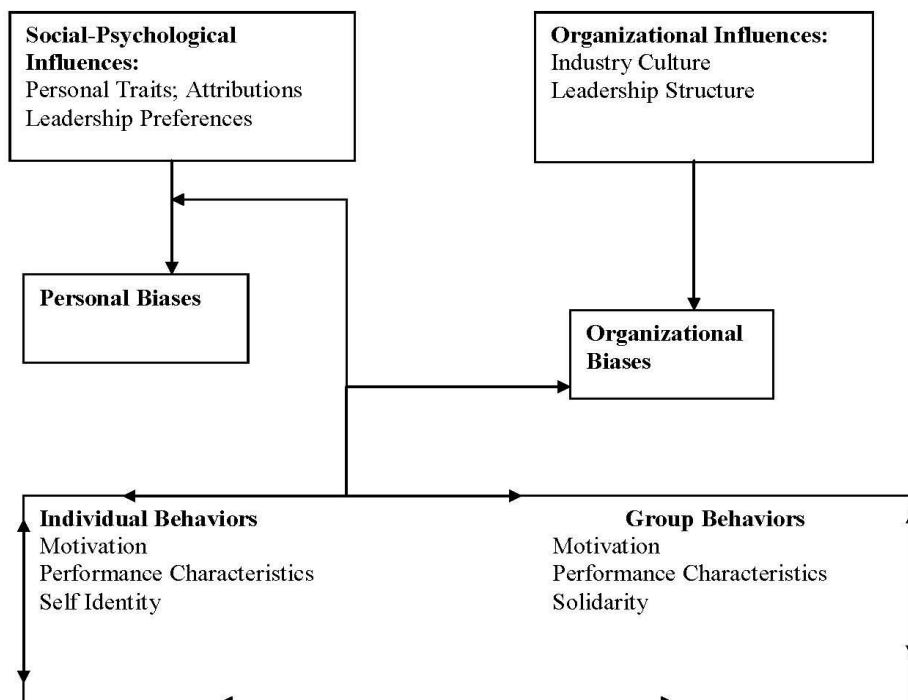Figure 3. Habitus Diagram of Social Space and Organizational Space

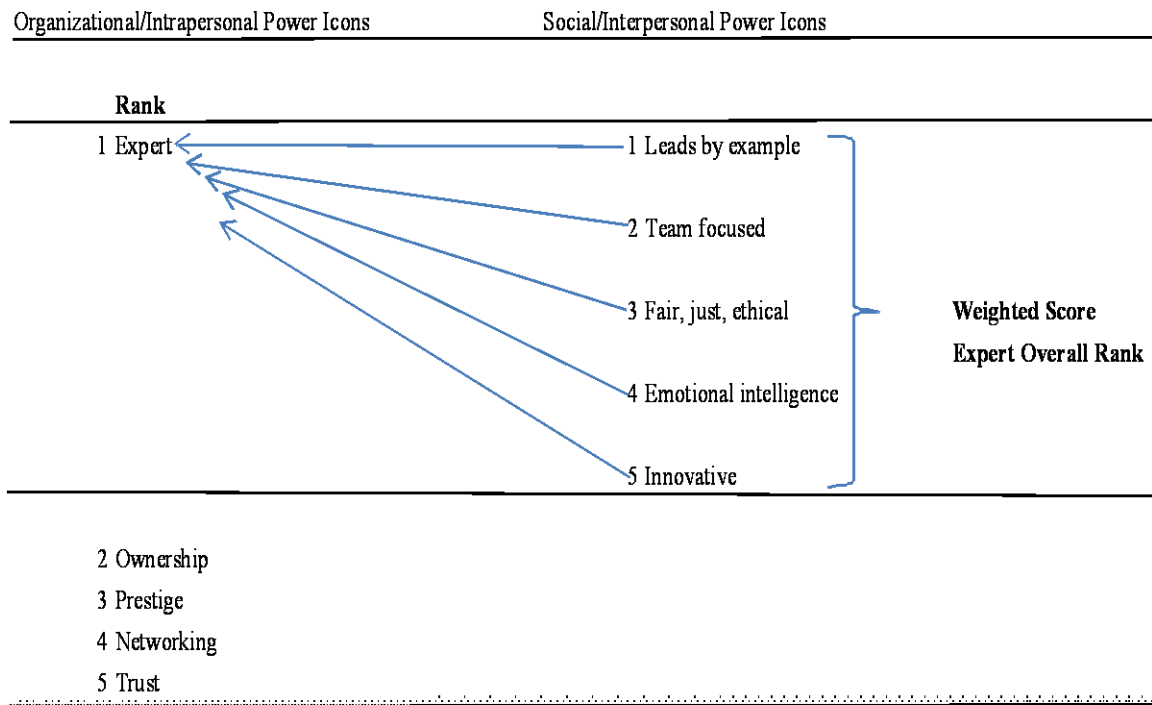Figure 4. Organizational Power and Social Beliefs Leadership Habitus Matrix

Organizational/Intrapersonal Power Icons   Social/Interpersonal Power Icons

Rank

1 Expert

1 Leads by example

2 Team focused

3 Fair, just, ethical   **Weighted Score**

Expert Overall Rank

4 Emotional intelligence

5 Innovative

2 Ownership

3 Prestige

4 Networking

5 Trust

Note: Each Subject *ranks* Organizational Icons from most to least important *in their estimation* .

Next, each subject *ranks* each Social Power Icon *relative importance* to each Organizational Icon .

Thus, a weighted ordinal scale develops from *each subject's habitus* .

Researchers can then compare subjects, groups, etc. for overall weighted ranking differences.

Hypotheses testing and inferences can be made as to group members *heuristic biases* and expected performance

in a leader/team environment.

Table 1. Content Summary of Transformational and Charismatic Traits

Transformational	Charismatic	Context	Studies
	Interpersonal strength; magnetism; forceful; fair	Group perceptions, behaviors; exchange relationship	Scott, Colquitt, & Zapata-Phelan, 2007
	Symbolic, meaningful behavior; idealist; visionary; emotionally influential	Organizational fit of subordinates; organizational behaviors internalized	Huang, Cheng, & Chou, 2005
Idealized influence moral values; communication; role clarity; mission clarity	Ethical, moral consequences;	Affect subordinate behaviors; organizational effectiveness	Hinkin & Tracey, 1999
	Affects followers perceptions; emotional intelligence, social intelligence, social control; emotional displays	Organizational change management	Groves, 2005
	Affect attitudes; visionary; emotionally-charged; emotional contagion	Job satisfaction; group performance	Erez, Misangyi, Johnson, LePine, & Halverson, 2008
	Manipulative; ethical; visionary; empowerment	Organizational outcomes; change management	Tuomo, 2006
Idealized influence; inspirational; intellectual; vision, trust; respect; risk-taker; integrity; role model	(considered a component of transformational)	Organization-directed; group performance	Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2004
Motivational; trust; charismatic; inspirational; intellectual, individualized communication	(Charisma as a central concept)	Exchange-oriented; organizational behaviors; group commitment	Pillai, Schriesheim, & Williams, 1999
Affective; motivational; empowering, role model, visionary; change agent; moral	Self-confident; visionary; unconventional; self-interested	Group performance needs; affect worker attitudes	McLaurin & Al Amri, 2008
Affect beliefs; values, visionary; moral; empowering	(Charismatic used synonymously	Follower change commitment; change management	Herold, Fedor, Caldwell, & Liu, 2008
Role model; inspirational; intellectual; individualized consideration		Affect group performance; organizational commitment	Felfe & Schyns, 2004
Empowering, intellectual; vision-sharing; role model; mediator; emotionally intelligent	(Considered a component of transformational)	Relationship management; group performance in multicultural settings	Manning, 2003
Motivational; moral; social contagion; goal-directed; communicative	(Mainly a component of transformational, but case sensitive)	Organizational change process; inducing change in followers	Pawar, 2003
Authority; visionary; role model; problem solving; inspirational; idealism; risk taker; networking	(Considered a component of transformational)	Organizational power; legitimate authority; affect changes in followers; environment sensitive	Pearce, et al., 2003
Visionary, role model; inspirational; individualized consideration		Motivate change in others; aware of subordinates emotional/perceptions	Hautala, 2005
Stimulates; motivates; selfless; individualized consideration; inspirational; visionary; intellectual; fairness	(Idealized influences)	Organizational change; subordinate perceptions; group performance	Wu, Neubert, & Xiang 2007
Trustworthy; inspirational; communicative; intellectual; individual consideration; trust; moral; empowering, respect	(Considered a component of transformational, but can be different based on context)	Group satisfaction; group performance as a subjective assessment by followers; subordinates identify with group	Hoyt & Blascovich, 2003

Table 2. Content Analysis of Transformational and Charismatic Traits

	Organizational/Power Icons	Self/Group Icons
Transformational/Transactional	1. Interpersonal skills aimed at organizational effectiveness 2. Multicultural competencies 3. Transcend role through internal drive to succeed 4. Powerful, 5. Knowledgeable 6. Respected 7. Change agents 8. Courageous 9. Empower others 10. Ethical 11. Life-long learners 12. Emotional Intelligence 13. Visionaries	1. Expert 2. Ownership 3. Prestige 4. Networking 5. Trust
Charismatic	1. Manipulative 2. Culture-specific 3. Trustworthy 4. Multiple Intelligences 5. Unconventional behavior 6. Visionaries/Idealists 7. Self-confident 8. High self esteem 9. Motivated by power 10. High Performers	1. Leads by example 2. Team focused 3. Fair, just, ethical 4. Emotional intelligence 5. Innovative

Table 3. Organizational Power and Individual Leadership Traits Matrix.

Subject Ranks: Organizational/Intrapersonal Power Icons	1. Expert 2. Ownership 3. Prestige 4. Networking 5. Trust	Subject Ranks:
= Weighted Values	= Overall Score	= Weighted Values
Subject Ranks Interpersonal Power Icons	1. Leads by example 2. Team focused 3. Fair, just, ethical 4. Emotional intelligence 5. Innovative	Subject Ranks:

Table 4. Weighted Evaluation Matrix: Organizational Power and Individual Leadership Traits.

Leadership Solution Evaluation Matrix						
	Power Traits (perceived)					
	Expert Knowledge	Ownership Power	Prestige power	Network Power	Trustworthy Power	Final Rating
Relative Importance (Weight)==>	3	1	5	4	2	
Primary CANDIDATE TRAITS						
A) Leads by Example	5	1	5	1	5	3.67
B) Team-focused	1	2	2	5	3	2.73
C) Fair & Just; ethical	3	3	4	3	2	3.20
D) Emotional Intelligence	4	5	3	4	4	3.73
E) Innovative	2	4	1	2	1	1.67
AVATAR TRAITS						
						-
						-
						-

(Left vertical label: Psychometric Self-Report)

Figure 2. Evaluation Matrix: Habitus Hypothetical Correlation Properties

Y_1 Organizational Icons: Leader

Y_2 Organizational Icons: Workers

X_2 Self Perceptions: Workers

X_1 Self Perceptions: Leader