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The model of transformational leadership, proposed by Bass (1985), has been widely used in the United States in applied research as well as in practice for more than twenty years. In Germany, as well, this approach has received increasing attention since the late nineties. This article aims to offer a rough introduction to the model proposed by Bass and to provide a general survey on recent German research dealing with this paradigm. First of all, the transferability of the concept to Germany will be discussed. Similarities with results obtained in America are shown and differences thoroughly conferred. Although some limitations and restrictions have to be considered, it can be shown that the concept of transformational leadership is a fruitful approach for leadership research in Germany. Moreover, interesting implications for managerial practice are derived. Furthermore, advanced research questions concerning antecedences and consequences of transformational leadership in Germany are examined. Furthermore, recent findings show that the self-rater version of the MLQ provides additional information concerning the quality of leadership. A detailed look is taken at the relation between leadership and different facets of commitment. It could be shown that there are significant contributions of transformational leadership to affective and normative commitment. Interesting differences appear, if one considers the different contexts. Another direction of current research focuses on the role of followers for the perception and maintenance of transformational leadership. Results indicate that followers' characteristics, such as personality traits and implicit leadership theories, influence the perception and acceptance of transformational leadership.

Key words: **Transformational Leadership, Commitment, Self-/Other Rating, Personality, Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)**

Introduction

Historical perspective

Over the last two decades, research has revived the talk about charismatic leadership and put emphasis on transformational leadership, particularly in North America. Inspired by House's "1976 theory of charismatic leadership" (House 1977), charisma has been rediscovered in the field of leadership research. A second starting point was Burns' (1978) book on transformational leadership, portraying political leaders. Although the origin of the charisma concept that was first introduced by Weber (1922/1976) is political leadership, the ideas were soon transferred to an organizational context.

The central thesis that emerged out of those theories of charismatic leadership is that organizations and employees are overmanaged but underled (Bennis/Nanus 1985). In contrast to managers who are functionally orientated and maintain the status quo, leaders offer value based and attractive visions of the future, communicate their aims and strategies in a convincing manner, offer trust and confidence, and consider the personal needs and values of their followers. This behavior is supposed to be essential for competitiveness and long-range organizational development. These leaders can be called transformational or charismatic (Bass 1985; House 1977; Tichy/ Devanna 1986).

Bass (1985) as well as Conger and Kanungo (1987) started developing theoretical models and instruments for the empirical research on transformational and charismatic leadership. Diverging from the religious and mystic aspects as well as superhuman extraordinary capabilities of singular "heroes" of the first charisma theories (Weber 1922/1976), they changed the former concepts towards a more behavior-orientated and pragmatic perspective. Although there currently exist different theoretical frameworks and instruments (Alimo-Metcalfe/Alban-Metcalfe 2001; Bass 1985; Conger/Kanungo 1987; House/Podsakoff 1994; Podsakoff/Mackenzie/Moorman/ Fetter 1990), a relative consensus concerning the core facets of transformational and charismatic leadership behavior has been found in the meantime. They are as follows: value-based attractive visions, inspiration, role modeling, support of personal growth, trust and consideration of followers' needs. By influencing the subordinates' values, self-esteem and self-concept, these show higher levels of effort, performance, satisfaction and commitment (Shamir/House/Arthur 1993). Although some authors discuss differences between charismatic and transformational leadership, there has always been much theoretical similarity and empirical overlapping. Therefore we use, as Hunt (1999) and others do, both terms synonymously.

Current research

A lot of research has been done since the first conceptual steps were taken. The relationships between transformational leadership and several antecedences, such as the leaders' personality (Deluga 1997; Judge/Bono 2000) and context variables (Podsakoff/MacKenzie/Bommer 1996), were examined. Moreover, the effects on attitudinal outcomes such as satisfaction or organizational commitment where shown (Bycio/Hackett/Allen 1995). Also behavioral consequences such as Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB; Deluga 1995), subjective, and objective performance

zenship Behavior (OCB; Deluga 1995), subjective, and objective performance measures (Avolio/Waldman/Einstein 1988; Geyer/Steyrer 1998) were analyzed. Additionally, several studies have shown that transformational leadership augments the effects of transactional leadership with regard to several outcomes (Geyer/Steyrer 1998; Hater/Bass 1988; Howell/Avolio 1993). Two meta analyses have been presented that underline the dominating role of the transformational approach in predicting followers' attitudes and behaviors (Fuller et al. 1996; Lowe/Kroeck/Sivasubramaniam 1996).

Further emphasis on the relevance of transformational leadership has been provided by a number of experimental studies that have been conducted recently (Awamleh/Gardner 1999; Barling/Weber/Kelloway 1996; Howell/Frost 1989; Jung 2000; Kirkpatrick/Locke 1996; Shea/Howell 1999; Sosik/ Kahai/ Avolio 1997). These also test the causal effects of different leadership behaviors on perception, attitudes and objective outcome measures.

Even though most of the research was done in North America, the concept of transformational leadership was transferred to European leadership research during the last decade (DenHartog/VanMuijen/Koopman 1997; Felfe/Goihl 2002; Felfe/ Schyns 2002; Geyer/Steyrer 1998; Kuchinke 1999; Steyrer 1999; Tartler et al. 2003; Wegge/Rosenstiel 2004). Recent findings of the GLOBE research project underline the relevance of charismatic and transformational leadership as being characteristic for excellent leadership in 60 nations (DenHartog et al. 1999; House et al. 1999), amongst them European countries (Brodbeck et al. 2000).

German perspective

However, in Germany charismatic leadership is sometimes regarded with skepticism and considered an overemphasized North American phenomenon that cannot be easily transferred. One reason for this concern is that the acceptance of transformational leaders is related to a more individualistic society that neglects broader organizational and contextual conditions. In line with this critical argumentation, the danger of a relapse to simple heroic "great-man" theories is emphasized. Especially the negative consequences of charismatic leadership, such as blind obedience and addiction or risks derived from political and religious contexts, were brought into the discussion (Hentze/Kammel 1996; Neuberger 2002; Weibler 1997).

Whereas this criticism should not be ignored, it is our opinion that a stronger empirical basis is necessary in order to discuss both chances and risks of transformational leadership for future leadership. Yet, only a few studies have examined the role of transformational or charismatic leadership in German organizations, as well as the impact of these behaviors on subordinates' behavior and attitudes like commitment, satisfaction and OCB.

This article aims to present several research foci that deal with the concept of transformational leadership. In line with the presented questions up to this point, one focus is on the adaptation and empirical testing of the concept and instrument of charismatic and transformational leadership within German organizations. Another focus of this article is on advanced research questions concerning antecedences and consequences of transformational leadership.

Advance organizer

Table 1 provides a framework for the different research questions that are addressed in the various studies which we refer to in this overview. In this model we suggest, that transformational/charismatic and transactional leadership behavior (1) influences followers' behavior and attitudes (2). Leadership behavior, in this sense, is predominantly measured by followers. Additionally, in some studies leaders' self-ratings are used (3). The relationship between leadership behavior and followers' reactions may be influenced by the cultural (4) and the organizational context (5). From a follower-centered point of view, subordinates' characteristics may influence the perception and the influence of leadership (6).

Table 1: Thematical overview over the research presented in this article

(4) Cultural Context (Germany/USA)		
(1) Leadership behavior (followers' ratings) - transformational - transactional **(3) self ratings**	**(6) Followers' characteristics** - personality - implicit theories	**(2) Followers' reactions** - Satisfaction - Commitment - OCB - Strain - Absenteeism
(5) Organizational Context (working conditions, public/private; established/entrepreneurial)		

Accordingly, the structure of the subsequent sections will be as follows. After introducing the theoretical background of the model of transformational leadership the adaptation and empirical testing of the concept and instrument in Germany is outlined (1). In doing so, the point of view is on the perception of the transformational scales' contents – as conceptualized in the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) – as well as upon the correlations with several success criteria. When examining the construct validity, followers' reactions such as commitment, OCB etc. (2) are taken into account. The next step that is addressed is the issue of congruence or divergence between self- and other-ratings on followers` reactions (3). Findings of a current study indicate the practical relevance of the comparison of both perspectives. The following section deals with the question as to whether there are systematic differences in leadership behavior between Germany and the USA (4). Though further research is needed in the field of cross-cultural leadership in order to gain more reliable results, the comparison of North American and German studies indicate that differences in leadership perception may be explained by cultural variety. Amongst followers' reactions organizational commitment plays a central role. Therefore, the influence of transformational leadership on this specific outcome is examined in more depth in the following section. Findings of a current study show that the organizational context (5)

must be considered, when analyzing this relationship. Finally, a follower centered approach is introduced (6). From this point of view followers play an important role in forming a charismatic or transformational relationship. Most researchers agree that the likelihood of being perceived as a charismatic leader depends on the intensity of specific behaviors that, as a consequence, followers consider as being charismatic. Attributions of this kind, however, may be influenced by observers' characteristics such as values and needs, implicit leadership theories, educational level, and attitudes. Therefore, we also discuss the impact of followers' characteristics for the perceptions of leadership. After each section a short thesis on the main results and a short conclusion is provided.

Theoretical background

In his leadership model, Bass (1985) distinguishes the facets of transactional and transformational leadership. Accordingly, leaders who identify the needs of their followers and exchange rewards for acceptable results are regarded as transactional executives. Transformational leadership is seen to be moving beyond transactions in order to improve followers' achievements by influencing their needs and values. Higher levels of performance and extra effort, as well as higher satisfaction, are expected on behalf of the followers.

Transactional leadership

Transactional leadership is characterized by behaviors and attitudes that emphasize the quality of exchange between superiors and followers. A "fair negotiation" concerning demands and rewards is based on mutual agreement. Leader and follower discuss what is required as well as the resources or conditions that are needed in order to reach the aims. They clarify each person's tasks, responsibilities, and expectations, find a common meaning as to what is fair and give rewards only if the requirements are fulfilled. In this sense, executives and subordinates are business partners in a deal where good work earns good wages. Transactional executives emphasize goal setting, give instructions, clarify structures and conditions, and take control. Depending on performance etc. they choose positive or negative contingent reinforcement as their strategy. Bass (1985) uses the terms "contingent reward" (CR) and "management by exception" to describe these strategies. Management by exception may appear in a more active way (management by exception active – MbEa) when there is active monitoring and correction before things go wrong or in passive way (management by exception passive – MbEp) when executives wait passively and react when mistakes and problems occur (Bass/Avolio 1994).

Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership can be seen as an expansion or extension of transactional behavior. Transformational leaders motivate others to achieve more than they thought possible by addressing and modifying their subordinates' values and self-esteem. Transformational leaders inspire these to go beyond egoistic interests. Bass (1998) points out that the transformational leaders shift goals away from personal interests and security towards achievement, self-actualization, and the greater good. As a consequence followers are ready to show extra effort to achieve these aims. Transforma-

tional behavior is characterized by four strategies: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration.

- "Idealized influence" is defined as the capability of exerting influence by serving as a role model, demonstrating high performance as well as moral standards. Such leaders fulfill what they expect others to do and can be counted on. They earn trust and confidence because of their consistency when making decisions and due to how they behave as well as their readiness to take personal risks. Their legitimacy is based on personal integrity and competence. Followers develop a high degree of admiration and respect for them and try to emulate them. As idealized influence reflects behavioral aspects (leader) as well as attributional components (follower), this style is divided into two sub dimensions: "idealized influence attributed" (IIa) and "idealized influence behavior" (IIb).

- "Inspirational motivation" (IM) is the ability to develop and communicate a convincing and attractive future vision. This vision is not only materially based but offers challenge and meaning, addressing the higher order needs of the followers. Additionally, inspiring leaders display optimism and power and encourage subordinates to believe that their efforts will be successful.

- "Intellectual stimulation" (IS) includes various kinds of involvement and participation. Followers are stimulated by questioning assumptions, reframing problems and challenging tasks. Creativity and innovative solutions are required and encouraged in a supportive climate.

- "Individualized consideration" (IC) stands for leaders who act as a coach or mentor. Therefore, they recognize individuals' needs for achievement, growth and desires. This also includes the acceptance of individual differences concerning varying needs of autonomy, encouragement, responsibility, or even structure and instructions. Subordinates are not reduced to their function and role as employees but are considered to be unique individuals.

Both styles – transformational and transactional leadership – are not independent or opposing behavioral patterns. Leaders can act in a transformational and in a transactional manner. Moreover, CR allows followers to experience reliability and consistency, and this is seen as an important basis for a transformational relationship. Hence, transformational executives combine transformational and transactional behaviors individually and therefore vary widely in their respective style of leadership (Bass 1990). Taking all the different styles and behavior facets together, the full range of leadership according to Bass and Avolio (1994) is represented. An optimal profile is characterized by a very high level of transformational behavior, a high degree of CR, some MbEa, less frequent MbEp and a minimum of laissez-faire.

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)

These nine dimensions – five transformational scales, three transactional scales, and laissez-faire (LF) – are each represented by a different scale in the latest version of the MLQ, the questionnaire developed by Bass (1985). In the version MLQ 5X Short (Bass/Avolio 1995), each scale consists of four items. Success and effectiveness of the leader are measured by three additional scales: "extra effort" (EEF), "effectiveness"

(EFF) and "satisfaction with the leader" (SAT). While SAT reflects the emotional quality of the relationship between leader and follower, EFF deals with the question of whether the leader is successful in reaching personal and organizational goals. EEF emphasizes the readiness of the subordinate to invest more time and energy than expected. All in all, the MLQ 5X Short comprises 45 items. The questionnaire is usually filled out by subordinates, but a self-rater version also exits.

Although the reliabilities of the MLQ scales usually offer good values, there have been difficulties in replicating the postulated factor structure. Numerous investigations have shown high intercorrelations of the transformational scales and, what is more, high correlations with CR, whereas CR and MbEa correlate on a lower level. For these reasons, frequent criticism concerning the discriminant validity has been articulated (Yukl 1999). Obviously, the transformational scales do not differentiate to a large degree, and CR and MbEa do not make up a common factor. Furthermore, MbEp and LF are consistently correlated. In order to improve the discriminant validity, Goodwin, Wofford, and Whittington (2001) propose to split the problematic scale CR into two subscales that measure the explicit and implicit contracts. Explicit contracts are supposed to be part of the transactional behaviors, whereas the implicit contract needs mutual trust and is therefore related to transformational leadership.

Confronted with the unsatisfying correlational findings, several authors have attempted to investigate alternative factor models (Awamleh/Gardner 1999; Bycio/Hackett/Allen 1995; Carless 1998; DenHartog/VanMuijen/Koopman 1997; Geyer/Steyrer 1998, Lievens/VanGeit/Coetsier 1999). In most cases, solutions with less factors (mostly two or three factors) were proposed. Yet, the structures found were not identical and have not been replicated. The re-examination of the MLQ structure by Avolio, Bass, and Jung (1999) and Vandenberghe, Stordeur, and D`hoore (2002) revealed a six factor solution. In answer to the upcoming criticism, Bass and Avolio (1993) acknowledged the high overlapping of the transformational scales but underlined the usability of the MLQ for diagnostic purposes and training. Furthermore, it was argued that the different results in relation to the structure might be related to the effects of small specific samples. Recently, Tejada, Scandura, and Pillai (2002) replicated the proposed structure of the MLQ 5X, yet with less items. Furthermore, it was shown that the factor structure is more stable within homogenous contexts but that there are differences in the leadership factors, for example between men and women (Antonakis/Avolio/Sivasubramaniam 2003).

(1)   Leadership behavior: German instrument for measuring transformational leadership

When discussing the transfer of the instrument, the main problem encountered was keeping the German instrument as close as possible to the latest original version of the MLQ 5X Short (Bass/Avolio 1995). However, pre-tests showed that several modifications had to be made. One of the major modifications concerns the LF scale. For reasons of acceptance, the original negative items were positively formulated when a parallel self-rating was employed. Although these items were recoded for further analysis, it must be taken into account that we originally measured active and present behaviors rather than passive and absent leadership. Furthermore, the original scale format of 0 to 4 was changed to 1 to 5 in the translated version, whereas the la-

bels stayed the same. This was done to achieve equivalent answer formats with other scales employed in German questionnaires. Apart from this, six items derived from other studies were added. These items reflect aspects of charismatic leadership behaviors and followers' reactions that were considered to be central and important in previous explorative interviews (charisma [Cha], e.g. admiration of outstanding competences and abilities or being impressed and fascinated by the leader's personality; see Felfe/Goihl 2002).

Psychometric properties

The German instrument to measure transformational leadership (Felfe/Goihl 2003) was used and tested in several profit and non-profit samples. The entire sample consists of a broad range of different types of organizations. Amongst them are young and small entrepreneurial firms as well as established companies and public organizations. Branches and sectors vary from the traditional manufacturing sector, finance services, IT, health, education to administration. Data from more than 3500 participants was gathered and included in an overall analysis that investigated factor structure, internal consistencies and means.

A principal components analysis revealed a five factor solution: two transformational factors, two transactional dimensions and LF. Factor I includes the transformational scales IIa, IS, and IC, factor II contains IIb and IM. CR is also found to load on this transformational factor. Additionally, CFAs were conducted to test several factor solutions. The best fit was found for the nine-factor solution (for further details see Felfe, in review).

Although this factor solution is not optimal, as it did not succeed in replicating four independent transformational scales or the transactional scale CR – one reason for this might also be the fact that the scales are extremely short – we nevertheless consider these findings as partly confirming the concept and to be a basis for further development of the instrument. Therefore, we decided not to summarize two transformational scales, but instead to use the theoretically postulated scales.

Another reason for this decision is that information dealing with differences in levels and comparability with other studies might be lost. Nevertheless, future developments should aim at a better separation of the five transformational scales as well as of the transactional scale CR from the transformational scales in order to gain higher discriminant validity. The transformational scales and CR are highly correlated. Also, the scale IIb should be improved as only three items remained. Whereas the internal consistencies of most scales can be regarded as satisfactory (Cronbach's alpha .82 – .92), the reliabilities of the transactional scales, especially for MbEa (.63) and CR (.70), are relatively weak.

Validity

In order to further examine the validity of the instrument, additional studies were conducted. For example, when an unbiased sample and a biased sample where participants were asked to only rate individuals they considered as charismatic were compared, the questionnaire detected the expected differences (Felfe 2003). In another study an alternative instrument to assess leadership was employed. The dimensions of

this questionnaire were task orientation, consideration and "serving as a role model". A Multitrait-Multimethod-Analysis revealed the expected correlation patterns. CR was mostly correlated with task-orientation, IC with consideration and "role model" was highly related to idealized influence. Moreover, outcomes were best predicted by the transformational scales (Felfe 2003). Additional support for the separation of transactional and transformational leadership was provided by Tartler, Liepmann and Nettelnstroth (2003) who simultaneously employed LBDQ (Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire) and MLQ scales. As expected, initiating structure had a higher correlation with the transactional aspects CR and MbEa than with the transformational scales.

(2) Followers' reactions

The validity with regard to external criteria can be assessed by examining the relationships between transformational leadership scales and several outcomes. The correlations with external constructs are as expected and comparable to results obtained in American studies. The transformational scales correlate positively with desirable outcomes such as affective organizational commitment or job satisfaction (for various samples the correlations for these two variables with transformational leadership are within the range of $r = .26$ and $r = .36$; Felfe 2003) and negatively with irritation, strain, or absenteeism (correlations range from $r = -.06$ to $r = -.30$; Felfe 2003), whereas there is no relationship with continuance commitment or general satisfaction with life ($r = -.03$ to $r = .06$; Felfe 2003). The relation of transformational leadership and commitment will be discussed in more detail when we address the question of the influence of organizational context factors (see section 5). Although on a slightly lower level, CR shows approximately the same pattern of correlations and also confirms the aforementioned problem of lacking discriminant validity. However, this indicates, that transactional behaviors such as contingent reward should not be neglected. They serve as a basis for transformational behaviors. In contrast, the passive scales MbEp and LF show the reverse pattern, that is negative correlations with the positive outcomes and positive correlations with the negative ones. Only MbEa shows no significant pattern. It has either no correlation or a slightly positive one with all of the examined criteria (for further details see Felfe 2003).

As already mentioned, transformational leadership should contribute unique variance to the explanation of several outcomes (augmentation effect). As a meta-analysis indicates (Lowe/Kroeck/Sivasubramaniam 1996), the scales account for more variance within the internal criteria (EEF, EFF, SAT) than for other measures. This augmentation effect can also be confirmed within the German data. Not only does transformational leadership have an augmenting effect on the MLQ internal criteria, but there seems to be a general effect on the outcomes measured up to now as for example affective organizational commitment, job satisfaction and OCB. For EEF, EFF and SAT the transformational scales augment the effect of the transactional scales with 14% to 20% of variance. For the aforementioned external criteria, this effect lies within 3% to 6% (Felfe 2003; Kroeger/Tartler 2001).

To sum up, it can be concluded that the concept of transformational leadership has been successfully transferred to Germany. Psychometric properties and correla-

tions with external criteria are similar to the results obtained in North American studies. However, the instrument lacks discriminant validity as the subscales are highly correlated. Nevertheless, transformational leadership behavior serves as a substantial predictor for several outcomes.

(3)   Relevance of additional self-ratings

The MLQ exists in two versions, self-ratings and other-ratings. Following Bass and Avolio (1995), a German version for the self-rater form was developed and tested with 256 supervisors (for further details see Felfe 2003). However, in practice, when evaluating a leaders' behavior, mainly other-ratings are used, predominantly those of the leaders' followers.

The main reason for the preference of others' ratings is that judgments of situations etc. that concern oneself are considered to be less valid (Donat 1991). Many authors refer to a self-serving bias as a systematical source of error within these ratings (cf. Harris/Schaubroeck 1988; Mabe/West 1982; Moser 1999; Taylor/Brown 1988). One reason for this might be that one attributes success internally to one's own abilities or efforts, whereas failure is attributed externally to situational adverseness (Jones/Nisbett 1972). Meta-analytic studies confirm this self-serving bias (Harris/Schaubroeck 1988; Mabe/West 1982). Following this tendency, leaders' judgments about their own leading behavior underlie this bias as well and rate themselves more positively than they are rated by their followers (Bass/Yammarino 1991; Tartler et al. 2003).

Theoretically, those self-serving tendencies could be conceptualized as an additive constant (cf. Moser 1999), so that after subtracting this added term from the self-ratings, these should equal the followers' evaluations. However, the systematic error does not seem to be this constant; the bias differs from leader to leader (Kroeger/Tartler 2002). Furthermore, the agreement between employees' ratings and self-ratings for leadership behavior is relative to leadership success (Wesley et al. 1980). Successful leadership behavior is more on a par with the ratings than ineffective leadership is. Variance analyses in a sample of 17 leaders and 210 related subordinates show that, taking the MLQ internal success criteria as well as external measures of job satisfaction and quality of communication, there is an agreement effect (Tartler et al. 2003). Both internal and external criteria have higher means the smaller the difference between the ratings is.

Furthermore, as transformational leadership is also linked to the success of the leader, the consequence is that the lower the difference in the ratings is, the more transformational the leader is in the eyes of his or her followers (Tartler et al. 2003). This can also be seen as a confirmation of the impact of transformational leadership. Moreover, the results point to a less pronounced self-serving bias of leaders in departments where the difference between the ratings is lower.

Hence, additional self-ratings can provide useful information on the effectiveness, climate and leadership style within an organizational unit. This result is also of practical use for executive trainings and other human resource development devices, such as the 360-degree feedback.

(4)   Cultural context: Differences between American and German samples

In the following section the question is addressed as to whether there are systematic differences between North American and German leadership. As mentioned in Table 1, cultural differences may influence the role of leadership.

The concept of transformational leadership is a genuine American one, although the MLQ has already been translated into several languages and has been distributed in several countries and cultures, as for example Spanish, French, Hebrew, Arabic, Chinese and Korean (Bass/Avolio 1995). Those adaptations, as well as the aforementioned results with the German data, confirm the cross-cultural validity of the transformational leadership concept. Still, taking cultural differences into account, the question arises as to whether there are systematical differences in levels of means or relationships between the scales when compared to the American results.

The classic study of Hofstede (2001) points out that, although the American and the German culture are part of the same group of cultures, they show differences on three of his five cultural dimensions. Germany has a higher Uncertainty Avoidance level as well as lower Power Distance and Individualism levels than the United States. Accordingly, the leadership prototypes of these two countries also differ on Power Distance and Individualism (Gerstner/Day 1994). Taking a closer look, one can assume that it is harder to articulate compelling visions or instill pride in the employees, in short to be transformational, in German organizations than in American ones. Reasons for this are firstly, that Germany has stronger bureaucratic structures and strict regulations that limit the scope of leader behavior and avoid power accumulation. Secondly, role expectations, which are also historically influenced, inhibit expressive and dominating behavior as well as too powerful and outstanding "heroes" in leadership positions (i.e. lower Power Distance in Germany). Consequently, sticking to the rules as well as fair and cooperative relationships are highly valued and more expected in German organizations. Therefore, room for visions and charisma might not be given. Hence, a higher level of transformational leadership should be found in America whereas a higher level of transactional leadership is expected in Germany.

Accordingly, Kuchinke (1999) points out that because of Germany's historical background and the experiences with the Third Reich, affective identification with the leader can not be expected. As the structure of the leader's field of responsibility and his limits are more well-defined, Kuchinke also expects transactional leadership to be predominant in Germany. Yet, Kuchinke found differences for only two of the transformational scales. Charisma (Idealized Influence) and IM have higher means in the American sample. The transactional behaviors did not differ significantly. However, the cultural dimensions, according to Hofstede, only account for a small part of the variance in the transformational scales.

Taking a closer look at the German data (Felfe 2003), it can be shown that whereas the average American leader profile forms a curve, the ratings for the German leaders are on approximately the same level for all facets of leadership. The variation of the German means shows a significant lower range (see Figure 1). Only the means for the passive leadership behaviors drop in comparison to the other scales. Furthermore, as expected, the means for the transformational scales and CR show

higher values in the American sample than in the German one, while the German leaders get higher ratings for MbEa, MbEp and LF. MbEa shows a significantly higher mean in the German sample. It amounts to the same level as the transformational leadership behaviors. Contrary to this, in the USA there is a significant decrease of MbEa when compared to the transformational scales and CR. Compared to the optimum leadership profile proposed by Avolio and Bass (1994), it becomes obvious that the American profile resembles the gradient of the optimum leader more than the German one.

Figure 1: **Comparison of a typical American leadership profile to an average German leadership profile**
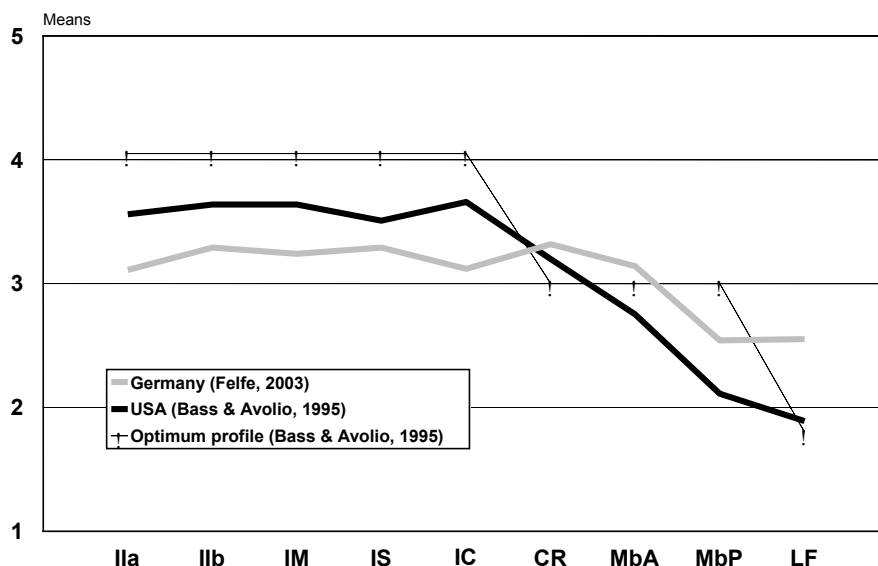
Note: IIa Idealized Influence attributed, IIb Idealized Influence behavior, IM Inspirational Motivation, IS Intellectual Stimulation, IC Individualized Consideration, CR Contingent Reward, MbEa Management by Exception active, MbEp Management by Exception passive, LF Laissez-faire; scale format 1 (never) to 5 (always)

A comparison of the correlations reveals similar patterns in the American and German data. Apart from MbEa, the correlations barely show any difference in height or direction. In the American sample, MbEa has negative correlations with the transformational scales and positive ones with the transactional scales and LF. In the German data, however, a reverse pattern emerges. Positive correlations appear with the transformational scales and CR, whereas the correlation with MbEp and LF is a negative one. These results also emphasize the different roles played by active correcting behavior in Germany. Correlations with outcome variables as measured in the MLQ

were not lower in the German sample than in the USA. Thus, a higher influence of transformational leadership in America can not be assumed.

All in all, as expected, there are differences between German and American leadership. Apart from the aforementioned reasons, further causes can be imagined. A general bias might exist between German and American employees when expressing satisfaction with their leaders. Perhaps American employees are more prone to support their leaders by positive or even enthusiastic feedback, whereas Germans are more used to balanced or even critical feedback. In support of this assumption, the differences between self- and other-ratings are much lower in the American sample than in the German data. Whereas German and American self-ratings are on a similar level, the German other-ratings are on a lower level (Felfe 2003; Kroeger/Tartler 2002). If the assumption of a culturally based feedback bias was true, the differences found would be due to unequal rating practices instead of differences in actual behavior. However, this issue needs further examination. In order to clarify this issue, studies are required where German employees rate American leaders and vice versa or where trained raters examine leaders in both cultures.

All in all, the results confirm the assumption that the transformational paradigm transcends national boundaries (Bass 1997). Patterns of correlations and means are relatively similar. The relevance of transformational leadership is not only an American phenomenon. Thus, the transfer of the transformational concept to Germany seems justified. However, results indicate specific culturally based differences with regard to leadership behavior between American and German organizations.

(5) Organizational context: Leadership, commitment and contextual influences

Transformational leadership has a significant impact on diverse outcomes. Amongst others, as already mentioned, organizational commitment plays a crucial role. As transformational and charismatic leadership is expected to influence followers' values and regard emotional needs, this kind of leadership may enhance followers' commitment toward the organization. But, how much can transformational leadership influence followers' commitment, particularly when (according to Table 1) other factors such as working conditions or the organizational context are taken into account. This is a question of practical impact for management practice. Therefore, we want to take a closer look at this relationship. At first, the concept of organizational commitment is briefly introduced in the following section. Subsequently, results of previous studies that have investigated the relationship between leadership and commitment are summarized. Finally, findings of a current study that emphasizes the impact of context factors on the relationship between transformational leadership and commitment are presented.

Organizational Commitment

As two decades of research have shown, organizational commitment serves as an important predictor for several outcome variables. Employees high in organizational commitment show more satisfaction and are more likely to engage in behavior that strengthens the competitiveness of the organization than their counterparts. Furthermore, they articulate less turnover intentions and show lower rates in absenteeism (Hackett/Bycio/Hausdorf 1994; Meyer/Allen/Smith 1993; Somers 1995). Generally,

commitment is seen as "one's inclination to act in a given way toward a particular commitment target" (Oliver 1990, 30) or "a force that stabilizes individual behavior under circumstances where the individual would otherwise be tempted to change that behavior" (Brickman 1987, 2). As Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) stated, most of the general definitions consider commitment as a stabilizing and obliging force that gives direction to behavior and binds a person to a course of action. In this sense, commitment towards an organization is "a bond or linking of the individual to the organization" (Mathieu/Zajac 1990, 171). Meanwhile, an increasing number of current research refers to the concept of Meyer and Allen (1991) who introduced a 3-component model which consists of: (1) affective commitment (AC), (2) continuance commitment (CC) and (3) normative commitment (NC). Affective commitment is the emotional linkage between an employee and the organization. Attendance is characterized by common values, satisfaction of personal needs, identification with organizational aims combined with feelings of pride and attachment. People with a high degree of affective commitment stay in their organization because they want to. As transformational leadership is supposed to address emotions, values etc. a link to affective commitment is likely to occur. On the other hand, employees with a high amount of continuance commitment stay in their organization because there are good reasons for them to do so. Rational reasons are recent investments or low alternatives. Their linkage is based on a calculation that includes costs, investments and pay offs. Normatively committed employees feel an obligation to stay because of norms and values they share or because other important people tell them to do so. They would feel guilty if they left the organization and stay on, even if they have to reject better alternatives. This component may also be related to transformational leadership. The multidimensionality of commitment can be regarded as a mind-set that takes different forms. The varying forms include desire, perceived costs as well as the obligation to continue on with a certain course of action.

Contextual influences

In fact, there is some empirical evidence for the relationship between commitment and transformational leadership. High correlations for the different transformational scales and affective organizational commitment were found by Bycio et al., (1995) and Podsakoff et al. (1996). The current meta-analysis of Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnytsky (2002) revealed an averaged correlation of r = .46.

However, the impact of leadership must not be overestimated as there are other important factors that influence followers' commitment. For example, Podsakoff et al. (1996) additionally controlled for substitutes of leadership and showed that the effects of leadership were relatively small when working conditions were included simultaneously. Similar results were obtained by Schmidt, Hollmann, and Sodenkamp (1998). Moreover, the influence of transformational leadership may be moderated by context variables. For example, Fuller et al. (1996) and Lowe et al. (1996) found higher values and correlations for transformational leadership in non-profit organizations and on lower levels of hierarchy than in profit organizations and on higher levels respectively.

Insecurity and uncertainty of the environment and /or organizational change are context factors of importance (Pawar/Eastman 1997). In other terms, the degree of

situational strength has to be considered as a potential moderator (Shamir 1999; Shamir et al. 1993). This may be related to specific stages in the lifecycle of an organization, such as the entrepreneurial stage or a period of change (Shamir/Howell 1999). Charismatic leaders are more likely to emerge and be effective in weak situations – such as a situation of change – than in strong situations. Strong situations are characterized by norms, an elaborated set of rules, and an environment that is highly structured, providing clear behavior expectancies for leaders and followers. On the other hand, in weak situations individual dispositions influence actions rather than the context (Mischel 1973). Therefore, transformational leader behavior is less likely to emerge and have an influence on outcomes in strong situations rather than in weak situations. For example, DeHoogh et al. (2002) showed that transformational leadership is more likely to emerge and be influential under uncertain environmental conditions.

Felfe and Goihl (2002) realized a combined approach that takes substitutes of leadership and different organizational contexts into account. The authors addressed the following questions: (1) are there systematic differences in the levels of transformational leadership between different types of organizations (weak/strong context), and (2) how much does transformational leadership contribute to the explanation of organizational commitment in comparison to other predictors, and (3) does the organizational context moderate these relations?

As expected, results reveal specific profiles for leadership. Actually, small, entrepreneurial enterprises show higher levels of transformational leadership than established, big organizations. Although employees in the private organization regard leadership to be more transformational, the differences between established profit and non-profit organizations are only small. Although there are also alternative or more specific explanations for these findings (e.g. distance, frequency of contact etc.; Howell/Hall-Merenda 1999; Shamir 1995), these results show some support for the distinction between weak and strong contexts.

When dealing with the general relationship between working conditions, leadership and organizational commitment, the path model to predict affective organizational commitment yields good fit indices. Whereas all path coefficients are significant, the influence of charismatic leadership is not very strong. The strongest influence on affective organizational commitment is exerted by working conditions. This confirms former findings by Podsakoff et al. (1996) and Schmidt et al. (1998). The results also reveal that the amount of influence of transformational leadership depends upon the context. In small entrepreneurial enterprises, leadership exerts a very strong influence on affective commitment whereas the impact of working conditions is much lower (Felfe/Goihl 2002). Conversely, in larger and more established organizations – private as well as public – working conditions are better predictors than leadership. Thus, the impact of transformational leadership seems to increase when there is a lower level of structure and security, supporting the distinction between strong and weak contexts. The results of another study with a financial institute (strong context) and temporary work agency (weak context) provide more evidence for these findings (Felfe 2003). Again transformational leadership was found to influence affective commitment under the condition of a weaker context whereas leadership is of less importance in the stronger context of a bank.

Overall, the results indicate, that the influence of leadership on commitment must not be overestimated. But it would be too rash to neglect the role of leadership as it depends on the context. Moreover, these findings are of practical importance. When attempting to improve the employees' commitment, one has to consider the organizational context. According to Meyer and Allen (1997), an active commitment management has to focus on working conditions when larger organizations are of interest. In smaller firms, transformational leadership is the key to influencing affective commitment.

(6) Influence of followers' characteristics

With regard to Table 1 the role of followers' characteristics (6) is addressed in the next section. Most authors agree that charisma is an attributional phenomenon. Although much is known about leadership behaviors and situational factors that lead to followers' attribution of charisma, we know little about the influence of followers' characteristics, especially the role of personality traits. Perhaps follower characteristics can be identified that interact positively with transformational leadership behaviors and, in the same way, others might interact negatively. For organizational practice, training and other kinds of HR management it might be of importance that leaders take followers' characteristics into account and adapt their behavior. Thus, research with a follower-centered perspective has received increased attention (e.g. Awamleh/Gardner 1999; Ayman 1993; Gardner/Avolio 1998; Lord/Maher 1993).

Within current models that provide frameworks to understand the interaction between leadership behavior and followers' reactions, subordinates' self-efficacy, value congruence and similarity are important aspects for the attribution and acceptance of transformational leadership (Gardner/Avolio 1998; Klein/House 1995; Shamir et al. 1993). Furthermore, Gardner and Avolio (1998) discuss implicit leadership theories as determinants for the attribution of charisma. Followers' personality traits are also dealt with when Howell and Frost (1989, 266) raise the question, "What are the personality traits or need configurations of persons who accept, believe, and follow the image of the charismatic leader?"

Similar or complementary ?

Actually, previous research has given some empirical evidence that the variance in followers' ratings of their leader can not only be explained by differences in the leaders' behavior. Followers' perceptions and attributions are also an important source of variance. For example, already Eden and Leviathan (1975) showed that implicit leadership theories influence the perception of leadership. Romance of Leadership, an implicit leadership theory approach introduced by Meindl, Ehrlich, and Dukerich (1985), is the tendency to overestimate the influence of leadership for success or failure of organizations while other factors are being ignored. The question as to whether this implicit belief of followers may also bias the perception of leadership is still an open and contradictory one. In another study, Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996) found that value congruence between leader and follower predicted the amount of perceived charisma. Moreover, successful leaders are regarded to be more considerate and charismatic (Rush/Phillips/Lord 1981 as cited in Lord/Maher 1993; Puffer 1990).

Not only perception, but also acceptance of a specific style may be influenced by followers' characteristics. Keller (1999) postulated that implicit leadership theories were influenced by personality traits on the basis of similarity. She found that followers' extraversion predicted the preference for charismatic leaders and concluded that "the ideal leader was construed as similar to self" (Keller 1999, 600). Accordingly, Ehrhart and Klein (2001) found that followers with a high achievement orientation, high self-esteem, and a high need for participation preferred charismatic leaders. Moreover, when supervisors in the role of followers consider themselves to be similar to their direct leaders with regard to concrete leadership behavior, they also perceive their direct leaders as being more successful (Felfe/Schyns, in press).

In contradiction to Avolio and Gibbons (1988) or Shamir et al. (1993), who postulate that charismatic leaders develop subordinates to higher levels of competence and autonomy, some authors raised doubts as to whether independent, autonomous, and highly qualified employees would profit from or even accept charismatic leaders (Hentze/Kammel 1996; Shamir 1999; Weibler 1997; Yukl 1999). Accordingly, Conger and Kanungo (1988, 328) state, "… that it is believed, that charismatic leaders have followers who tend to be submissive and dependent. Low self-confidence and strong feelings of uncertainty are thought to characterize such followers". Referring to this controversy, Klein and House (1998) have distinguished three contradicting assumptions concerning the relationship between transformational leadership and subordinates' characteristics: complementary, similarity, and independence. Whereas the findings mentioned above support the assumption of similarity there is also some evidence for a complementary relationship.

For example, DeVries, Roe, and Taillieu (1999) found positive correlations between the "need for leadership" and transformational leadership. In another study the authors found a small moderating effect: high need for leadership is associated with a slightly stronger relation between transformational leadership and job satisfaction than low need for leadership (DeVries/Roe/Taillieu 2002), seeming to support Klein and House's (1998) first complementary assumption. In a recent study, Schyns (2001) found a slightly positive relationship between perceived transformational leadership and followers' occupational self-efficacy. On the other hand, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer (1996) only found negligible correlations between transformational leadership and followers' "need for independence", and competence.

To sum up, the results are somewhat contradictory as there is some empirical evidence for each of the hypotheses on the relationship between transformational leadership and follower characteristics. In spite of these not too encouraging findings there might be plausible reasons why clearer effects have not been detected yet. One explanation might be that in non-experimental studies, selection or socialization processes may have resulted in different degrees of compatibility or convergence of leaders and followers that at least confound the correlations. Furthermore, the question remains unanswered as to whether perceived differences actually result from different behaviors or from attributional processes that lead both to over or underestimation of charisma. Therefore an experimental approach is required to exclude the influence of long-term effects.

Experimental Approach

Results from an experimental study concerning the impact of personality traits revealed an influence of extraversion and neuroticism on the perception of leadership (Felfe/Schyns, in review). As transformational leaders are supposed to be high in extraversion and occupational self efficacy and low in neuroticism and personal need for structure, followers are expected to evaluate more transformational leadership when they experience similarity. Thus, the results confirm the theoretical assumptions and empirical findings that emphasize similarity between leader and follower as a basis for perception and attribution. Consequently, there is no evidence for the alternative assumption that "weak" followers tend to perceive more charisma for reasons of compensation. Although the picture is not as compelling for acceptance, results point in the same direction. Extraversion seems to be an important follower characteristic that determines perception and acceptance of transformational leaders. The influence of extraversion still remains significant when alternative predictors are controlled. Nevertheless, the question must be raised as to whether there are other follower characteristics that might influence perception and acceptance of transformational leadership. Firstly, abilities and competences such as crystallized or fluid intelligence, emotional intelligence, secondly, emotional status such as mood (Schyns/Sanders, in review), and thirdly, motivational factors such as achievement, power and affiliation motives have not been investigated in this field. Social desirability might serve as a control variable that should be included in future studies. Further research could examine how experience with cooperation on a real task influences perception and acceptance. Performance, particularly success or failure, is supposed to be an important predictor for perception and acceptance.

With regard to implicit leadership theories results revealed that both romance of leadership and transformational leadership as an implicit theory had a significant impact on the perception of transformational leadership (Schyns/Felfe, in review). This implies that participants rate leaders as more transformational when it is in accordance with their implicit leadership theories, even if leaders show low transformational leadership (i.e. transactional leadership).

Followers' characteristics influence the perception of leadership in addition to differences in leaders' behavior. Implicit leadership theories as well as personality traits are of importance when assessing leaders. Perceived similarity between follower and leader positively influences the perception and the acceptance of transformational leadership.

Conclusions

The first aim of this article was to show in how far the concept of transformational and charismatic leadership, that plays an outstanding role in North American leadership research, is appropriate for use in German organizations. This includes the question if or to what degree members of German organizations actually perceive their leaders acting in a way that is defined as charismatic or transformational. If this is the case, the question can be raised if these behaviors can influence subordinates' attitudes and performance more positively than transactional leadership behaviors. In order to transfer this concept we recurred to the model of transformational leadership, origi-

nally introduced by Bass (1985, 1999), and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), the most frequently used measuring instrument of transformational leadership, developed by Bass and Avolio (1995). After briefly summarizing the theoretical and empirical background which is based on North American research the empirical testing of an adapted version of the instrument in Germany was outlined.

Compared to findings from North American studies the German version of the instrument provides sufficient reliability and validity. All in all, results show that the concept of transformational and charismatic leadership can be considered to be transferable to German organizations. That is, according to subordinates' ratings, leaders in German organizations also show behaviors that are defined as charismatic/transformational and distinguish between transactional and transformational behaviors. Thus, it can be concluded that transformational leadership is not only a North American phenomenon but can also be found in German organizations and is therefore of practical relevance.

There is clear evidence that this kind of leadership is not only appreciated by followers (satisfaction with the leader) but also positively influences attitudes toward the organization (organizational commitment) and to work (job satisfaction). Additionally, there is an obvious impact on different performance criteria. Subordinates who perceive their leaders to be more transformational are more likely to show OCB and additional engagement (extra effort). As results show, transformational leaders are also considered to be efficient and effective in their work. Moreover, transformational leadership is negatively related to unrequested outcomes such as absenteeism, or experienced strain and irritability. It is a crucial question for the utility of the concept of transformational leadership as to whether it augments the effects of other leadership styles. Actually, the so called 'augmentation effect', could be replicated within the German data. For example it could be shown that transformational leadership augments the effects of transactional leadership with regard to organizational commitment, OCB etc.

These results are of practical importance. Although there are some restrictions and contextual factors that have to be taken into account, CEO's and HR Managers in Germany can be advised to use the model of transformational leadership as an orientation for their leadership development programs. Examples here are leadership guidelines and executive trainings or even recruiting procedures that should consider and emphasize pragmatic behaviors that can be described as idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. However, this does not mean that transactional behaviors such as contingent reward can be neglected. They serve as a basis for transformational behaviors.

With regard to practical implications we also pointed out the significance of comparing followers' ratings and leaders' self-ratings. Discrepancies can provide useful information when dealing with the effectiveness and climate within a department. The level of difference is not only negatively related with positive outcomes. Lower differences for transformational leaders were found. Thus, their self-rating seems to be less biased. These results can be used within 360 degree feedbacks when different rater perspectives are compared. Differences between self- and other ratings should be thoroughly discussed as they indicate problems with climate and effectiveness. More-

over, in case of obvious differences leaders should be particularly aware of their self serving bias. According to the concept of 360 degree feedback further research should integrate additional perspectives (leader's supervisor and other leaders at the same level).

In addition to earlier findings, the studies presented here addressed advanced research questions and contributed to the body of research in this field. Particular emphasis was put on the influence of organizational context factors when examining the relationship between leadership and organizational commitment. The results indicate, that the influence of leadership on commitment must not be overestimated. Thus, we were able to show that both emergence and influence of transformational leadership depends on the context. The organizational context (public – private, established – entrepreneurial, small – big) seems to influence the appearance of transformational leadership. Members of public, established, organizations describe their leaders as being less transformational than their counterparts in small, private, entrepreneurial firms. Besides leadership, situational factors of the working place such as task content, payment, technical environment etc. play a crucial role for the development of commitment. But it would be too rash to neglect the role of leadership as it depends on the context. Although further research is needed, the results indicate that transformational leadership is more important when the environment is characterized by change and insecurity. Whereas the influence of transformational leadership in public, established, organizations is rather small, in small, private, entrepreneurial firms leadership exerts an outstanding influence. Again, these findings are of practical importance. When attempting to improve the employees' commitment, one has to consider the organizational context. According to Meyer and Allen (1997), an active commitment management has to focus working conditions when larger organizations are of interest. In smaller firms, transformational leadership is the key to influencing affective commitment. Further research should address the question in how far the hierarchical position of leaders moderates the relationship between leadership and outcomes.

In addition to the organizational context we examined the impact of the cultural context. From a cross-cultural perspective systematic differences between German and American ratings were discussed. Though there are predominantly similarities, there seem to be specific systematic differences between North American and German leadership that deserve further clarification. Particularly, higher levels of follower ratings on transformational scales can be observed in America. Moreover, reversed patterns of means and correlations for the transactional scale MbEa can be stated. Obviously, German leaders are described as being less transformational and more transactional. There are several reasons for this phenomenon that can be discussed. Possibly, Hofstede's (2001) dimensions of cultural differences may help to explain the differences. Feedback culture, implicit leadership theories or selection processes may be alternative explanations. However, there is only little empirical evidence to support the assumption of the influence of cultural dimensions. Further research is needed to systematically explore these differences. For example, studies are required where German employees rate American leaders and vice versa or where trained raters examine leaders in both cultures.

Beyond the leader-centered and correlational studies that dominate the field, an experimental approach was presented that emphasized the followers' perspective in the in-

teractive process of leadership. According to the results, perception of transformational leadership is based on systematic variation of the behavior and the personality of the follower. It was shown that followers' characteristics, such as extraversion as a personality trait and implicit leadership theories, influence the perception and acceptance of transformational leadership. Moreover, the results support the theoretical assumptions that emphasize similarity between leader and follower as a basis for a transformational relationship. This finding is of high interest for the acceptance of transformational leadership in management practice. A bulk of skepticism and critical attitudes of scholars and practitioners is based on the assumption that transformational leaders are strong because their followers are weak. Consequently, such interactions should be avoided because in the long run innovative power and effectiveness are going to fail. However, there was no evidence for the concern that "weak" followers tend to perceive more charisma for reasons of compensation. It was concluded that it seems to be a promising research perspective to investigate other personality characteristics such as motives, intelligence etc.

Finally we want to discuss limitations, unsolved problems and open questions that may be fruitful for further research. First of all there are unsolved methodological problems with the instrument that had already been addressed by other researchers. These also occurred in the German studies. Apart from the high correlations between transformational scales, it appears as an even more serious concern that CR as a transactional scale cannot be empirically separated from the transformational scales. This issue requires further development of the instrument in order to improve the discriminant validity of the subscales. In order to gain a better discrimination Goodwin et al. (2001) have already proposed to subdivide CR. Another direction of development is the reformulation of the items of the transformational scales into more exceptional and extraordinary items, as already done with the additional charisma scale in the German version. This scale therefore showed lower means. Whatever the taken direction is, one has to assure that both, transformational and transactional behaviors, are represented in the instrument in a balanced way. Otherwise, trying to maintain the assumption that the instrument covers the whole range of leadership is quite difficult. It is a question of empirical testing as to whether more homogenous samples solve this problem, as was proposed recently (Antonakis/Avolio/Sivasubramaniam 2003).

In addition to the results presented here, the following topics should be examined. What are the specific impacts of the different facets of transformational behaviors? For example, the effects of specific facets of transformational leadership such as the vision content, communication style or feedback have been examined in experimental studies (Awamleh/Gardner 1999; Howell/Frost 1989; Kirkpatrick/Locke 1996; Shea/Howell 1999). However, up to now only few results were presented that even appear to be contradictory.

One more topic that should be addressed is the followers' and leaders' development. Although the development of followers is an essential assumption in the transformational theory, there is little evidence for the change of followers' values, self-esteem, self-efficacy, self-concept etc. (DeCremer 2002; Dvir/Eden/Avolio/Shamir 2002; Felfe/Schyns 2002). Another question refers to the training and development of leaders. What are the educational and biographical factors that make it more likely that one becomes a transformational leader (Avolio/Gibbons 1988)? Apart from personal-

ity traits (House/Howell 1992; Judge/Bono 2000), emotional intelligence is supposed to be an important precondition for exhibiting transformational leadership behavior (Ashkanasy/Tse 2000; George 2000; Küpers/Weibler 2002; Sosik/Megerian 1999). Accordingly, Wolfradt, Felfe, and Köster (2003) found a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership. Still the question remains as to whether transformational leadership behavior can be systematically trained and which concepts are appropriate (Barling/Weber/Kelloway 1996).

Furthermore, potential negative outcomes of transformational leadership should be examined. As pointed out above, when one looks at the consequences there is an emphasis on positive outcomes. Negative alternatives have not been explicitly investigated. In Germany charismatic leadership has often been regarded with skepticism. Yet, as far as we know, concerns, negative attitudes and consequences have not been investigated in empirical studies. In a pilot study the feeling of being manipulated and the experience of distance were found to be in combination with transformational leadership (Felfe 2003).

Last but not least, some studies indicate that, with regard to some of the MLQ subscales, women in leading positions are more transformational than men (Bass/Avolio/Atwater 1996; Eagly/Johannesen-Schmidt 2001). Supporting the findings of Bass et al. (1996), Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, and van Engen (2003) also detected systematical differences between women and men in their meta analysis, yet the effects are rather low. Eagly and Karau (2002) give an explanation for these findings within the frame of the role theory. Accordingly, transformational leadership is regarded as especially congruent with stereotypes about women. However, Schyns and Mohr (in review) could not confirm these results with a German sample. It remains an open question in what way gender might influence the perception and acceptance of transformational leadership and leadership behavior.

All in all, the conclusion can be drawn that the concept of transformational leadership can be adapted for the German culture. Results obtained with the instrument provide useful information for different aspects of organizational and human resource development. A broad field of open questions and interesting research lies still ahead.

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