

# Leadership and Follower Outcomes: The Moderating Effect of Follower Promotion Focus

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## **Abstract**

The present study examines the moderating effect of follower chronic promotion focus on the relationship between charismatic leadership and three followers' outcomes, namely, extra-effort, self-sacrifice and dependency using Conger and Kanungo's scale of charismatic leadership. A survey was conducted among 306 leader-manager dyads at middle management level of 30 organizations from 14 different industrial sectors of Sri Lanka. The analysis indicates that charismatic leadership influences follower dependency and extra-effort positively while the relationship between charismatic leadership and follower self-sacrifice is not statistically significant. Furthermore, follower chronic promotional focus contrary to the present theorization does not moderate the effect of charismatic leadership on follower outcomes. While contributing to the ongoing attempt of explaining charismatic leadership dynamics through follower self-regulatory focus, the study suggests that managers should invigorate charisma in order to harness the effort exerted by subordinates.

**Key words:** Charisma, Leadership, Follower Outcome, Regulatory Focus, Sri Lanka

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## **Introduction**

Leadership theories began with trait theories of great leaders (Bass, 1990) and in the 1970s it moved to what is now called the new genre of leadership theory (Shamir, House and Arthur, 1993), in which charisma, which was the focal point in trait theories, regains prominence. Scholars often use different terms to describe this specific type of leadership behaviour such as “charismatic” (Shamir, House and Arthur, 1993; Conger and Kanungo, 1987), “transformational” (Bass, 1985), and “visionary” (Bennis and Nanus, 1985) or “transformational-charismatic” (van Knippenberg and Sitkin, 2014) leadership. This new stream of theories, in spite of what term each uses to call the leader, focuses on exceptional leaders who have extraordinary effects on their followers and eventually on social systems (van Knippenberg and Sitkin, 2014). Transformational/charismatic leadership occurs when leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality. Bass (1990) defines a transformational leader as one who motivates followers to do more than they originally expected to do. Such leaders transform the needs, values, preferences and aspirations of followers from self-interest to collective interest (van Knippenberg and Sitkin, 2014).

Previous researchers have found evidence of a strong, positive relationship between transformational/charismatic leadership and the financial performance of business units (e.g., Barling, Weber, and Kelloway, 1996; Bass, Avolio, Jung and Berson, 2003) and business unit performance (Howell and Avolio, 1993). At the individual level, studies have found significant and positive relationships between transformational/charismatic leadership and the amount of effort followers are willing to exert to perform above and beyond the call of duty (Huang, Cheng and Chou, 2005; Densten, 2002), perceived group performance (Conger, Kanungo and Menon, 2000), job satisfaction (Braun, Peus, Weisweiler and Frey, 2013; Lian, Brown, Tnazer and Che, 2011) and task performance, (Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang and Chen, 2005; Lian, Brown, Tnazer and Che, 2011). On the whole, the available empirical findings indicate that “...leaders who engage in the theoretical charismatic behaviours produce the theoretical charismatic effects” (Shamir, House and Arthur, 1993: 578).

In addition to exploring the direct effect of transformation/charismatic effect on various outcomes, the researchers have attempted to examine what mediates and moderates that relationship. For instance, beginning with Shamir, House, and Arthur (1993), researchers attempted to explain the effect of transformational/charismatic leadership on its outcomes using follower self-concept. However, while

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there is some empirical evidence for their theorization, it is not as much as it should be (Breevaart, Bakker, Hetland, Demerouti, Olsen, and Espevik, 2014). While there are more empirical studies into factors that moderate the relationship between transformational/charismatic leadership and follower outcomes than into those that have a mediating effect, interest in the moderating effect still remains high, maybe due to recent ambiguous findings related to the leadership-outcomes relationship (Mitchell, Boyle, Parker, Giles, Joyce, and Chiang, 2014). As a result, even now, researchers attempt to develop theories explaining the mediating and moderating effect on this relationship. For instance, Kark and van Dijk, (2007), drawing from the self-regulatory focuses theory (Higgins, 1996), propose another explanation of why and when transformational leadership influences follower outcomes. They theorize that the self-regulatory focus plays the role of mediator as well as of moderator in the leader influence process.

In spite of Kark and van Dijk' theory is now seven years old, only limited research has been undertaken to validate this theory. Furthermore, these studies use either MLQ (Hamstra, van Yperen, Wisse, and Sassenberg, 2014) or some dimensions of transformational and charismatic leadership (Stam, van Knippenberg and Wisse, 2010; Pierro, Cicero and Higgins, 2009) as a measurement of leadership. However, the charismatic leadership that Conger and Kanungo (1987) proposed is conceptually and operationally different from Bass's transformational leadership. For instance, correlations between each of the sub-scale of the scale that Conger and Kanungo (1994) developed and is known as the C-K scale with other perceived leadership behaviour measures indicate that the model and the scale are distinct from other leadership scales (Conger and Kanungo, 1994) in spite of which some (van Knippenberg and Sitkin (2014) argue that the C-K model and Bass's transformational leadership are similar. Thus it is questionable how valid the regulatory focus theory is in explaining charismatic leadership dynamics as suggested by Conger and Kanungo (1987). This lacuna in empirical studies is more pronounced in examinations of the moderating effect of regulatory focus in leadership studies, especially using the C-K scale. Many such studies use either MLQ (Hamstra, van Yperen, Wisse, and Sassenberg, 2014) or different scales (Shi, Zhang, Xu, Liu, and Miao, 2014; Rafferty and Griffin, 2004; Pierro, Cicero and Higgins, 2009). For instance, Whitford and Moss (2009) use a measure of transformational leadership developed by Rafferty and Griffin (2004) while Pierro, Cicero and Higgins (2009) use a measure of prototypicality. Therefore, the study that this paper reports examined the proposition of Kark and van Dijk (2007) that follower chronic promotion focus moderates the relationship

between leadership and follower outcomes. More specifically, the study examines the moderating effect of chronic promotion focus on the relationship between charismatic leadership and three follower level outcomes -dependency, extra-effort and self-sacrifice- using the behavioural theory of charismatic leadership (Conger and Kanungo 1987) and the charismatic leadership (C-K) scale emanating from it.

Accordingly, this paper addresses the lacuna in empirical studies examining the role of follower regulatory focus in the leadership influence process and the lack of empirical evidence available to date for Kark and van Dijk's (2007) theory on the role of regulatory focus in leadership, specifically its moderating effect. As said above, since there is a lack of studies that test this theory using the C-K scale, its validity as an explanation for the leader effect on follower outcomes proposed in the new genre of leadership is questionable. As this study employs the C-K scale, perhaps which comes next to MLQ in the number of citations, this paper, at least partly, addresses this gap in empirical studies. Moreover, very few studies have been undertaken to examine charismatic leadership in the Sri Lankan context (e.g., Jayakody, 2008a; 2010) while no studies have been undertaken in Sri Lanka that examines Kark and van Dijk's (2007) theory in Sri Lanka. Sri Lanka being a South Asian, middle income country with a predominantly Buddhist population, this study examines the generalizability of both charismatic leadership and Kark and Dijk's (2007) theory to a different socio-cultural context. The present study also addresses the lacuna in empirical studies on charismatic influence on follower dependency. Though charisma is said to result in follower dependency, there is inadequate empirical evidence except for studies undertaken by Kark, Shamir and Chen (2003), Yukl (1999), and Eisenbeiß and Boerner (2013). Since follower dependency is now considered one of the critical outcomes of charismatic leadership (Eisenbeiß and Sabine Boerner 2013; Kark, Shamir and Chen, 2003), or specifically an aspect of the 'dark side of charisma' (Howell and Shamir, 2005; Conger and Kanungo, 1998), there is a need for more empirical studies on this aspect of charismatic relationship as it provides an insight into the dark side of charisma.

The rest of the paper proceeds as follows: In the following section the theory of charismatic leadership and the regulatory focus theory are reviewed and hypotheses formulated. Next, the methodology of the present study is outlined and the findings are also presented. In the fourth section, the findings are discussed delineating the theoretical and practical implications along with the limitations and suggestions for further research. The last section presents the concluding remarks.

## **Literature Review**

### ***Charismatic Leadership***

Even though charisma gained popularity among organizational theorists only during the last 30 years, the history of the concept of charisma runs dates back many centuries. The concept of charisma can be traced to the ages of the Romans and the Christian Bible, which refers to gifts from the Holy Spirit (Paul et al., 2002). Yet, until Weber (1947) borrowed it to discuss the rationalization of Western society, it was limited to theological discourses (Paul et al., 2002). While the theological literature views charisma as a form of authority purely based on the gift of divine grace, Weber (1947) does not limit it to 'divine origin' and views, and it may even be exemplary. Furthermore, Weber (1947) emphasises the attributional nature of charisma as he emphasises that a leader becomes charismatic only when he is regarded as such by his followers.

Since Weber's writings, charisma has been subject to continuous reinterpretation (Conger and Kanungo, 1987; Paul et al., 2002; Lindholm, 2002; Jayakody, 2008b) and different operationalization. What is considered charisma is different from theory to theory and thus scholars still debate on the meaning of charisma (Yukl, 1999; Jayakody, 2008b). Writing about these different conceptualizations, Jayakody (2008b) cites others who treat charisma as 'a relationship, 'a personal characteristic, and 'a perceptual/attributional phenomenon'. In spite of these differences, almost all organizational theorists subscribe to Weber.

Among the theories on charismatic leadership, the behavioural theory of charismatic leadership (Conger and Kanungo, 1987) can be considered the most widely used theory. Like Weber, Conger and Kanungo (1987) define charismatic leadership as an attributional phenomenon, and posit that a constellation of leader behaviour would lead to followers' attribution of charisma. Further, they state that charisma is attributed to leaders when their behaviour is characterized by strategic vision and articulation, unconventional behaviour, personal risk, sensitivity to members' needs and sensitivity to the environment (Conger, Kanungo, Menon and Mathur, 1997). Later, Conger and Kanungo (1994) and their colleagues, Menon and Mathur 1997) developed and tested a scale to measure charismatic leadership that they espoused in their behavioural theory of charismatic leadership.

### ***Follower Regulatory Focus***

Higgins (1996) developed the regulatory focus theory, which describes important differences in the processes through which people approach pleasure and avoid pain (Kark and van Dijk, 2007). Self-regulation refers to the process by which people seek to align themselves (i.e., behaviours and self-conceptions) with appropriate goals or standards (Brockner and Higgins, 2001). Specifically, Higgins (1996) proposed that people have two basic self-regulation systems, namely, promotion and prevention. Promotion focus regulates the achievement of rewards and the focus of individuals with promotion focus is on promotion goals, while prevention focus regulates the avoidance of punishments and the focus of individuals with prevention goal is on prevention goals.

Promotion goals represent the “ideal self” and include hopes, wishes and aspirations whereas prevention goals represent the “ought self” and include duties, obligations, and responsibilities. Each regulatory focus has different consequences for perception, decision-making, and emotions as well as for individuals’ behaviour and performance (Higgins, 1996). Individuals who operate primarily within the promotion focus are more concerned with accomplishments and aspirations, are likely to be sensitive to the presence or absence of rewards, use approach as a goal attainment strategy, are more creative in problem-solving processes, show more willingness to take risks, and experience emotions ranging from elation and happiness to dejection (Brockner and Higgins, 2001; Crowe and Higgins, 1997; Friedman and Forster, 2001). The theory suggests what parents emphasize to their child, i.e., achievements or obligations, determines how intensely he, once he becomes an adult, possesses a particular regulatory focus, and accordingly, people differ in terms of type of regulatory focus, i.e., promotion vs. prevention. In addition to types, Higgins, Shah, and Friedman (1997) also discuss regulatory focus in terms of the temporal dimension. Intensity of regulatory focus which is operationalized in terms of accessibility that is stable across time and situations is known as chronic regulatory focus. People may be different in terms of chronic regulatory focus in a way that people differ from one another in terms of accessibility of regulatory focus. A regulatory focus that is contextually primed and is accessible is called a situational regulatory focus (Stam, van Knippenberg and Wisse, 2010; Higgins, Shah, and Friedman, 1997).

Recent studies on prevention-promotion effects have suggested that the regulatory foci can be thought of as rich syndromes that differ from each other on multiple variables (van Dijk and Kluger, 2004). The basic motivations that underlie these two

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syndromes are two conflicting motivations: the motivation for stability versus the motivation for change. Both motivations are important for the survival of the human being (van Dijk and Kluger, 2004).

### ***Influence of Charismatic Leadership on Follower Outcome***

The “new genre of leadership” (House, 1992) is considered a special type of leadership related to specific and observable behaviour, which is charismatic leadership, by which such leaders can successfully stimulate internal change among followers and are able to have an extraordinary influence on their followers (Huang, Cheng and Chou, 2005). A number of empirical studies have been conducted, which in general have suggested that charismatic leadership has a positive effect on subordinates and organizations. For instance, in their review papers, Lowe et al. (1996) did a meta-analysis of 39 transformational leadership studies including the dimension of charisma, and found an average correlation between charisma and subordinates’ self-rated outcomes of 0.81, and a correlation between charisma and objectively rated outcomes of 0.35. The meta-analytic review by Fuller et al. (1996) also came to a similar conclusion.

The outcome variables for studying charismatic leadership can be grouped into three categories. The first category includes variables describing the relationship between subordinates and leaders such as supervisory satisfaction. The second includes variables describing subordinates’ perception of their own tasks and roles such as extra job involvement and intrinsic motivation. The third includes variables describing the relationship between subordinates and their groups such as organizational commitment (for detailed reviews, see Lowe et al., 1996; Fuller et al., 1996). The first two categories of outcome variables have been discussed extensively in past charismatic leadership studies (Huang, Cheng and Chou, 2005). By bringing up the meaning of work and linking an organization’s mission and goals with ideological values, charismatic leaders make their followers make substantial self-sacrifices and extend effort above and beyond the call of duty (Huang, Cheng and Chou, 2005). In addition to extra-effort and self-sacrifice, follower dependency is gaining an important place as an outcome variable in the recent past (Kark, Shamir and Chen, 2003; Eisenbein and Boerner, 2013).



### ***Follower extra-effort***

One of the most important leadership outcomes is the extra-effort that a leader can harness from the follower (Densten, 2002). Extra-effort can be defined as subordinates' behaviours that surpass minimum role requirements" (adopted from the concept of conscientiousness -a dimension of organizational citizenship behaviour, Deluga, 1994). Huang, Cheng and Chou (2005) in a study found that CEOs' charisma positively influence their followers' extra-effort to work. Kirkpatrick and Lock (1996) hypothesized a link between visionary leadership, self-efficacy and performance for which they found supportive evidence. Further, people with high self-efficacy are willing to expend more effort and persist longer in overcoming obstacles to the attainment of task objectives. Further, charismatic leaders create a sense of urgency that requires greater effort by subordinates to meet the high expectations. Shamir, Zakay, Breinin and Popper, (1998) reported that charismatic/transformational leadership is followed by extra-efforts of the follower for achieving organizational goals. When strong personal identification occurs, followers will imitate the leader's behaviour, carry out the leaders' requests, and make an extra-effort to please the leader.

### ***Follower self-sacrifice***

Self-sacrifice has been defined by Choi and Mai-Dalton (1999) as the "the total/partial abandonment, and/or postponement of personal interests, privileges or welfare in the division of labour, distribution of rewards, and exercise of power". Similarly, Yorges et al. (1999) defined self-sacrifice as "giving up or loss of something important to an individual". These definitions emphasize the "giving up personal benefits" and thus form the core of the definition of self-sacrifice. From a broader perspective, de Cremer and Knippenberg (2005) viewed this construct by including the benefit that the other party would gain through self-sacrifice. More precisely, they defined self-sacrifice as willingness "to incur personal costs (or run the risk of such costs) to serve the goals and mission of the group or organization".

Empirical studies have established links between charismatic leadership and self-sacrifice. The conceptual discussion in the charismatic leadership literature that suggests a "socialized" leader is one who is self-sacrificial and that this type of leader will be more effective than pseudo-transformational leaders who put their own self-interest ahead of others. Thus followers of socialized leaders are likely to engage in self-sacrifice (Howell and Shamir, 2005). Precisely, the "charisma" component



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(idealized influence/inspirational motivation) of transformational leadership has been linked to self-sacrifice. Choi and Mai-Dalton (1999) found that participants attributed charisma to leaders who engaged in self-sacrifice and were also willing to reciprocate through self-sacrifice.

### ***Follower dependency***

According to Eisenbein and Boerner (2013), Birtchnell states a dependent person 'receives from others a borrowed identity, guidance and direction, compensation for those areas in which he is incompetent and more important of all, acceptance, approval and affirmation of worth'. Transformational leadership also includes charismatic behaviours that are suggested to have the potential to create dependence on the leader among followers (Kark, Shamir and Chen, 2003). Theories of charismatic leadership propose that these types of leadership behaviours might result in followers who perceive the leader as extraordinary and exceptional and therefore become dependent on the leader for guidance and inspiration (Yukl, 1999).

The psychoanalytic theories, which view the charismatic relationship as a regression to early childhood relationships with parents, imply that such leadership results in increased dependence on the leader (e.g., De Vries, 1999). The potential of charismatic leadership for creating dependency is also recognized in more recent theories, for instance, by Conger and Kanungo (1998), who claim that "what is unique in charismatic leadership in contrast to other leadership forms is the intensity of this identification and dependence". Charismatic leadership is likely to be more important in a dynamic, unpredictable environment that requires transformation to happen, thus creating an environment of dependency. Furthermore, several empirical works (Kark, Shamir and Chen, 2003; Eisenbein and Boerner, 2013) support the positive effect of charisma on follower dependency.

Based on the above theoretical reasoning and empirical evidence, it can be argued that charismatic leadership is likely to influence extra-effort, self-sacrifice and dependency of followers positively. Thus the following hypothesis is advanced:

H1: Charismatic leadership influences follower extra-effort, follower self-sacrifice and follower dependency positively.

***Moderating effect of follower promotion focus***

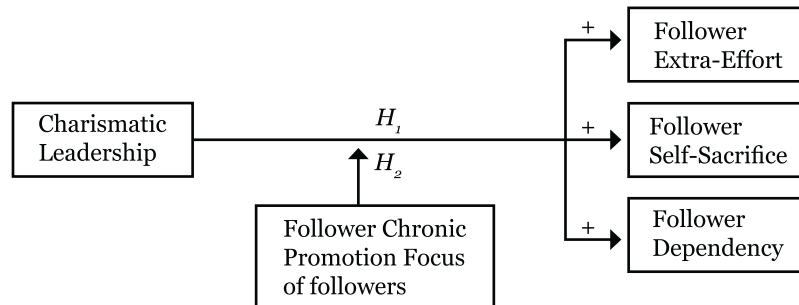
Stam, van Knippenberg and Wisse (2010) found in an experimental study that chronic promotion focus moderates follower focused vision on outcomes supporting the moderating effect of chronic regulatory focus on the effect of charismatic leadership and follower outcomes. When followers and leaders are in different locations, visionary leadership was found to be related to work attitudes when chronic promotion focus is sufficiently high or when prevention focus is sufficiently low (Whitford and Moss, 2009). In a study of samples of employees and students in Italy, chronic promotion focus was found to moderate leader group prototypicality and follower satisfaction with the leader (Pierro, Cicero and Higgins, 2009). While the above studies support the moderating effect of chronic promotion focus, there is also evidence for the moderating effect of follower prevention focus on the same relationship. In a series of laboratory and survey studies, de Cremer, Mayer, Dijke, Schouten and Bardes (2009) found that when followers possess intense prevention focus, the relationship between self-sacrificial leadership and pro-social behaviour such as organizational citizenship behaviour is found to be high. Furthermore, these studies have not employed the C-K scale or charismatic leadership as conceptualized by Conger and Kanungo, though the above evidence suggesting the positive effect of vision, self-sacrifice and leader prototypes which can be considered as aspects of charismatic leadership (Densten, 2002) permit one to assume the moderating effect of follower regulatory focus on the relationship between charismatic leadership and follower outcomes. Therefore, the following hypothesis is advanced:

H2: Follower promotion focus moderates the relationship between charismatic leadership and follower extra-effort, follower self-sacrifice and follower dependency.

The relationships proposed in the above two hypotheses are graphically shown in Figure 1. As shown in it, charismatic leadership influences follower extra-effort, follower self-sacrifice and follower dependency positively while follower chronic promotion focus moderates these relationships.

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**Figure 1. Conceptual Model**



### Methodology

#### Measures

##### *Charismatic Leadership*

Charismatic leader behaviour was assessed with the 20-item C-K Scale (Conger and Kanungo, 1994). The results of the studies indicate that the C-K scale has sound psychometric properties with adequate reliability, convergent and discriminant validity coefficients. This scale measures charismatic leadership on a six-point scale (from 1, 'very characteristic', to 6, 'very uncharacteristic'). Sample items include 'provides inspiring strategic and organizational goals' (strategic vision and articulation), 'recognizes the abilities and skills of other members in the organization' (sensitivity to the environment), 'shows sensitivity for the needs and feelings of the other members in the organization' (sensitivity to members' needs), 'takes high personal risk for the sake of the organization' (personal risk), and 'uses non-traditional means to achieve organizational goals' (unconventional behaviour). The respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which the behaviour was characteristic of the immediate supervisor in his/her company.

##### *Follower extra-effort*

The scale used to measure follower extra-effort was adopted from Jayakody (2011), which is operationalized as a one-dimensional construct, and comprises three items drawn from the existing scales such as organizational citizen behaviour (Deluga, 1994) and two items developed based on Williams and Anderson (1991) on a five-point scale ranging (from 1, 'not at all', to 5, 'completely'). Items which were drawn from the existing scale were modified in order to fit them into this study, for instance,

“mission” in the original item was changed to “purpose” and “I” in the original item was changed to “he/she”. A sample item is “My attendance at work is above the norm. (Adopted from Williams and Anderson, 1991).

#### *Follower self-sacrifice*

Follower self-sacrifice was operationalized as a one-dimensional construct and comprises three items drawn from existing scales developed by van Knippenberg and van Knippenberg (2005) and one item from Shamir et al., (1998) on a five - point scale ranging (from 1, ‘not at all’, to 5, ‘completely’). Items which were drawn from the existing scale were identified in order to fit them into this study, for instance, “I” in the original item was changed to “he/she”. A sample item is “... I sacrifice my personal comfort to achieve the purpose of my leader.” (Shamir et al., 1998).

#### *Follower dependency*

The scale for follower dependency was adopted from Jayakody (2011), which is a new measure, and it was developed by drawing variables and indicators from the published work on follower dependency or by developing new items (Kark, Shamir and Chen, 2003; Conger, 1999). Further, five items were selected from Eisenbein and Boerner (2013) to measure and to fully cover both the cognitive and the motivational aspects of dependency, which were generated by reviewing the social-scientific leadership literature regarding statements on follower dependency (Eisenbein and Boerner, 2013). This is operationalized as a three dimensional construct and is measured on a five-point scale ranging (from 1, ‘not at all’, to 5, ‘completely’). Sample items include “If my leader does not affirm my work/behaviour, I feel that I am underperforming or even failing.”

#### *Follower chronic promotion focus*

Nine items measuring promotion focus of the 18-item Work Regulatory Focus Scale developed by Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko and Roberts (2008) to assess the chronic promotion focus where the measures were attributing a work context was considered to best fit the proposed study. This scale measures chronic regulatory focus on a five-point scale ranging (from 1, ‘strongly disagree’, to 5, ‘strongly agree’) Sample items include ‘A chance to grow is an important factor for me when looking for a job’, ‘I focus on accomplishing job tasks that will further my advancement’, ‘I spend a great deal of time envisioning how to fulfil my aspirations’ and ‘My work priorities

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are impacted by a clear picture of what I aspire to be'. The scale has demonstrated sufficient validity and reliability with significant correlation with leadership scales (Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko and Roberts, 2008).

### **Sample**

As stated earlier, the study has two main components of respondents, namely, the leader and the follower. Therefore the researchers had to create two types of questionnaires for the respective parties to extract data from each side and thus 193 leader questionnaires were distributed among middle and supervisory management grades and 579 follower questionnaires were distributed among direct subordinates of those 193 leaders. The researchers received 339 follower questionnaires and 108 leader questionnaires, which represent 59% and 56% of questionnaires distributed among the followers and leaders respectively. However, 33 follower questionnaires and six leader questionnaires had to be rejected due to their incompleteness, thus resulting in a sample size of 306 leader-followers dyads for the analysis. The respondents predominantly (98%) represent the private sector organizations of Sri Lanka representing fourteen industrial sectors and 30 different organizations. The industries that participants represent are apparels, banking, BPO and other outsourcing services, construction, FMCG, hotels and tourism, insurance, information technology, logistics, manufacturing, media, telecommunications, trading and travel. However, it should be noted that telecommunication, banking and insurance represent 27%, 18% and 11% respectively of the total sample.

### **Analysis and findings**

Firstly, the researchers carried out the normality test for the measurements, constructs and the variables of the study using the IBM SPSS Statistics 20 software package. Normal probability plots as well as the Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) test show that all the variables are negatively skewed or skewed to the left. Considering the outcome of the normality test, the researchers decided to test the hypothesis with Partial Least Square (PLS) using the SmartPLS 2.0 M3 release, a software package developed for the PLS path analysis as PLS is recommended for the analyse the data which is not normally distributed (Fornell and Bookstein, 1982). The advantage of PLS is that its result can be meaningfully interpreted in the context of traditional regression analysis and principle component analysis, as the path coefficient and loadings of items of a PLS structural model are similar to standardized regression

coefficient and factor loading respectively. Due to this similarity, the method recommended to test moderators within the context of traditional regression analysis can also be employed in the context of PLS. Furthermore, PLS also provides  $R^2$  which can be taken as the overall effect measure. The statistical significance of the structural model can be accessed by bootstrapping, a resampling procedure that can be used to test the significance of the path coefficient of PLS analysis.

PLS has the advantage of simultaneously estimating both the measurement model and the structural model. The measurement model is evaluated through reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity. PLS provides composite reliability in addition to Cronbach's Alpha to assess reliability. Unlike Cronbach's Alpha, composite reliability is less sensitive to the number of variables of a construct while assessing internal consistency reliability better than Cronbach's Alpha (Hair, Sarstedt, Hopkins, Kuppelwieser, 2014). Convergent validity is assessed through outer loadings and average variance extracted (AVE) and thresholds are 0.5 and 0.7 respectively. Discriminant validity is assessed through cross loadings (Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics, 2009). In the case of cross loading, loading of an indicator on its relevant construct should be greater than the loadings reported for the same indicator on other constructs. PLS provides two scales to assess structural model path coefficient with the corresponding significant score, Coefficient of Determination ( $R^2$ ).

Further, the researchers employed the hierarchical component approach or repeated indicator approach to enter leader charisma and follower dependency into the structural model as the second-order construct in SmartPLS. As cited by Wetzels, Odekerken-Schröder and Oppen (2009), the hierarchical constructs or multidimensional constructs can be defined as constructs involving more than one dimension. As such, they can be distinguished from one-dimensional constructs, which are characterized by a single underlying dimension. Moreover, in a structural model, the higher-order constructs may serve as either cause or effect by being embedded in a nomological network. This approach also allows to derive the (indirect) effects of lower-order constructs, or dimensions, on outcomes of the higher-order construct as the pair wise product of loadings (or weights for formative constructs) and coefficients of the outcomes (Edwards and Bagozzi 2000). Therefore, the variables of each first-order factor (construct) were repeated to represent the higher order factor (variable) in SmartPLS.

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### Measurement Model

The structural model with the following constructs and relationships was considered as the baseline model of the analysis. Leader charisma was considered as the independent variable consisting of second order factors namely strategic vision and articulation, personal risk, sensitivity to the environment, sensitivity to member needs and unconventional behaviour. Follower extra-effort, follower self-sacrifice and follower dependency were considered as dependent variables, while follower promotion focus was considered as the mediator.

The three first-order constructs of follower dependency load poorly on follower dependency. Therefore researchers decided to modify the structural model while treating dependency as a first-order construct with 11 indicators with it. Then, validity and reliability of this new model was examined again, and subsequently items which did not meet the threshold were removed. While 0.7 is considered as the threshold of individual items loading, the composite scale reliability and Cronbach's Alpha 0.5 was used to assess internal consistency and reliability. Individual item loading has been treated as an indicator of individual item reliability; both composite scale reliability and Cronbach's Alpha are used to assess the internal consistency, and the AVE used as the scale of convergent validity (Hair, Ringle and Sarstedt, 2013). Considering the threshold level of individual item loading of 0.7, even though measures were loading to corresponding constructs, they were below the threshold level of the second order independent variable, i.e., charismatic leadership, and the first-order measure which resulted in removing certain items.

**Figure 2: Removed Items**

Variable Construct	Measure	Statement
FD	FDE_001_P	Sometimes he/she finds it difficult to do his/her job without my directions
	FDE_002_P	He/she works with me more effectively than working with other managers
	FDE_001_P	At work it's important for his/her to praise from me
	FDE_003_P	He/she finds it difficult to function without my direct guidance
	FDE_001_P	He/she attempts to live up to my expectations for him/her
	FDE_002_P	If I does not affirm his/her work/behaviour, he/she seems to be that, he/she underperforming or even failing
FEE	FDE_001_P	He/she go out of my way to achieve my purpose
ESS	FDE_004_P	He/she is among the first to sacrifice privileges if that is important for my purpose
PRO	FDE_001_P	I take chances at work to maximize my goals for advancement
	FDE_004_P	If my job did not allow for advancement, I would likely find a new one
	FDE_006_P	I focus on accomplishing job tasks that will further my advancement
	FDE_008_P	My work priorities are impacted by a clear picture of what I aspire to be



After removing the said items, reliability and convergent validity of constructs were achieved. As shown in Table I and Table II, charismatic leadership and its first order constructs, and follower self-sacrifice met the threshold of all estimates. Though follower dependency and chronic promotional focus met the threshold of all estimates, AVE was slightly below the threshold, which may be due to, as shown in Table II, weak individual loading of the variables' indicators (FDE\_003\_P, FDO\_002\_P, FDO\_004\_P, PRO\_002\_P, PRO\_005\_P and PRO\_009\_P). Even though, composite reliability of follower extra-effort met the threshold, the AVE and the Cronbach's Alpha were slightly below the threshold, which may be due to weak individual loading of three of its indicators (FEE\_004\_P and FEE\_005\_P).

**Table 1: Reliability and convergent validity of constructs**

<b>Variable / Construct</b>	<b>No of Items</b>	<b>AVE</b>	<b>Composite Reliability</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>
CL	20	0.42	0.93	0.93
CPR	3	0.71	0.88	0.80
CSE	4	0.63	0.87	0.80
CSM	3	0.71	0.88	0.80
CSV	7	0.56	0.90	0.87
CUB	3	0.61	0.83	0.69
FDP	5	0.45	0.80	0.71
FEE	4	0.49	0.79	0.66
FSS	3	0.56	0.79	0.73
PRO	5	0.43	0.79	0.71

*Note:* CL = Charismatic leadership, CPR = Personal risk, CSE = Sensitivity to the environment, CSM = Sensitivity to member needs, CSV = Strategic vision and articulation, CUB = Unconventional behaviour, FDP = Follower dependency, FEE = Follower extra-effort, FSS = Follower self-sacrifice, PRO = Follower chronic regulatory focus

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**Table 2: Loadings of observed and latent factors**

Indicators	CL	CPR	CSE	CSM	CSV	CUB	FDP	FEE	FSS	PRO
CPR_014_P	0.682	0.861								
CPR_015_P	0.580	0.846								
CPR_016_P	0.536	0.819								
CSE_007_P	0.694		0.794							
CSE_008_P	0.682		0.775							
CSE_009_P	0.655		0.806							
CSE_010_P	0.677		0.797							
CSM_011_P	0.693			0.875						
CSM_012_P	0.707			0.865						
CSM_013_P	0.614			0.792						
CSV_001_P	0.718				0.820					
CSV_002_P	0.724				0.803					
CSV_003_P	0.714				0.788					
CSV_004_P	0.666				0.738					
CSV_005_P	0.718				0.755					
CSV_006_P	0.693				0.717					
CSV_020_P	0.593				0.622					
CUB_017_P	0.420					0.762				
CUB_018_P	0.507					0.814				
CUB_019_P	0.579					0.772				
FDE_003_P							0.626			
FDO_002_P							0.617			
FDO_004_P							0.637			
FDO_005_P							0.707			
FDS_003_P							0.764			
FEE_002_P								0.708		
FEE_003_P								0.739		
FEE_004_P								0.697		
FEE_005_P								0.649		
FSS_001_P									0.908	
FSS_002_P									0.746	
FSS_003_P									0.546	
PRO_002_P										0.593
PRO_003_P										0.869
PRO_005_P										0.559
PRO_007_P										0.667
PRO_009_P										0.550

### **Effect of charismatic leadership on follower outcomes**

In order to test this hypothesis, the researchers created the structural model in SmartPLS second order factor of leader charismatic leadership as the independent variable and follower self-sacrifice, extra-effort and dependency as the dependent variables. The relevant estimates of the structural model are given below:

**Table 3: The effect of leader charisma on follower outcomes**

	Charismatic Leadership (CL)		
	Path Coefficient	T Value	R <sup>2</sup>
Follower Dependency (FD)	0.130	2.469	0.017
Follower Extra-Effort (FEE)	0.186	3.460	0.035
Follower Self Sacrifice (FSS)	0.073	0.982	0.005

Correct in the above. **Self-Sacrifice**

As shown in Table 3, the path coefficient for the follower dependency, follower extra-effort and follower self-sacrifice were 0.130, 0.186, 0.073 respectively and the path coefficients were significant for follower dependency and extra-effort as the T value was greater than the critical value (1.6498,  $p < .05$  for one-tailed,  $N = 306$ ). Therefore, the null hypothesis, that there is no impact of charismatic leadership on follower dependency, follower extra-effort can be rejected while the null hypothesis that there is no impact of charismatic leadership on follower self-sacrifice cannot be rejected in favour of H1, and the alternative hypothesis holds partially true. Thus, it is concluded that leader charisma affects follower dependency and extra-effort positively. Furthermore the analysis shows that leader charisma explains around 2% and 4% of the variations of follower dependency and extra-effort.

### **Moderating effect of chronic promotion focus**

In order to test the moderating effect of chronic promotional focus of the follower, the chronic promotion focus was added to the structural model as a moderator to the model which was used to test H1. The moderating effect was analyzed following Chin, Marcolin and Newsted (1996) as stated earlier. The path coefficient of the follower, chronic promotional focus and follower dependency was 0.144 with a T value greater than critical value. This shows the positive impact of promotional focus on follower dependency. However, chronic promotional focus as a moderator

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was not statistically significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected in favour of H<sub>2</sub>, and it is concluded that chronic promotional focus of follower does not moderate the effect of charismatic leadership on follower dependency, extra-effort and self-sacrifice.

**Table 4: Moderating effect of chronic promotional focus**

	Follower Dependency ( <i>FD</i> )		Follower Extra-Effort ( <i>FEE</i> )		Follower Self Sacrifice ( <i>FSS</i> )	
	Path Coefficient	T Value	Path Coefficient	T Value	Path Coefficient	T Value
Charismatic Leadership (CL)	0.080	1.21	0.136	1.81	0.059	0.80
Promotional Focus (PRO)	0.144	1.67	0.082	1.14	0.023	0.21
CL * PRO	-0.204	0.90	-0.216	0.95	-0.298	1.51
	AVE		Composite Reliability		Cronbach's Alpha	
CL * PRO > DF	0.144		0.939		0.942	
CL * PRO > FEE	0.140		0.939		0.942	
CL * PRO > FSS	0.088		0.870		0.942	

**Discussion of Findings**

***Theoretical implications and Implications for practice***

Having noted the lacuna in empirical studies that examine the role of follower regulatory focus in the context of transformational/charismatic leadership dynamics, this study reports a moderating effect of follower chronic promotion focus on the relationship between charismatic leadership and three follower level outcomes -dependency, extra-effort and self-sacrifice. Unlike previous studies on the same theme, the present study uses the C-K scale and considers 306 leader-follower dyads representing 30 different Sri Lankan organizations representing fourteen industrial sectors. The analysis showed that charismatic leadership influences follower dependency and extra-effort and the relationships are statistically significant. However, charismatic leadership displayed a weak relationship with follower self-sacrifice (0.073) while not being statistically significant.

Accordingly, the present study can be considered to confirm the aspects of the empirical findings of Shamir et al., (1998) that charismatic or transformational leadership influences follower extra-efforts positively in achieving the organizational goals. Further, the present study confirms the effect of charisma on follower

dependency as portrayed by Kark, Shamir and Chen (2003) and Eisenbein and Boerner (2013). In spite of the research failing to support the charismatic leadership-follower self-sacrifice relationship, this research suggests charismatic leadership is not necessarily 'good' or 'bad', but 'good' and 'bad' as it results both in follower extra-effort and follower self-sacrifice simultaneously. This similar character of transformational/charismatic leadership was displayed by Kark, Shamir and Chen (2003) using a short version of MLQ 5x. Accordingly, the present study, which uses a different scale, once again questions the validity of clustering leaders as 'good' and 'bad' or 'personalized' and 'socialized' (Howell and Shamir, 2005).

Even though the previous empirical studies have supported the positive link between charismatic leadership and follower self-sacrifice (Bass and Riggio, 2006; Choi and Mai-Dalton, 1999) and Jayakody (2011) in the Sri Lankan context, the present study failed to confirm this relationship. This may be because the assessment of follower self-sacrifice in the present study is from the leader's point of view rather than from the follower's point of view as has been done in the previous studies such as by Jayakody (2011). This difference in approach to measure follower self-sacrifice can be considered to account for this difference in findings because as stated by Weber (1947), the recognition of the leader as a charismatic leader is a duty of followers. Thus, what followers consider 'sacrifice' may be considered as a part of the followers' duty by leaders than as 'sacrifice'.

The analysis did not also support H2: the moderating effect of follower chronic promotion focus on the relationship between charismatic leadership and its follower level outcomes. Though this may contradict the previous empirical studies (Stam, van Knippenberg and Wisse, 2010; Whitford and Moss, 2009; Pierro, Cicero and Higgins, 2009) that support the moderating effect of follower regulatory focus, this evidence does not entirely reject Kark and van Dijk's argument as the intensity of regulatory focus is found to influence its effects. For instance, Whitford and Moss (2009) have given empirical evidence that only when chronic promotion focus is sufficiently high or prevention focus is sufficiently low (Whitford and Moss, 2009) can chronic promotion focus be expected to moderate the effect of charismatic leadership on follower level outcomes. While the present study shows that respondents of the present study possess high chronic promotion focus with a mean value greater than 4 for each observed variable as well as for the scale as a whole, the question remains why the moderating effect is not supported by the present study. One possible explanation for this unexpected result is the possibility of counteracting

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the effect of the promotion focus by the prevention focus. However, whether follower chronic prevention focus accounts for this result could not be decided since the study did not cover follower prevention focus. Accordingly, this study suggests the need for more complex theorization of the role of regulatory focus in charismatic leadership dynamics.

This study also highlights several practical implications of charismatic leadership within the organizational context. First, it demonstrates a conflicting perspective between leaders and followers on follower sacrifice, which could bring long-term consequences on their relationship, and then on followers' performance. As followers are likely to receive less appreciation for what they consider as sacrifices, in the long run, followers are likely to be demotivated. Second, the study suggests that charismatic leaders are capable of driving their followers to go beyond their in-role behaviour stated in their employee contract. However, this extra-effort seems to depend on the leader, and thus the extra-effort that followers make is likely to wane with the absence/departure of the leader. This leaves organizations with a question of sustainability of charismatic leaders' effect after their departure from the organization.

#### ***Strengths, limitations and directions for future research***

The study has several strengths and also weaknesses. Firstly, and perhaps most importantly, a strength is that data on dependent variables was collected from leaders while data on charismatic leadership and follower promotion focus was collected from followers, so that the data is free from same source bias. Secondly, the respondents represent Sri Lankan middle managers from a diverse array of organizations and industries.. However, the selection of middle managers as leaders limits the generalizability of findings to other managers such as top and supervisory managers. In addition, the sample contained largely companies that were based in the capital city, and the composition of the industry sectors incorporated in the survey was not uniformly distributed while telecommunication, banking and insurance represented more than fifty percent of respondents. Large manufacturing organizations are situated mostly beyond city limits and thus an important and an essential sector of the economy has been under-represented. Thus researchers may consider respondents from these remotely located organisations as well as other levels of organizations in order to strengthen the generalizability of the present findings. Finally, non-normality of data, i.e., negatively skewed, also should be considered as

another limitation of the study. Though PLS addresses these limitations, PLS being a non-parametric test itself has several limitations, which future studies should take into account. Finally, and perhaps more importantly, this study seems to suggest that the influence of regulatory focus is more complex than is suggested by Kark and van Dijk (2007). For instance, on the effect of intensity of regulatory focus future studies need to examine a more complex model than what was tested in the present study.

## **Conclusion**

While the neo-charismatic theorists' supposition that transformational/charismatic leadership has influence on follower extra-effort, follower self-sacrifice and follower dependency holds true partially with the C-K scale, the present study showcases that the moderating effect of follower promotion focus on these relationships, which one can deduce that Kark and van Dijk (2007) fail to sustain. Yet, these findings cannot be considered as sufficient evidence to reject the argument of Kark and van Dijk, as there is previous evidence of a more complex relationship between follower regulatory focus and the effect of charismatic leadership on follower outcomes. Consequently, this paper suggests the need to examine more complex relationships among these variables in the future.

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