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Teams' perceptions of charismatic leadership: The role of average perceptions and homogeneity in predicting team performance via intra-team communication quality

Doctoral Dissertation

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Acknowledgements

I dedicate this 9-year long effort to my recently passed grandfather, my superman.

My grandfather started working at the age of 11. He was carrying sacks of flour for the local Bakery, a tough job for a preteen. He never finished school. He did, however, become the municipality production director for the bakery, an award-winning beekeeper, and did farming on the side. He made monstrous efforts throughout his life so my father could go to university carefree, earn a degree, and become the first formally educated member of our family. My father never did finish university, but he did have time to learn about art, play music, sports, read books and discover the world. He passed to me the passion for knowledge, the oomph for discovery and love for authentic human connection.

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"To handle yourself, use your head; to handle others, use your heart."

- Eleanor Roosevelt



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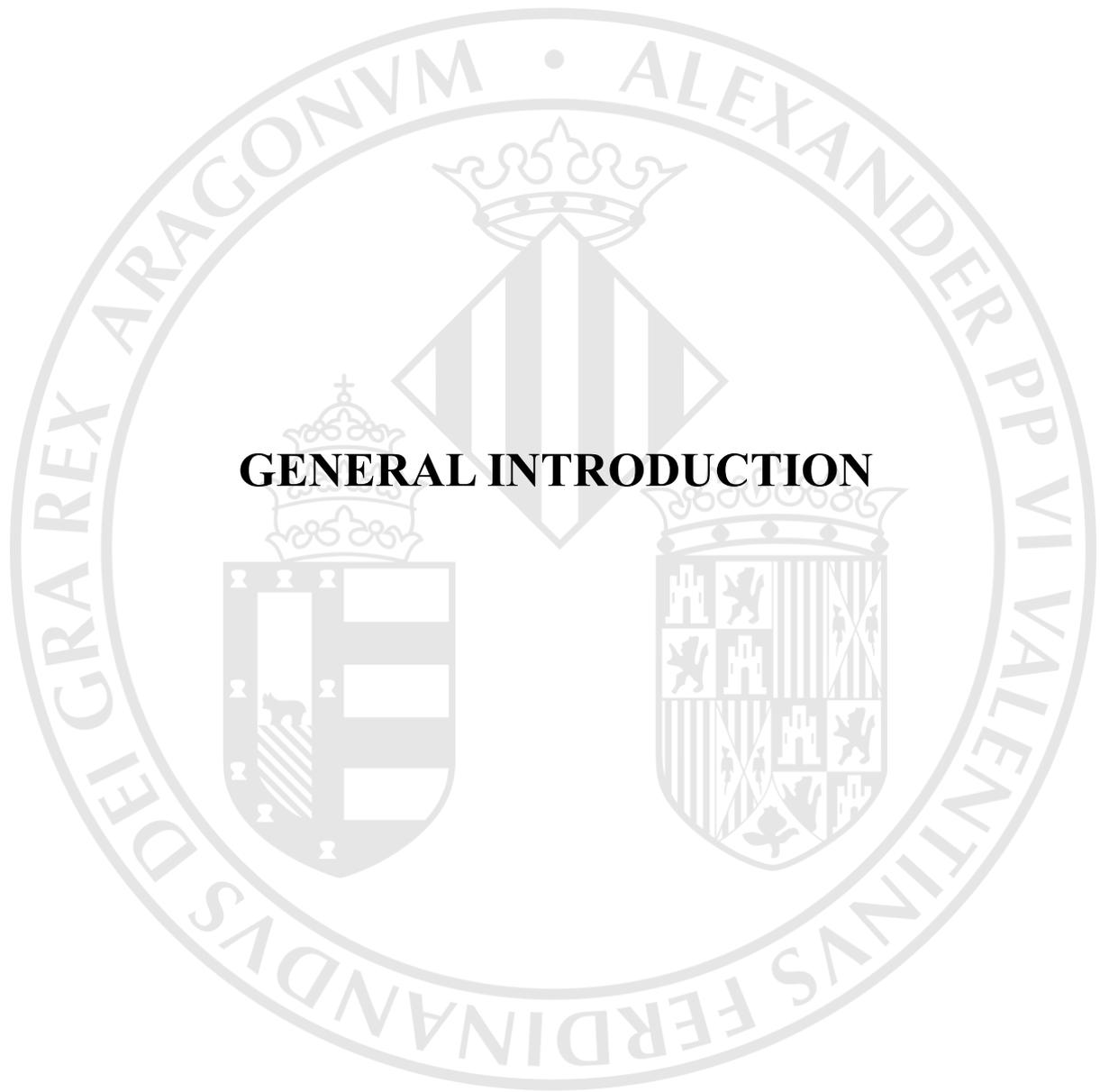
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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

There is a continuous increase in teamwork in organisations worldwide because teams are better equipped than individuals to perform complex tasks and reach organisational goals (Kozlowski & Bell, 2013; O'Neill & Salas, 2018). In this context, team leaders (i.e., team managers) have become key agents in ensuring team goal achievement and performance (Gardner et al., 2012; Salas et al., 2015; Weberg & Weberg, 2014; Wilderom et al., 2012). Charisma is a key characteristic of leaders that has been found to have an influence on team performance (Avolio & Yammarino, 2013; Banks et al., 2017; Nassif et al., 2021). Charismatic leaders articulate and help to build a positive vision for the future. They instil trust in followers (i.e., team members), foster an impression of the importance of the followers' mission, inspire a feeling of pride in followers about their work achievements, set high expectations, and show confidence that these expectations can be achieved (Bass, 1985; Le Blanc et al., 2021; Yammarino et al., 2012). However, for charisma to have an effect, followers' perceptions of their leaders' characteristics and behaviours are essential, since charismatic leadership is the result of an attribution based on followers' perceptions of leaders' behaviour (Ito et al., 2020; Bligh et al., 2018; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014).

Previous meta-analytical research has shown that charismatic leadership is positively related to group or firm performance (Banks et al., 2017). However, as Antonakis et al. (2016) state in their review, we still do not know what mediating mechanisms transmit the influence of charismatic leadership on team performance. This state-of-the-art is problematic because it shows that we do not fully understand *why* charismatic leadership influences team performance.

To obtain an indicator of charismatic leadership, a standard practice is to average team members' perceptions of their leader's charisma (Harrison & Klien, 2007), following a consensus composition model (Chan, 1998). This practice yields an indicator of a shared unit

construct (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000). However, because leaders' charisma is based on followers' perceptions, it is reasonable to expect some heterogeneity in these perceptions (Antonakis, 2012; Biemann et al., 2012; Harrison & Klien, 2007; Lindell & Brant, 2000). This variability, in fact, may provide meaningful information that helps to understand the effects of charismatic leadership on teams. Indeed, different scholars have recommended that, when studying aggregate constructs based on team members' perceptions, such as charismatic leadership, both the arithmetic mean (an indicator of a shared construct) and the within-team variability (an indicator of a dispersion construct) should be modelled (Chen et al., 2005; Klein et al., 2001; Lindell & Brant, 2000). Shared constructs (such as team members' average perceptions of charismatic leadership, henceforth APCL) reflect the elements (e.g. charismatic leadership perceptions) that are common to, or shared by, team members. Dispersion constructs (such as homogeneity in perceptions of charismatic leadership, henceforth HPCL) reflect within-team differences in these elements. Thus, APCL, as a shared construct, and HPCL, as a dispersion construct, are *qualitatively distinct* and *operationalised differently*.

However, despite these differences and the recommendation mentioned above, research has typically ignored the role played by HPCL in predicting key organisational outcomes, such as team performance, and the potential underlying mechanisms (i.e., mediators) that explain this relationship. This omission is surprising because previous research has shown that dispersion leadership constructs can enhance our understanding of the team leadership-team outcome relationship (e.g. leader-member exchange differentiation; see González-Romá, 2016; LeBlanc & González-Romá, 2012). Thus, disregarding HPCL is worrisome if we aim to understand charismatic leadership as a team-level phenomenon. Theoretically, addressing this omission can give us a more comprehensive understanding of the role charismatic leadership plays in the functioning and outcomes of teams because it can uncover

HPCL as a facet of charismatic leadership with specific influences beyond those of average charismatic leadership. Moreover, from a practical perspective, if HPCL is a relevant factor in team functioning, strategies to promote it can be suggested to team managers.

This dissertation contributes to filling the gaps identified above by incorporating HPCL when analysing some important underlying mechanisms that link charismatic leadership to team performance. In this study, it was differentiated between the team members' average perceptions of charismatic leadership (APCL), the homogeneity of these perceptions (HPCL) and the interaction between them, and the way these three components impact team performance, defined as the quality of processes and behaviours oriented toward goal achievement (Motowidlo, 2003).

Additionally, following different authors' calls for more knowledge about the mechanisms through which perceptions of charisma influence team performance (Antonakis et al. 2016; Yammarino et al., 2004), this study incorporates intra-team communication quality as an important mediating mechanism. The focus is on intra-team communication quality (i.e., the extent to which communication among team members is clear, effective, complete, fluent, and on time) because it is a key team process for team performance (González-Romá & Hernández, 2014; Kozlowski & Bell, 2003). Communication serves as a support mechanism for other team processes, such as team members' coordination, and problem solving (Gibson, 2001; Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006). When team communication quality is high, it diminishes the need for high communication quantity, which then liberates cognitive resources to focus on the task at hand and, consequently, fosters higher performance (MacMillan et al., 2004). Finally, as it was argued below, team communication can be influenced by both the average perceptions of charisma, the homogeneity of these perceptions, and the interactions among them.

With this study, I expect to make several contributions to the field of charismatic leadership. First, from a theoretical perspective, by incorporating HPCL, the conceptualisation of charismatic leadership as a team-level phenomenon that can be studied by using not only the average perception of charismatic leadership is expanded, but also the intra-team variability in these perceptions. Second, by incorporating intra-team communication quality as a mediator, the knowledge about the mechanisms through which charismatic leadership fosters team performance is increased. Thus, our study contributes to improving our understanding of *why* charismatic leadership is related to team performance. Finally, by analysing the moderation effects of HPCL, it is also clarified *when* and *how* it influences the relationship between charismatic leadership and team performance via team communication quality. From a practical perspective, the examination of leadership effects at the team level might be particularly relevant for today's organisations, which organise work around teams. Particularly, considering the evidence that shows that charisma can be taught (Antonakis, 2017; Antonakis et al., 2011), the results of this study can be used to design intervention strategies that promote high and homogeneous perceptions of the leader's charisma within teams and further enhance intra-team communication quality and performance.

This doctoral dissertation is structured as follows: I start by analysing the concepts and constructs that the study seeks to investigate. Then, I present the theoretical framework for the study, followed by the research model and the investigated hypotheses. Next, I present the methodology followed, and the results obtained. Finally, I discuss the study results and their implications. More specifically, this doctoral dissertation is composed of the following chapters:

Chapter 1 introduces the topic of charismatic leadership in organisations, providing definitions, a brief history, and a comparison with transformational leadership. This chapter also discusses levels of analysis and aggregation issues, which are important to consider when examining charismatic leadership at the team level.

Chapter 2 focuses on dispersion constructs in the organisational literature, describing what they are, providing examples, and explaining why they are important to consider. This chapter also discusses the issues of homogeneity in charismatic leadership and emphasises the importance of considering both average perceptions of charismatic leadership (APCL) and homogeneity in perceptions of charismatic leadership (HPCL) in research when focusing on work units.

Chapter 3 focuses on communication quality. In this chapter, a distinction is made between intra-team communication quantity and quality and emphasise the importance of communication as a vessel for other team processes.

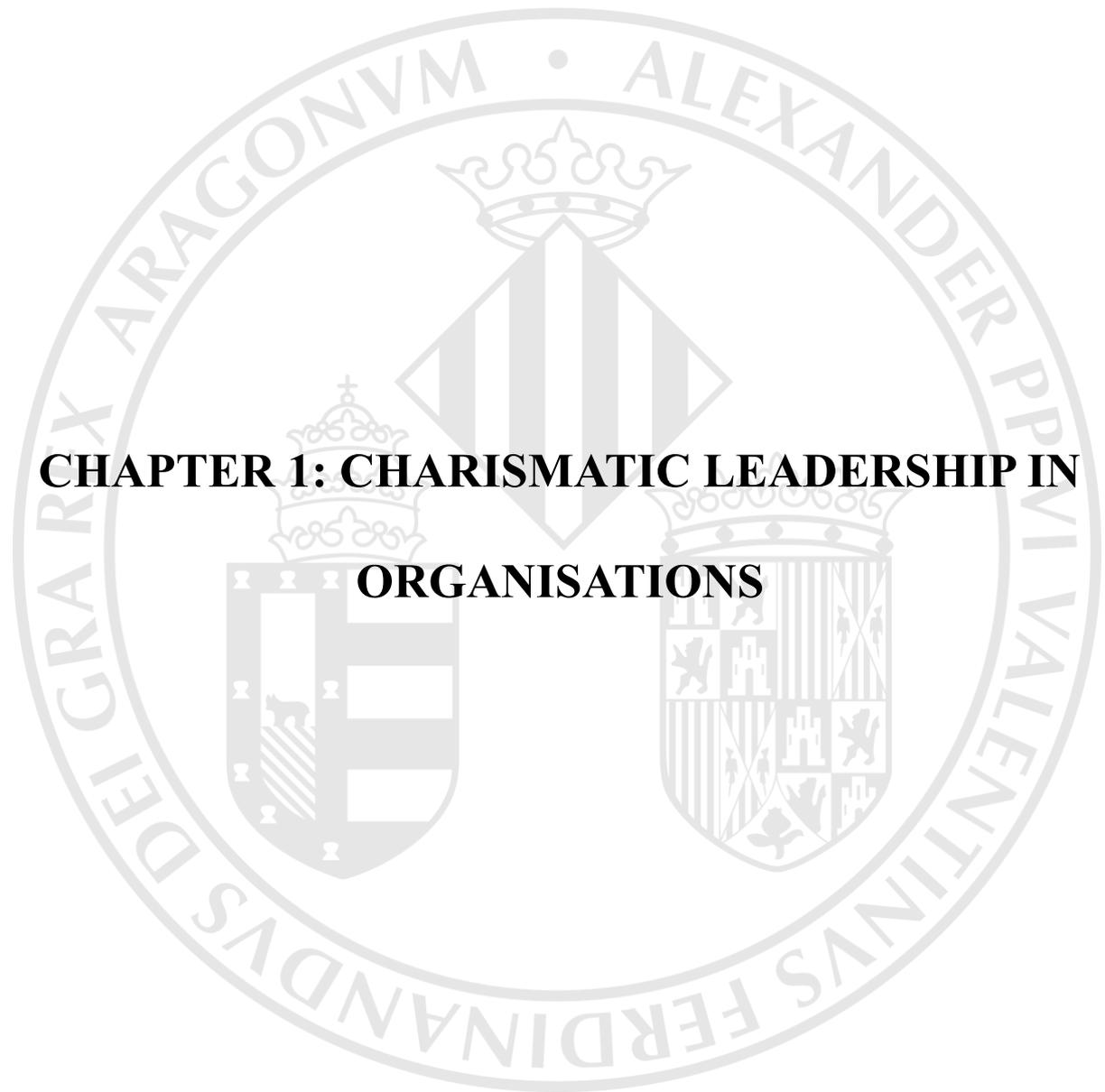
Chapter 4 provides a definition of performance. The chapter also discusses levels of analysis and aggregation issues and highlights several indicators of team performance.

Chapter 5 presents the theoretical framework, the research mode, and the study hypotheses, outlining the relationships between charismatic leadership perceptions, intra-team communication quality, and team performance, with a focus on both APCL and HPCL.

Chapter 6 outlines the methodology of the study, whereas Chapter 7 presents the results obtained. Finally, chapter 8 discusses the implications and limitations of the study, including its theoretical and practical contributions, and suggest directions for future research.

This dissertation is closed with an extended summary of the study written in Spanish. This extended summary is required when the PhD dissertation has been written in a standard

language for scientific communication (e.g. English), but different from the official languages of the University of Valencia.



CHAPTER 1: CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP IN ORGANISATIONS

Charismatic leadership in organisational settings has been extensively studied for the past many decades. Over five decades of research have accrued indisputable evidence that charismatic leadership has a relevant influence on fundamental organisational outcomes such as performance -not only individual task performance, but also organisational citizenship behaviours and group and organisational performance (Avolio & Yammarino, 2013; Banks et al., 2017; Conger & Kanungo, 2000; De Groot et al., 2000; Nohe et al., 2013; Seibert et al., 2011; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999). However, despite charisma having irrefutable effects on key organisational outcomes, there is no single clear conceptualisation and definition of charismatic leadership. This chapter provides an overview of the reasons behind this lack of consensus. Specifically, it will review the historical main contributions to the field of charismatic leadership, the conceptualisation of leaders' charisma and the definitions that have arisen over the years. In addition, it will review the relevant levels of analysis in charismatic leadership research paying special attention to the effects of charismatic leadership at the team level.

1.1 A HISTORICAL APPROACH TO CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP: THE MAIN CONTRIBUTORS

In this section the contributions of the pioneer scholars in the Charismatic Leadership field are reviewed. This section does not pretend to be an exhaustive or systematic review of all relevant contributions in the field. However, the contributions of the scholars in this section have been the inspiration for the research that has been built over almost 60 years.

1.1.1. WEBER

Maximilian Karl Emil Weber (1864 – 1920) was a German sociologist and political economist whose ideas and works on history, economics, sociology, and law remain profoundly relevant to this day. His main contribution to the leadership field came with the

concept of legitimate authority and the distinction between charismatic, traditional, and legal-rational forms of authority. The term legitimate authority was first used in Weber's *Sociology of Domination* where he developed the concept of power. Power in this context is seen as meaningful relationships that people form with one another and it can be transient (based on habit, fear, belief, or interest) or permanent. For this type of relationship to be stable and permanent, it has to come from intrinsic validity. If intrinsic validity causes obedience, it makes it legitimate. Weber presents and explains three types of legitimisations: traditional, legal-rational, and charismatic.

Traditional authority. Traditional authority is a ruling system which is grounded in custom and tradition. Weber argued that it can be traced back to patriarchal households and the tradition of family. This is a system in which, most usually, the oldest male figure is considered the master and is bestowed with the exclusive right to rule. The succession of this power is based on inheritance. This master has no agency per se to do this and their authority and power rest solely on the willingness of their subsidiaries to honour the authority figure. The stability of such a system depends on the feelings of duty and are sanctioned by tradition itself.

Legal-rational authority. This type of authority relies on impersonal rules, on legal rationality, legal legitimacy, and bureaucracy. It depends on the powers of the system itself, its bureaucratic and legal design. The way these rules are intertwined with other rules and the way they are enacted and should be obeyed gives them legitimacy. Governments have the monopoly over enforcing them and the physical force that is to be used as a sanction for disobedience is considered legitimate because societies approve such exercise.

Charismatic authority. Weber borrowed the term charisma from early Christian church to refer to "gifts of grace". This term was originally used to describe those qualities of

a person that could not be otherwise described by ordinary means. Weber mentioned charisma in three different writing pieces. First, in his *Economy of Society*, in which he talks about charisma in the context of pre-modern communities, describing warlords, chieftains and demagogues. Second, he mentions charismatic leadership in writings about politics during and after World War One, where he labels some elected leaders of political parties as charismatic. And finally, Weber writes about charisma in his post-war writings where he develops charisma into a universal ideal-type used to analyse social relationships, regardless of historical context (Breuilly, 2011). He states that charismatic leaders hold extraordinary facilities of both body and spirit, which are not commonly found in ordinary individuals (Weber, 1968).

Weber argued that, unlike the traditional and rational-legal types of authority, which operate through official and stable frameworks, charisma operates through informal channels and human relationships. This kind of setup puts a lot of relevance on the personal connection between the followers and the leader and his/her mission and demands at least a seemingly high sensitivity to individual needs. In turn, the devotion towards the leader himself contribute to followers' efforts to achieve the goals set by the leader (see Conger & Kanungo, 1994). Weber's development of the concept of charisma put charismatic leadership in the leadership nomological map.

It is interesting to note that the works of Weber have sparked decades of immediate research in politics and sociology, yet in organisational behaviour they make an appearance only decades later, during the 70s and 80s (Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo 1987). Numerous researchers who followed Weber built upon his foundation and developed the concept further, each with their own unique vision and agenda, which resulted in some fundamental problems, which will be discussed later. (House, 1977; Friedland, 1964; Shils, 1965).

1.1.2. HOUSE AND SHAMIR

Robert J. House (1946 – 2011), a professor at the Wharton School of the University of Pennsylvania, has been one of the leading experts on leadership across the world. He received his PhD degree in Management from the Ohio State University, famous for its leadership program, and further developed his major focus of interest in the relationships between power, personality and leadership to predict organisational performance.

He proposed the Path-Goal Theory of Leadership Effectiveness first published in *Administrative Science Quarterly* in 1971. This theory states that traits and behaviours of the leader influence the motivation, performance, and satisfaction of the followers. It is based on the expectancy theory of motivation (Vroom, 1964) which states that an individual chooses his/her behaviour based on what the individual suspects will lead to the most beneficial outcome. The value placed to the outcomes will trigger behaviours deemed to have the biggest return on investment. Continuing with motivational factors, House went on to develop the theory of Charismatic Leadership. His first paper on charismatic leadership was published in 1976. The paper reviewed literature on charisma and other social psychology pieces that he felt were relevant for the conceptualisation of charisma. There are several angles from which House initially approached the concept of charisma: situational factors associated with the emergence of charismatic leaders, characteristics of charismatic leaders, behaviours of charismatic leaders and charismatic leadership effects. Contrary to Weber's, House's speculative theoretical explanations came from Psychology, not from a sociological or political perspective. In fact, charisma was rarely considered within the framework of organisational leadership until House brought it forward (Yukl, 1993).

House based his research on Weber's work, but also on other findings from leadership and motivation research thus far. He analysed what distinguishes charismatic leaders from

other leaders, what are the characteristics of their behaviours and finally, what are the situations in which this type of leadership is most likely to flourish. He posited that the distinctive traits of these types of leaders included triumphant influence efforts as well as a strong need for power, high self-esteem and strong beliefs and ideas which they can effortlessly defend. These leaders use impression management tactics, self-promoting an image of someone who is trustworthy and competent. The vision that they project through these behaviours matches followers' values, with the idea to align them. The communication content is structured in a way that arouses followers' motivation. This is such because, according to House, essentially charismatic leaders' power comes from the recognition and approval of the followers. The success of the strategy depends on the appeals to the hopes and ideas of the followers.

Although Weber suggested the importance of meaningful relationships when differentiating various types of authorities, it was House who introduced the relevance of the leadership-follower relationship emphasising the emotional aspect of it. This was a milestone for leadership research, kickstarting new horizons for effective leadership research. Enough studies have proven several aspects of House's theory (Sutton & Woodman, 1989; Yammarino et al., 1993; Howell & Frost, 1989; Eden, 1992) so that it started getting further attention and recognition.

One thing, however, remained missing from House's theory, and that is the "how". The theory did not describe the mechanisms by which charismatic leadership inspires followers to transcend their own interest for the sake of the organisation. Further on, the theory focuses on dyadic rather than collective processes. And finally, it misses some of the significant aspects of charismatic leadership that emerged in later research such as self-sacrificial behaviour of the leader and non-traditional approaches to reaching goals (Conger

& Kanungo, 1987). Some of these issues are common to other theories and contributors on charisma, as it will be seen later.

Following his initial posits on charismatic leadership he, together with his colleagues embarked on revisions of his theory on charismatic leadership, which were published in 1992 (House & Howell, 1992), and 1993 (House & Shamir, 1993). The later one is the one that had a stronger impact. The study aimed to identify the specific behaviours and characteristics of charismatic leaders and to determine their effects on followers. Specifically, they differentiated several key characteristics including:

Visionary outlook: charismatic leaders have a clear and compelling vision of the future that inspires and motivates followers. *Self-confidence*: charismatic leaders are self-assured and have a strong belief in their own abilities and vision. *Articulateness*: charismatic leaders are skilled communicators who are able to articulate their vision in a way that resonates with followers. *Emotional expressiveness*: charismatic leaders are able to convey their emotions in a way that inspires and motivates followers. And, finally, *Sensitivity to follower needs*: charismatic leaders are attentive to the needs and concerns of their followers and are able to respond to them in a way that builds trust and loyalty.

House and Shamir (1993) found that charismatic leaders were able to have a significant positive impact on their followers, including increased motivation, satisfaction, and performance. However, they also noted that the effects of charismatic leadership could be negative in some particular instances, depending on the specific behaviours and goals the leader aims to achieve.

Overall, the study by House and Shamir contributed to the understanding of charismatic leadership and its effects on followers, and their findings continue to influence research in the field of leadership today.

1.1.3. BASS AND AVOLIO

Dr. Bernard Morris Bass (1925-2007) was best known as “the founding father” of transformational leadership, which he introduced in his influential 1985 book "Leadership and Performance Beyond Expectations", and which inspired a whole new generation of leadership researchers. Bass's work on transformational leadership is based on the idea that effective leaders inspire and motivate their followers to achieve high levels of performance and personal growth. He identified four key components of transformational leadership (Bass & Bass, 1985):

Idealised influence: This is the component that was originally equated to charisma. It refers to leaders' being role models for their followers, who are inspired by their leaders to emulate their behaviour. *Inspirational motivation:* It refers to leaders' ability to articulate a compelling vision for the future that inspires their followers to work towards a common goal. *Intellectual stimulation:* Transformational leaders encourage their followers to be creative and innovative, and they are open to new ideas and approaches. *Individualised consideration:* This dimension refers to the support and encouragement provided to leaders' followers; leaders are able to tailor their leadership style to meet the individual needs of followers.

According to Bass' proposal, charismatic and transformational leadership are closely related, but they are not entirely the same. Charismatic leadership is characterised by the leader's ability to inspire and motivate followers through their personal qualities and appeal. Charismatic leaders have a strong vision, a powerful presence, and the ability to make followers feel special and important, highlighting the importance of their mission. Transformational leadership, on the other hand, is a larger concept that focuses on the leader's ability to inspire followers to work towards a common goal, often by appealing to their higher ideals and values. In any case, charismatic leadership can be seen as a precursor or

foundation for transformational leadership. However, according to Bass, the relationship between charismatic and transformational leadership is asymmetric. In other words, while charismatic leadership is a necessary component of transformational leadership, not all charismatic leaders are transformational leaders. To be truly transformational, a leader must go beyond charisma to inspire and develop their followers towards a common goal.

Bass, together with Avolio, made additional contributions in the field of Leadership development. Although Avolio has contributed to the study of authentic leadership and organisational behaviour, one of his most important contributions, together with Bass, is the development of the Full-Range Leadership (FRLD) Model (Bass & Avolio, 1994). This is a comprehensive framework for leadership development that encompasses different leadership styles and behaviours. It includes transformational leadership - a process by which leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of morality and motivation (Burns, 1978), transactional leadership - style of leadership in which the leader uses rewards and punishments to motivate followers to achieve specific goals (Burns, 1978), and laissez-faire leadership - a style of leadership in which the leader provides little to no direction or guidance to their followers, and allows them to make their own decisions without interference (Lewin et al., 1939). According to the model, transformational leadership, which includes the dimension of charisma, is the most effective style of leadership, as it involves inspiring and motivating followers to achieve their full potential. In addition, Bass and Avolio (1990) developed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). The MLQ is probably the most widely used instrument for measuring leadership styles and behaviours. It is based on the Full Range Leadership Development (FRLD) model and assesses the degree to which leaders exhibit transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire leadership behaviours. In addition, it measures the four dimensions of transformational leadership, including the dimension or charisma.

1.1.4. CONGER AND KANUNGO

Together, Conger and Kanungo conducted research on leadership effectiveness, transformational leadership, and charismatic leadership. They developed a theoretical model of charismatic leadership that has become widely influential in the field. Their work has also focused on understanding the role of leaders in promoting organisational change and innovation. They published numerous articles and books together, including their seminal book "Charismatic Leadership in Organisations" (1998), which is considered a classic in the field of leadership studies. In their model of charismatic leadership, they emphasised the leader's ability to inspire followers through their personal qualities, vision, and behaviour. This is believed to have a profound impact on organisational performance and employees' well-being.

As the previous models, the model proposed by Conger and Kanungo emphasises the importance of the leader's relationship with their followers. Charismatic leaders are seen as being able to establish strong emotional connections with their followers, which helps to build trust and loyalty. Through their actions, charismatic leaders are able to convey a sense of shared identity and purpose, which fosters a sense of collective mission and commitment.

But what is unique of Conger and Kanungo's conceptualisation of charisma is that they understand charismatic leadership within the framework of attribution theory (Conger & Kanungo, 1987). This theory is a psychological framework that helps us to understand how people make sense of events and behaviours by attributing causes to them. In the case of charismatic leadership, followers attribute certain qualities and behaviours to the leader that they believe make them charismatic. These attributions may include beliefs about the leader's unique abilities, exceptional qualities, or heroic actions. Thus, from Conger and Kanungo's point of view, followers' perceptions of their leaders' characteristics and behaviours are

critical to talk about charismatic leadership. Importantly, the perception of charisma is not solely determined by the leader's traits or behaviours, but by the interpretation of these traits and behaviours by the followers. Therefore, the leader's charisma is not an inherent characteristic, but rather a social construct that is shaped by the perceptions and attributions of the followers.

According to Conger and Kanungo, charismatic leaders have a unique ability to project a compelling vision that captures the hearts and minds of their followers. They possess a strong sense of purpose, are highly confident, and are seen as being extraordinary in some way. Charismatic leaders also display behaviours that are perceived as being unconventional or heroic, and they are able to articulate their vision in a way that inspires others to follow them.

Aside from the above, there have been numerous charismatic leadership researchers who would be well deserving to be mentioned and written about (e.g. Antonakis, 2016; Burns, 1978; Lowe 1996; Gardner, 1998; Yukl, 1993; Howell & Frost 1989, etc.). However, the ones mentioned here are the pioneers. I will refer to some of these other relevant authors and work throughout the chapter.

1.2. CONCEPTUALISING CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP

Conceptualising charismatic leadership is no easy task. Nearly five decades of charismatic leadership research have produced an unsteady scaffolding on which systematic development cannot be stacked on, reliably. That is why, throughout history and to this day, when reviewing systematic reviews and meta-analyses on the topic (e.g. Banks et al., 2017) you will undoubtedly find a remark addressing this instability, and usually it will be followed by a call from researchers for something to be done about it. Here I will name but a few.

“The ambiguity of the {charismatic leadership} phenomenon and the difficulty of its measure have hindered researchers from firmly comprehending it.” (Fuller et al., 1996, p. 271).

“Although charisma has been intensely studied, the concept is still not well understood and much of the research undertaken cannot inform policy (Antonakis et al., 2016, p. 293).

“Charisma has neither been defined consistently nor robustly in nearly six decades of theory and research on inspirational forms of leadership in the organisational sciences” (Banks et al., 2017, p. 508).

Various researchers have lacked the common ground from which to build an integrous nomological network (Avolio & Yammarino, 2013). If one was to gather and look at all the works written on charismatic leadership over the past several decades, it is likely that researchers studying it were starting from their own conceptual perspectives. This has made it really challenging to researchers who embarked on the topic of charismatic leadership to write congruent break down on the topic and serve it as a solid standing point for future exploration, although many have tried. To this day the conceptual convergence within the field remains unsettled. Through this conceptual review I aim to find the communalities across different ways of approaching charismatic leadership and identify the critical characteristics in order to propose the best conceptualisation.

Before proposing an integrative conceptualisation and definition of charismatic leadership, it is useful to analyse the obstacles that have precluded scholars from properly grasping charismatic leadership (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). Here are some of the other major obstacles frequently mentioned hindering the understanding and the operational formation of the charismatic leadership phenomenon:

1.2.1 ITS ELUSIVE NATURE

Charismata, a Greek word from which charisma is derived, means “gifts presented by the gods” and originally this term was used to describe that which cannot otherwise be described by common words. Most scholars use some form of “divine”, “gift”, “quality” or “ability” in their definitions and descriptions of the charismatic leadership construct where the nature of these elusive labels and their exact quality are not clear (Davies, 1954; Spencer, 1973). Therefore, it comes as a little surprise that the operationalisation of such a phenomenon may run into some challenges. A construct described as a miracle can only go so far in being operationalised. Yet, for the sake of utility, many have and still are trying.

1.2.2. DEFINED BY OUTCOMES

Charisma is often defined by its outcomes (e.g. having profound effects on followers, as the ability to diffuse intense situations, mobilising followers) and using exemplars such as Ronald Reagan (Bell, 2013), Mahatma Gandhi or Adolf Hitler (O'Connor, 1995). There is no such thing as the perfect exemplar, and we never know if the repertoire of characteristics is exclusive to the style and inclusive of all characteristics relevant for the domain (MacKenzie, 2003). This is a problem when wanting to operationalise the nature of a construct and differentiate it from others. Constructs should not be explained by their outcomes or by using exemplars (MacKenzie 2003). A useful definition would require the construct to be independent of its effects (Antonakis et al., 2016), because how else would we be able to study its effects (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013)?

1.2.3. CONFUSION WITH TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Much literature is using the terms charismatic leadership and transformational leadership interchangeably (Jung & Avolio, 2000; Yukl, 1993; Dionne et al., 2012; Mhatre & Riggio, 2014; Brown & Lord, 1999). This is a problem. It hinders the clarity surrounding the boundary conditions of charisma to say the least. The continuous association of these two different concepts has only thickened the confusion over time and many scholars remark this in some way in the introduction of their papers (Yukl, 2010; Antonakis et al., 2016).

It is difficult to pinpoint why the concepts have not been clarified thus far, and explanations have rarely been anything more than assumptions. However, it may have something to do with the fact that both labels showed up quite early on in the development of this “new leadership”. Following the first wave of authors who identified, named and spoke about charismatic leadership (Weber, 1947; Downton, 1973; House, 1977; Spencer, 1973), Burns came out with his “extremely successful leadership” (1978) where, abstaining from using the term charisma due to its, in his opinion, elusive nature beyond analysis, used the term “transforming” instead. And this may have kicked off the usage of different terms referring to the essentially similar concept thereafter.

Another reason to add confusion between the concepts of transformational/charismatic leadership may be attributed to the development of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass & Avolio, 1985). This tool that kicked off the renewed interest in charismatic leadership research is, to this day, the most commonly used instrument to assess transformational/charismatic leadership (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013; Antonakis et al., 2016). In fact, in many cases, transformational/charismatic leadership is described in operational terms led by the framework of the MLQ, rather than independently conceptually defined (Lowe et al., 1996). That is also a problem. In fact, the multidimensional

conceptualisation of Transformational Leadership has been linked to the four dimensions of the MLQ that, combined, make up transformational leadership (not rarely referred to the charismatic-transformational leadership). The four dimensions of the MLQ are idealised influence (instilling pride, respect, trust), inspirational motivation (communication of an exhilarating vision alongside high-performance expectations), individual consideration (sensitivity to different types of needs the followers and different learning journeys) and intellectual stimulation (fostering of a creative problem-solving attitude) (Bass & Avolio, 1985).

Different authors have different standpoints on the relationship between transformational and charismatic leadership styles. There are roughly three main categories of opinions out there:

1) Some researchers consider these two concepts as stand-alone and fundamentally different (Antonakis et al., 2016; Yukl 1999). Even though initially Antonakis (2012) conceptualises charisma as a part of transformational leadership, he later underlines some of its specificities like the ability of a charismatic leader to communicate symbolically and use verbal and nonverbal signalling techniques to manipulate emotional responses (Antonakis, 2016). Yukl (1999), on the other hand, proposes that the basis for differentiating charismatic from transformational leaders is followers' attributions to specific leaders' characteristics that make them strongly identify with their leader. This feature is distinctive of charismatic but not transformational leadership (Yukl, 1999; p. 294).

2) Other researchers conceptualise charisma as an element of transformational leadership and state that, on its own, charisma does not have a "transformational effect", but it does contribute to become transformational. In this regard, some authors think that one of the dimensions of transformational leadership "idealized influence" is the one that captures

charisma. Conger and Kanungo in their paper “Toward a behavioural theory of charismatic leadership in organisational settings” conceptualise charisma as idealised influence and put it into the context of an organisational setting. Other authors think that charisma is better reflected through the combination of two out of four elements of transformational leadership (idealised influence and inspirational motivation) (House & Howell, 1992). The main reason is that “idealized influence” and “inspirational motivation” dimensions are highly correlated (Kinippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). Although others do not refer to statistical reasons. In turn, they argue that inspirational motivation is important to capture the emotional processes by which charismatic leaders influence followers (Banks et al., 2017). Thus, oftentimes the two dimensions of idealised influence and inspirational motivation, as operationalised by the MLQ, have been taken side by side and labelled as the measure of charisma. According to this second view, transformational leadership is a broader concept than charismatic leadership (Kinippenberg & Sitkin, 2013; Shamir et al., 1993; Conger & Kanungo, 1994).

3) Finally, another group of researchers consider that both transformational and charismatic leadership are essentially the same construct (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). Specifically, some researchers have suggested that due to the conceptual overlap and rather high intercorrelations between measures of transformational leadership and charismatic leadership, they refer to the same concept (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). Their use as a single measure appears frequently in literature (Pastor et al., 2007; Wang & Howell, 2010; Wieseke et al., 2009). Even Robert House, who is deemed to be one of the founding fathers of charismatic leadership considers the two leadership types to have but minor and imperceptible differences (e.g. House & Podsakoff, 1994; House & Shamir, 1993;). Thus, according to this view, charisma is as broad as the above four dimensions of transformational leadership (Shamir et al., 1993; Conger & Kanungo, 1994).

1.2.4 LACK OF CLEAR BOUNDARIES

The boundary conditions of charismatic leadership are vague at best (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). Every element of leadership should be recognised as either charismatic or not. For a concept to be meaningful, its boundaries need to first be precisely determined. However, both Bass (1985) as well as Conger and Kanungo (1987) define charisma not by defining its specificities but by noting that there are some leadership components, present also in other leadership styles, that are simply more present and intensified amongst charismatic leaders. But at no point do any of these researchers define what exactly unites those identified elements into a singular construct (Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo 1987, Bass & Riggio, 2006). It is not clear what are the qualifying conditions for the components to be included or excluded (Yukl, 1999). For example, qualities such as instilling trust, and individual consideration are also present in other leadership concepts such as empowering leadership and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) where there also exists individualised treatment and building relationships on trust (Arnold et al., 2000; Graen & Scandura, 1987). Moreover, different authors tilt the emphasis on qualities differently. Moreover, different authors recognise a slightly different set of qualities as charismatic. For example, whereas sensitivity to the environment is deemed as a charismatic characteristic by some authors (Conger & Kanungo, 1994) for others, it is not (Bass & Avolio 1985).

1.2.5 INCORRECTLY SPECIFIED CAUSAL MODELS

Van Knippenberg and Sitkin (2013) suggest that charismatic and transformational leadership (which they consider equivalent concepts) do not count with an adequate nomological network. There is no causal model that clearly captures how each dimension of charismatic/transformational leadership is expected to have distinct effects on different outcomes (e.g. leadership satisfaction, OCB, organisational commitment, performance,

innovation) and be explained by different mediating processes (e.g. empowerment, trust, climate) that may be conditional to particular moderators (e.g. social distance, personal characteristics, cultural values). The problem is that all the dimensions are linked to multiple outcomes through multiple mediators, and all the effects of all transformational dimensions are expected to be conditional to the same moderators. In other words, the same arguments are used for all the dimensions of charismatic/transformational leadership, regardless of which particular mediators (or moderators) may be more or less relevant for different dimensions and/or outcomes. This idea is also suggested by Yukl (1999) when pointing out that charismatic leadership causal models are underdeveloped yet overly inclusive at the same time (Yukl, 1999).

The obstacles to clearly conceptualise (and operationalise) charismatic leadership have led to some scholars to suggest that we should “stop escalating our commitment [to charismatic leadership] and move on” from studying it altogether (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013, p. 50). However, because “charismatic leaders wield enormous power and can use this power to accomplish great good or evil” (Antonakis, 2016, p. 294) I believe that we should not abandon the topic. Instead, we should make an effort to clearly conceptualise and define leader’s charisma and show that the construct can be adequately operationalised and enriched. Nevertheless, I do agree with van Knippenberg and Sitkin (2013) that we need to provide better explanations of the mechanisms behind the specific dimensions of transformational leadership, and particularly, leaders’ charisma to foster key organisational variables such as performance. In this study an attempt will be made to move in these directions.

Before adopting a definition of charismatic leadership for the current study, the most cited/accepted definitions are presented. Most of them have elements in common, while

some dabble in expanding or narrowing the definition in an attempt to offer a more elegant approach.

1.3. DEFINING LEADER'S CHARISMA

As for the conceptualisation, diverse approaches to defining charisma throughout literature were found. They span from a “miraculously given power” (Davies, 1954) through defining charismatic leadership as a relationship of reciprocal interdependence between the leaders and their followers (Bryman, 1992), or defining it as an attribution based on followers' perceptions of their leader's behaviours (Conger & Kanungo, 1998).

The most cited definition of the term “charisma” is that of Max Weber who first introduced the concept (Riesebrodt, 1999). According to Weber (cf. Riesebrodt, 1999) charismatic leaders are considered extraordinary and treated as endowed with supernatural, superhuman, or at least specifically exceptional powers or qualities. Specifically, charisma is considered a specific type of authority, an authority of remarkable personal gift of grace that is based on faith in the unique empowerment of a person, instead of force or interest. Weber describes charisma as “the absolutely personal devotion and the personal confidence in revelation, heroism, or other qualities of individual leadership” (Weber, 1948; p. 79).

When the focus is on the definition of “charismatic leadership”, the most commonly accepted and cited references according to Banks et al. (2017) are the ones provided by Bass (1985), Conger and Kanungo (1987, 1998), House (1977), and Shamir et al. (1993). To these, we can add other more recent definitions of prestigious scholars in the field such as Antonakis (2016) and Yukl (1999).

House (1977) describes charismatic leaders as those “who by force of their personal abilities are capable of having profound and extraordinary effects on followers” (p. 189).

According to House, these leaders sincerely believe in their own abilities, and not just their abilities but the abilities of their followers, and charismatic leaders use this projected strength to justify setting exceptionally high-performance expectations. He believes that high expectations can be met with little strain. Because charismatic leaders take an active part in goal achievement setting an example, they are often viewed as role models. This leads to some astonishing accomplishments. House also connects this type of leadership to social change and notes that followers have expectations around being led out of predicaments (House, 1977, p. 204).

Bass (1985) follows House's conceptualisation of charisma when he says that charismatic leadership is "used to describe leaders who by the power of their person have profound and extraordinary effects on their followers" (p. 35). Bass later describes a charismatic leader as "a person of strong convictions, determined, self-confident, and emotionally expressive and his or her followers must want to identify with the leader as a person, whether or not in a crisis" (Bass, 1990; p. 220). Although charisma was one of the dimensions of transformational leadership assessed by the MLQ, it was later renamed to "idealized influence" to avoid the connotation of idolisation of the leader and make explicit the idealisation connotation instead (see Antonakis, 2012). Later, two components of idealised influence were differentiated: a behavioural component and an attributional component. Whereas behavioural idealised influence refers to concrete leaders' behaviours that the followers can observe directly (e.g. whether leaders talk about something), attributional idealised influence deals with followers' attributions of the leader that result from how followers perceive the leader (e.g. whether followers think leaders act for reasons that transcend leader's self-interests). Although both components are expected to be correlated, they can be enacted differently (Antonakis, 2012).

The importance of considering followers' attributions, and not just leaders' behaviours, had been in fact emphasised previously by Conger and Kanungo (1987; 1998; see also Conger et al., 2000). Conger and Kanungo believe that charismatic leadership is not found solely in the leader's personal qualities but in the interplay between the leaders' attributes and behaviours and the followers' beliefs, needs, values and perceptions. According to Conger and Kanungo (2000), "charismatic leadership is an attribution based on follower perceptions of their leader's behaviour" (p.748). It is through these attributions that leaders are legitimised. Leadership behaviour would be perceived as charismatic if it emits an inspirational vision and brings about an impression that this vision is an extraordinary one. Therefore, what makes followers follow is not the authority but the appeal of the story that the leader preaches. After all, who does not want to be extraordinary? Thus, the measurement of charismatic leadership is reflected in follower perceptions of the leaders' behavioural and personal attributes that potentially lead to unusual and outstanding outcomes. Specifically, Conger and Kanungo distinguish several components running in three stages of the "leadership process" (Conger & Kanungo, 1994). In the first stage (the environmental assessment stage), it is likely that leaders are perceived as critics of the *status quo*; they are perceived as individuals who are highly sensitive to environmental opportunities and followers' needs and, thus, arouse the interest of followers for changing the *status quo*. In the second stage (the vision formulation stage), charismatic leaders transmit a shared and idealised future vision that is articulated in an inspirational manner that promotes action. In the last stage (the implementation stage), leaders show the conviction that proposed actions are doable and the mission is achievable. They do so by showing how objectives can be achieved. Their expertise is a powerful role that will engage followers in the actions planned to achieve the goals (see Antonakis, 2012).

Shamir et al. (1993) go back to the types of definitions proposed by House and Bass who emphasise the effects charismatic leaders have on followers. According to Shamir et al. (1993), charismatic leaders are exceptional leaders who have a profound influence on followers and, consequently, on social systems. According to these authors, charismatic leadership theories

"emphasize symbolic leader behaviour, visionary and inspirational messages, nonverbal communication, appeal to ideological values, intellectual stimulation of followers by the leader, display of confidence in self and followers, and leader expectations for follower self-sacrifice and for performance beyond the call of duty. Such leadership is seen as giving meaningfulness to work by infusing work and organisations with moral purpose and commitment rather than by affecting the task environment of followers, or by offering material incentives and the threat of punishment" (p. 578)

The influence of these leaders span across needs, values and even preferences and aspirations of followers. The followers become committed to the mission of the leader and are willing to make sacrifices and perform above and beyond for the interest of this mission. Shamir et al.'s approach emphasises symbolic behaviour that comes alongside inspirational and visionary messages, high quality verbal and non-verbal communication and display of confidence. According to Shamir et al. (1993), such leadership bridges the gap between individual and organisational agenda, brings meaningfulness and inspires the feeling of purpose and commitment, which can all be powerful drivers for a workforce and much more effective than material incentives or punishment.

Yukl's (1999) take on charismatic leadership is that its speciality is to tap into the higher order needs of the followers for achievement and self-actualisation. The leadership

effort acts as a motivational force to move them above self-interest. Yukl is one of the advocates that clearly distinguishes charismatic leadership from transformational leadership. Apart from the attributional nature of charismatic leadership mentioned earlier, Yukl state that while transformational leaders are more likely to meet the followers where they are and go alongside them in the direction of goals, a charismatic leader will highlight a need for radical change and imply that it can be achieved by trusting the leaders' unique abilities. Later, he even goes as far to argue the possibility of these two leadership styles to be incompatible (Yukl, 2010).

Antonakis et al. (2016) consider charismatic leadership as “a type of leadership whose nature is based on values (i.e., morals), beliefs and symbolism, as well as on emotion, which is expressive in its transmission of information” (Antonakis et al., 2016; p. 303). This leads them to provide the following definition: “Charisma is values-based, symbolic, and emotion-laden leader signalling” (Antonakis et al., 2016; p. 304). Because, according to Antonakis and colleagues, charisma is a type of leadership based on values, beliefs, symbolism, and emotion, it involves signalling through visible actions and communication to win followers and influence their behaviour. Charismatic leaders communicate values, use symbolism to make their message clear, and demonstrate conviction and passion for their mission via emotional displays. In addition, signalling is key to the charismatic effect, and can occur through both verbal and nonverbal communication modes (Antonakis, 2016). The more prototypical the leader appears, the more followers will attribute qualities such as courage, wisdom, and competence to them. Antonakis' definition is one of the rare ones that separates the charismatic leader from its outcomes. This is important because it avoids defining charisma focusing just on “the impact they cause on followers”. However, as in other leadership theories, for a charismatic “effect” to occur the followers must accept the leader. This acceptance is realised by communicating a mission and agreeing on values that are in

consensus. According to Antonakis et al. (2011) this consensus has three pillars: a) promoting values that separate right from wrong, b) symbolic communication that clarifies the underlying message which appeals to high morals and collective belonging and c) displays of emotional conviction and passion.

Although Antonakis et al. (2016) agree with Yukl (1999) that charisma and transformational leadership are two different constructs and suggest that research on charismatic leadership should be separated from transformational leadership research, Antonakis previously had explicitly said that they “consider charisma as part of transformational leadership” (Antonakis, 2012; p. 281). Specifically, charisma would be a combination of the two components of idealised influence (the attributional and the behavioural components) and inspirational motivation (the leadership that inspires and motivates their followers to reach ambitious goals that may seem initially unreachable). This dimensional adds emotional qualities to the influence process of charismatic leaders (Bass, 1985).

According to Banks et al. (2017), there is a conceptual overlap between the components of charisma described by Antonakis et al. (2016) and the three more traditional components of charismatic leadership: the two components of idealised influence (behavioural and attributional) and inspirational motivation. First, leaders’ justification of the importance of the mission by appealing values that distinguish right from wrong overlaps with attributional idealised influence. Second, leaders’ symbolic communication to make the message clear and vivid and enhance a sense of collective belonging overlaps with behavioural idealised influence. Finally, leader’s demonstration of conviction and passion for the mission overlaps with inspirational motivation (Banks et al., 2017).

This study follows this last approach, and it is considered that the combination of behavioural and attributional idealised influence and inspirational motivation captures the most relevant descriptive features of charismatic leaders. This approach, with the feature characteristics that define the three components of charisma, also goes in line with more recent definitions such as the one proposed by Hall and Grant (2018), who define charismatic leadership as one “distinguished by high levels of expressiveness, self-confidence, moral conviction and emotional resonance” (p. 230). This approach also fits the definition recently proposed by Le Blanc et al. (2021), which is the one that was adopted for the present study. Specifically, “Charismatic leaders are characterised by articulating and communicating a visionary mission, instilling hope and optimism, displaying confidence in followers, setting high expectations, and showing confidence that these expectations can be achieved” (pp. 334-335). I also share the view of Conger and Kanungo (1987) followed by other scholars (Bligh et al., 2018; Ito et al., 2020; Uhl Bien et al., 2014; Yulk, 1999) that charismatic leadership is the result of an attribution based on followers’ perceptions of leaders’ behaviour. Thus, the degree to which leaders are perceived as showing the behaviours captured in our definition of charismatic leadership should be assessed by followers.

1.4 CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP AS A MULTI-LEVEL PHENOMENON

Over the years, more researchers have come to realise that many organisational phenomena, such as communication, organisational culture, and performance, are inherently multilevel, rather than occurring at a single level or in a level vacuum (Klein et al., 1995; Rousseau, 1985). This recognition of the multilevel nature of many organisational phenomena represents an important shift in the field of organisational research and has important implications for both theory and practice. This initiative has been driven in part by advances in statistical techniques that allow for the analysis of data from multiple levels

simultaneously, as well as by a growing awareness of the complexity of organisational systems (Klein & Kozlowski, 2000). Ignoring potential levels can lead to incomplete or inaccurate conclusions about the factors that affect organisational behaviour.

As many other work and organisational phenomena, charismatic leadership can be considered a multilevel phenomenon that have effects at different levels: individual, group, and organisational (Klein & House, 1995). Charismatic leaders can have an impact on inspiring individual followers. But given social interaction process with the followers and among the followers, leaders can inspire groups of followers such as teams. Finally, charismatic leadership can influence the broader culture of the organisation and impact its overall success (Klein & House, 1995). When the focus is on a key variable in work and organisational contexts, such as performance, meta-analytical research has shown that different dimensions of charismatic leadership can predict important outcomes such as supervisor-rated task performance, citizenship behaviours, and overall group or organisation performance (Banks et al., 2017).

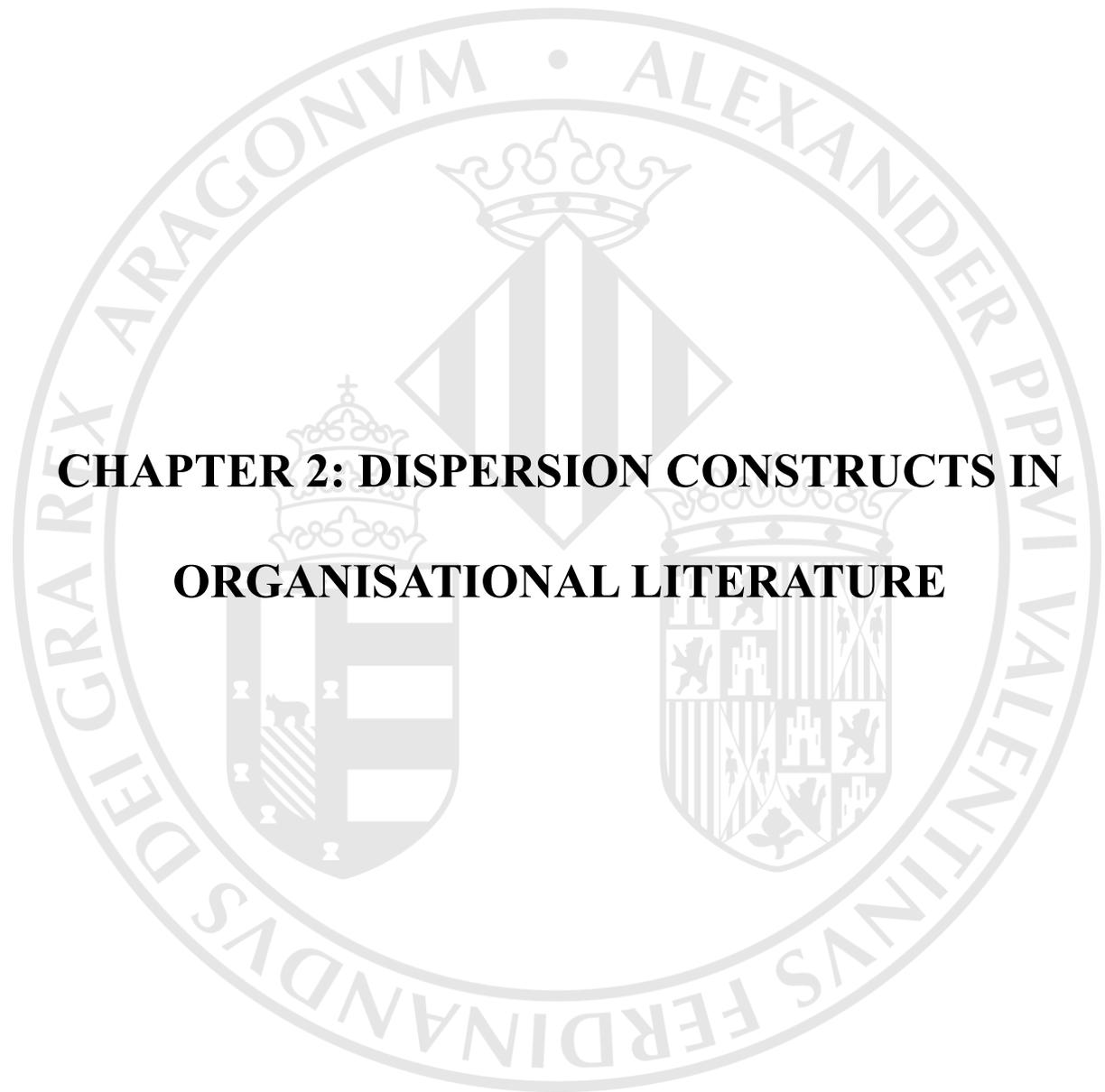
The study of leadership at the team level is particularly relevant in today's organisations, which often organise work around teams. In fact, teams have become a central unit of analysis in organisational research and practice, and understanding the dynamics of leadership within teams is critical for effective team functioning and performance (Pearce & Herbik, 2004). This is why the current study focuses on teams and a key team process such as intra-team communication quality.

Apart from the relationship between charismatic leadership and team performance (Avolio & Yammarino, 2013; Banks et al., 2017; Nassif et al., 2021), research has shown that leadership can have a significant impact on other team processes and outcomes, including communication (Boies et al., 2015), team cohesion (Callow et al., 2009), decision-making

(Vroom & Yetton, 1973), OCB (Jiao et al., 2011) and job satisfaction (Belias & Koustelios, 2014). Moreover, team-level leadership has shown to produce different effects on outcomes than individual-level leadership (Pearce & Herbig, 2004; Biemann et al., 2015), justifying the significance of examining leadership at the team level.

Practically speaking, organisations can benefit from understanding how leadership operates at the team level and from developing strategies for cultivating effective team leadership. This might involve providing leadership development opportunities for team leaders, creating a supportive team culture that values leadership, and providing resources and support to enable effective team leadership. By investing in team-level leadership development, organisations can enhance team performance and contribute to overall organisational success.

Considering the conceptualization of charismatic leadership as an attribution based on followers' perceptions of leaders' behaviour, and considering that this study focuses on teams, it is important to consider not only the aggregate perceptions of team members regarding their leaders' charisma, but also the degree to which team members share these perceptions. Because the attributions depend not only on leaders' behaviours but also on followers' values and beliefs (Yukl, 2010), in the next chapter it will be argued that it is necessary to bring a dispersion construct (i.e., the homogeneity in perceptions of leaders' charisma among team members) to the picture.



**CHAPTER 2: DISPERSION CONSTRUCTS IN
ORGANISATIONAL LITERATURE**

2.1 THE IMPORTANCE OF DISPERSION CONSTRUCTS IN ORGANISATIONS

While dispersion constructs have gained attention in recent years, they are still relatively rare within the organisational literature. This may be because dispersion was traditionally seen as a disadvantage for organisations, rather than an opportunity. However, with the increasing globalisation of business as well as advanced statistical tools and methods, researchers and practitioners are recognising the need to understand how to effectively manage dispersion constructs in teams (Brown & Kozlovski 1997).

Despite the relative rarity of dispersion constructs, research has shown that dispersion can have a significant impact on team performance and effectiveness. For example, within-team differences in culture and communication styles, can lead to misunderstandings and conflict (Brown & Kozlovski, 1997).

When conducting team-level research, researchers would often gather individual-level data and then aggregate them to the team level to measure group level constructs. In such cases, within-group agreement is a precondition for aggregation at the team level and operationalise a shared construct. Within-group agreement refers to the degree to which individuals within a group agree on their perceptions of a particular construct or phenomenon and has been studied to some extent in the organisational literature (e.g. climate strength - Schneider et al., 2002). In fact, within-group (dis)agreement can provide valuable insights into the dynamics and outcomes of groups in organisational settings (Newman & Sin, 2020).

Within-group agreement is also relevant for understanding and assessing the reliability and validity of group-level measures. Reliability refers to the consistency or stability of a measure over time or across different samples, while validity refers to the degree to which a measure actually measures what it is intended to measure (James et al., 1984; Kozlovski & Hatrup, 1992). High within-group agreement suggests that a measure is more

reliable because it reflects a shared perception or characteristic of the group, rather than individual idiosyncrasies. High within-group agreement also suggests that a measure is more valid because it reflects a meaningful characteristic of the group that is likely to have an impact on group-level outcomes (James et al., 1984; Kozlowski & Hattrup, 1992).

Studies have shown that within-group agreement is related to group-level outcomes such as cohesion, performance, and satisfaction. For example, Klein and colleagues (2001) found that group member social interaction and work independence were significantly positively related to within-group agreement regarding perceptions of the work environment.

It is important to use appropriate measures and methods that are sensitive to the unique characteristics and contexts of the groups being studied. Researchers have developed various statistical techniques for estimating within-group agreement, such as intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC), which estimates the correlation between the ratings of two team members about a specific team property (the ICC also shows the proportion of variance that is due to between-group differences), the within-team agreement index, r_{wg} , and the Average Deviation Index -ADI- (Burke et al., 1999; Chan, 1998; James et al., 1984; LeBreton & Senter, 2008). These techniques can help researchers assess the extent to which a construct is a shared perception among group members and can adjust their analyses and interpretations accordingly.

However, it is important to note that within-group agreement can be used as an indicator of within-team dispersion that has scientific interest per se, and not as a precondition for aggregation, especially in cases where group members have diverse perspectives or experiences (Chan, 1998).

2.2 OPERATIONALISING DISPERSION CONSTRUCTS

Operationalising dispersion constructs involves defining and measuring variables that describe the variability or spread of a set of data. As mentioned above, dispersion constructs provide information about how individual scores are distributed around a central tendency measure, such as the mean or median.

There are several ways to operationalise dispersion constructs, including the range (this is the simplest measure of dispersion and is defined as the difference between the maximum and minimum values in a dataset), the variance, the standard deviation, and interquartile range¹. Other measures of dispersion include the mean absolute deviation (average deviation index), r_{wg} , the coefficient of variation, and, in economics, the Gini coefficient. Each of these measures has its own strengths and weaknesses and should be chosen based on the characteristics of the data being analysed (Gastwirth, 1972; Neyman, 1992; Wilcox, 2012).

When operationalising dispersion constructs, it is important to consider the characteristics of the data being measured and choose a measure of dispersion that is appropriate for the data's distribution and scale. Some characteristics of the data that are relevant in this regard are the following:

- Symmetry of the distribution: If the distribution of data is roughly symmetric (i.e., the data are distributed equally on both sides of the mean), then measures of dispersion such as the standard deviation, variance, and coefficient of variation are appropriate.

¹ The interquartile range (IQR) is a measure of dispersion that divides the dataset into quarters and calculates the range of values in the middle 50% of the data. It is less sensitive to outliers than the range and is particularly useful for datasets with non-normal distributions.

- Skewness of the distribution: If the distribution of data is skewed (i.e., the data are not equally distributed on both sides of the mean), then measures of dispersion such as the median (instead of the mean) absolute deviation, the interquartile range, and the range may be more appropriate.

- Scale of the data: The scale of the data can also influence the choice of measure of dispersion. If the data are measured on a quantitative scale ratio scale (e.g. weight, length, time) or interval scale (e.g. temperature, or total test scores that are treated as quantitative variables), then measures of dispersion such as the range, the mean absolute deviation, the variance, and the standard deviation are appropriate. If the data are measured on an ordinal scale, then measures of dispersion such as the interquartile range or the median (instead of the mean) absolute deviation may be more appropriate.

- Outliers: The presence of outliers can also affect the choice of measure of dispersion. If there are outliers in the data, then measures of dispersion such as the range, interquartile range, and median absolute deviation may be more robust than measures such as the variance and standard deviation (Stevens, 2012; Hair et al., 2013).

Additionally, it is important to clearly define and report the measure of dispersion used to ensure that the results are understood and interpreted accurately. When reporting a measure of dispersion, it is important to clearly state which measure was used. Measures of dispersion have to be defined in a way that is clear and understandable, followed with a brief explanation of what the measure means and how it was calculated. In addition to stating which measure of dispersion was used, a report of the actual value of the measure needs to be added in the same units as the data. This allows others to understand the magnitude of the dispersion. Finally, providing an interpretation of the measure of dispersion in the context of the analysis is necessary. For example, if the standard deviation was large, one could state

that the data were highly dispersed and that there was a lot of variability in the data (Fidler, 2010; Rubin & Babbie, 2016).

2.3 TEAM CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP PERCEPTIONS AS A DISPERSION CONSTRUCT

As it was previously mentioned, charismatic leadership can be seen as the result of an attribution based on followers' perceptions of leaders' behaviour (Ito et al., 2020; Bligh et al., 2018; Uhl Bien et al., 2014). Team charismatic leadership perceptions can be operationalised as a dispersion construct if we consider the extent to which individual team members' perceptions of charismatic leadership are different and show variability. This can be measured using a measure of dispersion such as the standard deviation or variance of individual team members' ratings of the team leader's charismatic leadership (Harrison & Klien, 2007), following a dispersion composition model (Chan, 1998). This practice yields an indicator of a dispersion construct (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000). For example, when a team consists of five members and each member rates the team leader's charismatic leadership on a questionnaire which total score ranges from 1 to 5, the standard deviation of these ratings can be calculated to measure the dispersion (or its opposite, homogeneity) of team members' perceptions. If the standard deviation is high, it would indicate that the team members' perceptions of the leader's charismatic leadership are widely dispersed, with some team members perceiving the leader as highly charismatic and others perceiving the leader as not charismatic. This measure of dispersion can be useful in understanding how the team members perceive their leader's charismatic leadership and whether there is divergence in these perceptions.

As leaders' charisma is based on followers' perceptions, it is reasonable to expect some heterogeneity or variability in these perceptions (Antonakis, 2012; Biemann et al., 2012; Harrison & Klien, 2007; Lindell & Brant, 2000). This is because charisma is a subjective

quality that is based on followers' perceptions of a leader's personality, behaviour, and actions. Different followers may have different perceptions of a leader's charisma based on their own experiences, values, and expectations. Moreover, followers may differ in their susceptibility to a leader's charisma. Some followers may be more susceptible to a leader's charismatic influence, while others may be less susceptible. This may result in different perceptions of the leader's charisma within a team or organisation (Klein & House, 1995; Conger & Kanungo, 1998).

Yammarino and Bass (1990) found that different followers may have different perceptions of a leader's transformational leadership, which includes charismatic leadership. They argue that this heterogeneity in perceptions can be explained by followers' individual differences, such as their needs, values, and experiences (Yammarino & Bass, 1990).

Shamir et al., (1993) proposed a self-concept-based theory of charismatic leadership, which argues that followers' perceptions of a leader's charisma are influenced by their own self-concepts. They suggest that different followers may have different self-concepts, which can affect their perceptions of a leader's charisma and their reactions to the leader's influence, supporting the idea of within-team variability in attributions of leader's charisma.

Overall, previous studies, however limited, have supported the assertion that it is reasonable to expect some heterogeneity in followers' perceptions of a leader's charisma.

Indeed, different scholars have recommended that, when studying aggregate constructs based on team members' perceptions, such as charismatic leadership, both the arithmetic mean (an indicator of a shared construct) and the within-team variability (an indicator of a dispersion construct) should be modelled (Chen et al., 2005; Klein et al., 2001; Lindell & Brant, 2000).

For example, Klein et al. (2001) studied the relationship between transformational leadership, which includes charismatic leadership, and team climate. They found that both the mean and variability of transformational leadership within teams were related to team climate. They argued that modelling the variability of transformational leadership within teams provided important information about the degree of agreement among team members regarding the leader's transformational leadership style and its potential consequences (Klein et al., 2001).

In this study, both the arithmetic mean (an indicator of a shared construct) and the within-team variability of charismatic leadership perceptions are modelled to analyse their relationship with intrateam communication quality and team performance.

Shared constructs (such as team members' average perceptions of charismatic leadership, henceforth APCL) reflect the elements (e.g. charismatic leadership perceptions) that are common to, or shared by, team members. In contrast, dispersion constructs (such as homogeneity in perceptions of charismatic leadership, henceforth HPCL) reflect within-team differences in these elements. Thus, APCL, as a shared construct, and HPCL, as a dispersion construct, are qualitatively distinct and operationalised differently.

APCL is typically operationalised as the mean or average score of team members' perceptions of charismatic leadership. This score represents the overall level of charismatic leadership perceived by the team as a whole. APCL is a measure of the central tendency of team members' perceptions, reflecting the shared understanding of charismatic leadership within the team.

On the other hand, HPCL is operationalised as a measure of the variability or dispersion of team members' perceptions of charismatic leadership. This measure reflects the degree to which team members' perceptions of charismatic leadership are similar from each other.

HPCL is a measure of the homogeneity (heterogeneity) of team members' perceptions, reflecting the similarity (diversity) of perspectives within the team.

Surprisingly, despite these differences and the recommendation mentioned above, research has previously typically ignored the role played by HPCL in predicting key organisational outcomes, such as team performance, and the potential underlying mechanisms (i.e., mediators) that explain this relationship. The omission of dispersion constructs, such as HPCL, in predicting key organisational outcomes and exploring the underlying mechanisms is intriguing given the potential insights these constructs can provide.

Previous research has, however, shown that dispersion constructs in leadership, such as leader-member exchange (LMX) differentiation, can enhance our understanding of the team leadership-team outcome relationship. For example, González-Romá (2016) suggested that LMX differentiation, which measures the extent to which different team members have different levels of exchange relationships with the leader, was a predictor of team outcomes, such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment, even after controlling for average LMX quality. Similarly, Le Blanc and González-Romá (2012) found that LMX differentiation was a significant moderator of the relationship between leadership and team outcomes, such as job satisfaction and team performance.

These findings suggest that dispersion constructs, such as HPCL, can provide unique insights into the team dynamics and can help explain the underlying mechanisms that drive the relationship between team processes and outcomes. Therefore, it is important to incorporate dispersion constructs into research on the relationship between leadership constructs team processes and outcomes to develop a more comprehensive understanding of team functioning.

Theoretically, addressing this omission can give us a more comprehensive understanding of the role charismatic leadership plays in the functioning and outcomes of teams because it can uncover HPCL as a facet of charismatic leadership with specific influences beyond those of average charismatic leadership. Moreover, from a practical perspective, if HPCL is a relevant factor in team functioning, strategies to promote it can be suggested to team managers.



**CHAPTER 3: INTRA-TEAM COMMUNICATION
QUALITY**

The mechanisms through which perceptions of charisma influence team performance are complex and multifaceted, and further research is needed to fully understand these effects (Lowe et al., 1996). Many researchers have called for further investigation into the specific mechanisms through which charismatic leadership influences team performance (Antonakis et al. 2016; Yammarino et al., 2004).

For example, in their review of research on charismatic leadership, Avolio and Yammarino (2013) pointed out that further research is needed to explore how charismatic leaders are able to articulate a compelling vision and inspire their team members to increase team performance (Avolio & Yammarino, 2013) and suggested that communication strategies may play a role. Similarly, Barsade and colleagues (2000) review of research on the role of emotions in leadership concluded that further research is needed to understand how charismatic leaders can evoke strong emotions in their team members (Barsade, 2000), emotions that are one of the important drivers of performance (e.g. Sabourin, 2015).

Following these and other authors' calls for more knowledge about the mechanisms through which perceptions of charisma influence team performance (Antonakis et al. 2016; Yammarino et al., 2004), this dissertation incorporates intra-team communication quality as an important mediating team process. The focus is on intra-team communication quality because, as it will be explained later, it is a key team process for team performance (González-Romá & Hernández, 2014; Kozlowski & Bell, 2003) that may be enacted by charismatic leadership (Barsade et al., 2000).

3.1 THE IMPORTANCE OF INTRA-TEAM COMMUNICATION QUALITY

Communication quality is the extent to which communication among team members is clear, effective, complete, fluent, and on time (González-Romá & Hernández, 2014). High-

quality intra-team communication is essential for successful collaboration, decision-making, and goal achievement (Gluyas, 2015; Paris et al., 2000; Marlow, 2018).

Several studies have highlighted the importance of high intra-team communication quality for different indicators of team performance and effectiveness. For example, a study by West and colleagues (2014) found that communication quality was positively related to team performance in healthcare teams. This study also found that the ability to share information openly, the use of effective feedback, and the ability to manage conflict constructively were critical factors in promoting communication quality in healthcare teams (West et al., 2014).

A study by Kim and colleagues (2012) found that effective intra-team communication was positively related to team creativity and innovation in technology teams. The study also found that the ability to give and receive feedback constructively, the use of open communication, and the ability to manage conflict constructively were critical factors in promoting intra-team communication quality in teams (Kim et al., 2012). O'Neil and colleagues (2018) found that communication quality between supervisors and subordinates was positively related to job satisfaction and work performance.

The importance of communication quality for team functioning and outcomes is based on the idea that intra-team communication “serves as a support mechanism for other team processes, such as team members’ coordination, decision making, problem solving, and team monitoring” (González-Romá & Hernández, 2014, pp. 1045-1046). Communication quality facilitates the exchange of information, ideas, and feedback between team members, which can ultimately influence team performance, collaboration, and decision-making.

High-quality communication can enhance collaboration among team members by promoting mutual understanding, trust, and respect. When team members communicate

clearly and openly, they are more likely to work together effectively and efficiently, share ideas, and resolve conflicts. In their study, Salas et al., (2005) found that communication was one of the key factors that influenced collaboration and team effectiveness. They noted that clear and open communication was essential for promoting mutual understanding, trust, and respect among team members. The authors also highlighted the importance of high-quality communication in helping team members work together effectively and efficiently, share ideas, and resolve conflicts (Salas et al., 2005).

Communication is also essential for effective decision-making in teams. When team members can communicate their perspectives and opinions openly and honestly, they can consider a wider range of options and make more informed decisions. High-quality communication also helps to ensure that team members are aligned in their goals and priorities, which can lead to better decision-making outcomes. Stasser and Titus (1985) found that high-quality communication was essential for ensuring that team members considered a wide range of options when making decisions. They noted that when team members were able to communicate their perspectives and opinions openly and honestly, they were more likely to share information that was not already known to the group. This, in turn, led to more informed decision-making outcomes (Stasser & Titus, 1985). These authors also highlighted the importance of high-quality communication in ensuring that team members were aligned in their goals and priorities. By communicating openly and honestly, team members were better able to understand each other's perspectives and priorities, which helped to ensure that decisions were made with the broader goals of the team in mind.

Innovation is also fostered by high-quality communication, by encouraging the exchange of new ideas and perspectives within teams. Carmeli and Schaubroeck (2007) found that high-quality communication played a critical role in fostering innovation within

teams. Specifically, they noted that when team members communicated openly and shared their unique perspectives, they were better able to spark creativity and generate new solutions to complex problems. These authors also highlighted the importance of effective communication in promoting a culture of innovation within teams. Carmeli and Schaubroeck (2007) noted that high-quality communication was particularly important in promoting innovation when leaders and other referents communicated normative expectations that supported creativity and innovation. When team members felt that their ideas and perspectives were valued and encouraged, they were more likely to share their ideas and take risks, which helped to foster innovation within the team (Carmeli & Schaubroeck, 2007).

High-quality communication can build trust and cohesion within teams by creating a shared sense of purpose and a feeling of connection among team members. Dirks and Ferrin (2002) found that effective communication was one of the key factors that influenced trust in leadership. They noted that when leaders communicated regularly and clearly, they were able to build stronger relationships with their team members, which helped to foster trust and cohesion within the team. These authors also highlighted the importance of high-quality communication in creating a shared sense of purpose and a feeling of connection among team members. They also noted that effective communication was particularly important in building trust and cohesion when team members had different backgrounds, perspectives, and experiences. By communicating regularly and clearly, team members were able to develop a deeper understanding of each other's strengths and weaknesses, which helped to create a more cohesive and effective team (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002).

3.2 THE IMPORTANCE OF INTRA-TEAM COMMUNICATION QUALITY: A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

The importance of intra-team communication quality is also supported by a historical perspective. It was documented early in the 20th century by the Hawthorne Studies conducted in the 1920s and 1930s, in which a series of experiments that focused on the effects of social and environmental factors on worker productivity were carried out. These studies found that, alongside other social and psychological factors, communication and social relationships played a significant role in team performance (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939).

In the 1940s and 1950s, researchers like Kurt Lewin and Alex Bavelas conducted studies on the effects of communication patterns on group productivity and performance. They found that high-quality communication was crucial for team success, and that communication patterns played a significant role in shaping group dynamics (Lewin, 1947; Baveals, 1950).

Kurt Lewin was a social psychologist who is widely considered one of the founding fathers of group dynamics. He conducted studies on group communication patterns and their effects on group decision-making and problem-solving. Lewin found that effective communication patterns, such as open communication and active listening, were associated with higher levels of group productivity and performance (Marrow, 1969).

Alex Bavelas was another pioneering researcher in the field of group communication. He conducted studies on the effects of communication networks on group productivity and found that communication networks with high levels of interconnectedness and multiple channels of communication were associated with better group performance (Baveals, 1950).

Both researchers showed that communication patterns and networks play a critical role in shaping group dynamics and influencing group outcomes. Their findings laid the groundwork for subsequent research on team communication and provided important insights into the factors that contribute to effective teamwork.

In the 1950s and 1960s, systems theory emerged as a dominant approach to studying team communication. Systems theory emphasised the importance of understanding how communication patterns and structures influenced team dynamics and performance. The theory holds that teams and organisations are complex systems that are made up of interrelated parts that influence each other. According to systems theory, high-quality team communication involves understanding the ways in which communication patterns and structures influence team dynamics and performance. Communication patterns refer to the ways in which team members interact with each other and how information is exchanged within the team. Communication structures refer to the formal and informal channels of communication that exist within the team and the organisation.

Systems theory also emphasises the importance of feedback in team communication. Feedback refers to the information that team members receive about their performance and the impact of their behaviour on others. Effective feedback is essential for improving team communication and performance. In addition, systems theory highlights the importance of understanding the broader organisational context in which teams operate. Organisations are complex systems that are influenced by a range of internal and external factors, and teams must navigate these factors in order to achieve their goals. Overall, systems theory has advanced the understanding of how communication patterns and structures influence team dynamics and performance. It has also highlighted the importance of considering the broader organisational context in which teams operate (Katz & Kahn, 1978).

Communication was further recognised as a crucial factor in the theories of group dynamics developed in the 1960s and 1970s. Researchers like Tuckman and Hackman emphasised the importance of high-quality communication as a means of building trust and collaboration within teams.

Bruce Tuckman is well known for his theory of group development, which he introduced in 1965. According to Tuckman's theory, there are four stages of group development: forming, storming, norming, and performing. During the forming stage, group members get to know each other and establish ground rules. During the storming stage, conflicts and disagreements may arise as group members compete for influence and status. During the norming stage, the group begins to establish norms and values, and cohesion begins to develop. Finally, during the performing stage, the group is able to work together effectively to achieve its goals. In Tuckman's theory, communication plays a key role in helping group members get to know each other and establish ground rules during the forming stage. High-quality communication is also important during the storming stage, as conflicts and disagreements may arise that need to be resolved through dialogue and negotiation. During the norming and performing stages, communication helps to ensure that group members are aligned around common goals and objectives, and that everyone is working together effectively to achieve them (Tuckman, 1965).

Hackman also emphasised the importance of communication in his work on team effectiveness. He argued that clear and open communication was essential for building trust and collaboration within teams. He also noted that high-quality communication helped to ensure that everyone on the team had a shared understanding of the goals and objectives they were working towards, and that everyone was aware of their roles and responsibilities (Hackman, 1987).

Overall, the theories of group dynamics developed in the 1960s and 1970s underscored the importance of communication as a means of building trust, collaboration, and effective teamwork. These ideas continue to be influential today in the fields of organisational behaviour, management, and leadership (Ilgen et al., 2005; Schein, 2010).

Further, in the 1980s and 1990s, cognitive science researchers began to focus on the cognitive processes involved in team communication, such as decision-making and problem-solving. They found that high-quality communication was crucial for successful team outcomes (Cannon-Bowers & Salas, 1998; Klein et al., 1995; Salas et al., 2004). High-quality communication helped teams to identify problems, generate and evaluate possible solutions, and make decisions that were consistent with their goals and objectives. In addition, high-quality communication helped team members to monitor and adjust their behaviours, so that they could work together more effectively (Salas et al., 2004).

Some cognitive science researchers also studied the effects of different communication strategies on team performance. For example, Fussell and Krauss (1989) found that teams that used more explicit and structured communication were more successful than teams that relied on implicit or unstructured communication. Specifically, teams that made assumptions about what those who they were communicating with knew without checking were less successful than teams that checked explicitly. Moreover, teams that had well-defined roles and responsibilities, and clear channels of communication, were more successful than teams that did not (Fussell & Krauss, 1992).

Edmondson (1999) in his study on psychological safety and learning behaviour in work teams examined the effects of communication strategies on team performance in the context of work teams. She found that teams that used more explicit and structured communication were more successful than teams that relied on implicit or unstructured

communication. Specifically, teams that created a "psychologically safe" environment in which members felt comfortable speaking up and questioning assumptions were more successful than teams that did not (Edmondson, 1999).

Fast forward to the 21st century, with the advent of the internet and digital communication technologies, researchers began to study the unique challenges and opportunities of virtual teams. They found that high-quality communication and collaboration were essential for virtual team success. For example, Hertel and colleagues (2005) in their article "Managing virtual teams: A review of current empirical research" provide an overview of research on virtual teams and emphasise the importance of high-quality communication and collaboration for virtual team success. The authors note that virtual teams face unique challenges related to communication, such as the lack of face-to-face interaction, which can make it difficult to build trust and establish a shared understanding of goals and objectives. They argue that virtual teams can benefit from the use of communication technologies that support these processes, such as video conferencing, email, and instant messaging. The authors also note that effective collaboration is essential for virtual team success, and that virtual teams can benefit from the use of collaboration technologies that facilitate knowledge sharing and coordination of work (Hertel et al., 2005).

Gibson and Gibbs (2006) examined the factors that contribute to virtual team innovation, including the role of communication and collaboration. The authors found that virtual teams that had high levels of communication and collaboration were more innovative than teams that did not (Gibson & Gibbs, 2006).

Overall, we see that new communication technologies drive new research on high-quality communication. While the importance of team communication quality has been well-documented for a century, there is still much to investigate in terms of how it interacts with

other variables in organisational research. Examining these interactions can help researchers to develop a more nuanced understanding of the role of team communication quality in team functioning and outcomes.

3.3 COMMUNICATION QUANTITY VS COMMUNICATION QUALITY

Communication quantity refers to the amount or volume of communication, while broadly speaking communication quality refers to the effectiveness and impact of communication. In other words, communication quantity is about how much we communicate, while communication quality is about how well we communicate (Thomas et al., 2009).

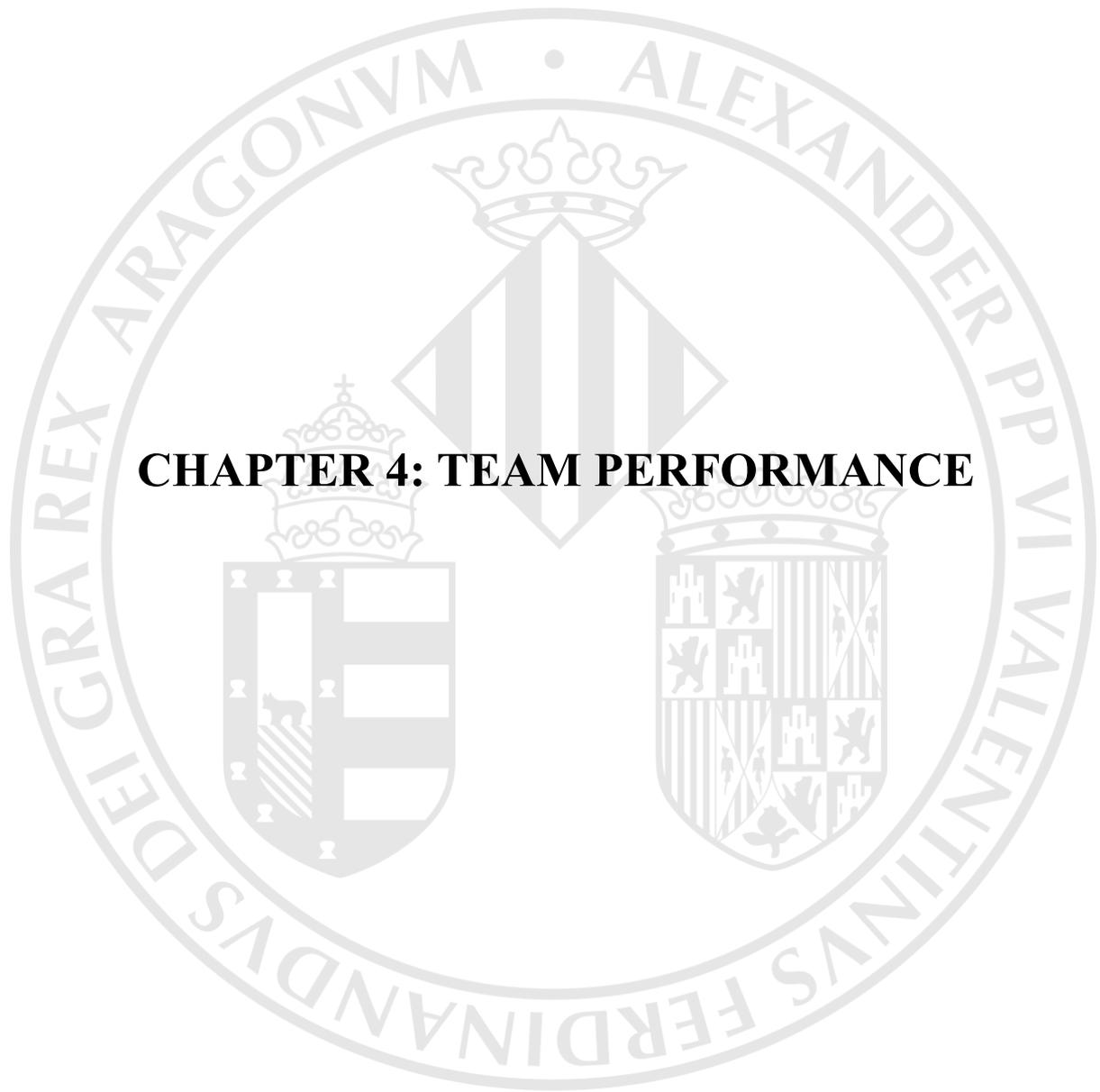
Communication quantity can be measured in terms of the frequency, duration, and volume of communication. For example, if two people communicate often, talk for long periods of time, or exchange a large number of messages, they have a high quantity of communication. On the other hand, communication quality is more subjective and can be measured in terms of how clear, concise, and relevant the message is, as well as how well it is understood by the receiver.

While both communication quantity and quality are important, quality is generally considered to be more important than quantity. Effective communication requires both parties to be able to understand and interpret each other's messages accurately, and this is more likely to happen when the focus is on quality rather than quantity. In fact employees can sometimes feel overloaded with communications, and have negative consequences (e.g. Barret et al. 2022).

When team communication quality is high, team members are more likely to understand each other's perspectives, goals, and expectations, which reduces the need for

excessive communication. This can free up cognitive resources that team members can then use to focus on the task at hand, leading to better performance (MacMillan et al., 2004).

MacMillan et al. (2004) conducted a study on the relationship between team communication and performance in a healthcare setting. They found that teams with high communication quality were able to complete tasks more efficiently and effectively, and that this effect was mediated by the reduction of communication quantity. The authors suggest that high-quality communication can reduce the need for excessive communication by providing team members with a shared understanding of the task at hand, the roles and responsibilities of team members, and the context in which the task is being performed. This shared understanding can then enable team members to coordinate their efforts more effectively and reduce the need for frequent check-ins and updates. Therefore, this study provides support for the idea that communication quality can have a significant impact on team performance, whereas reducing the need for communication quantity. This is one of the reasons why intra-team communication quality (and not quantity) as an important mediating process to consider in our investigation was considered.



CHAPTER 4: TEAM PERFORMANCE

Team performance has been defined in several ways (e.g. Anderson et al., 2017; Breugh & Starke, 2000; Stufflebeam, 2000). In this dissertation it is defined as the quality of processes and behaviours oriented toward goal achievement (Motowidlo, 2003).

4.1 INDICATORS OF TEAM PERFORMANCE

There is no exclusive list of team performance indicators. In their book "Team Performance Assessment and Measurement: Theory, Methods, and Applications", Brannick, Salas, and Prince provide a comprehensive overview of team performance assessments and measurements. The authors suggest that there is no single set of key performance indicators (KPIs) that are universally applicable to all teams, as different teams may have different goals, objectives, and contexts. However, the authors identify several categories of KPIs that are commonly used in team performance assessment, including inputs, processes, outputs, and outcomes.

Inputs refer to the resources that are available to the team, including the knowledge, skills, and abilities of team members, as well as the tools, equipment, and funding that the team has access to. Measuring inputs can help assess whether the team has the necessary resources to perform well. Examples of input performance indicators include the level of training and experience of team members, the availability of necessary equipment and resources, and the level of funding or budget allocated to the team.

Processes refer to the actions and behaviours of team members, including how they communicate, collaborate, and make decisions. Measuring processes can help assess whether the team is functioning effectively and efficiently. Examples of process performance indicators include the frequency and quality of communication among team members, the level of coordination and cooperation, and the extent to which team members are involved in decision-making.

Outputs refer to the tangible results or deliverables that the team produces, such as products, services, or solutions. Measuring outputs can help assess whether the team is meeting its goals and objectives. Examples of output performance indicators include the quantity and quality of the team's products or services, the level of customer satisfaction, and the extent to which the team is meeting project deadlines.

Outcomes refer to the broader impacts or effects of the team's performance, such as its impact on the organisation, the community, or the environment. Measuring outcomes can help assess whether the team is achieving its intended impact. Examples of outcome performance indicators include the team's contribution to the overall performance of the organisation, the level of social or environmental benefits that the team is achieving, and the long-term impact of the team's work on stakeholders.

It is important to note that each of these categories of performance indicators is interrelated and can impact the others. For example, a team with strong input indicators (such as highly skilled team members and adequate resources) may be better able to achieve strong process, output, and outcome indicators. Additionally, the specific performance indicators that are most relevant will depend on the goals and objectives of the team and the context in which they are working.

Within each of these categories there are specific KPIs that can be used to assess team performance, such as task completion time, error rates, information sharing, and team cohesion. It is important to select KPIs that are relevant to the team's goals and objectives, and that can be measured reliably and validly (Brannick et al., 1997).

Team performance can be greatly improved by utilising a diverse range of performance measures. This is because having a variety of measurement tools is essential for capturing the various relevant aspects of the task that the team is working on. In order for

teams to achieve success, performance measurement is essential and should be included as a fundamental aspect of the information provided to them. This is particularly important because performance measurement facilitates rewards for team performance.

Having said all the above, some of the most commonly used team performance indicators in organisational assessments and appraisals are quantity of work, quality of work, timelines, customer satisfaction, and innovation.

Quantity of work is a commonly cited team performance indicator that refers to the amount of work or output produced by the team within a given timeframe. This indicator can be used to measure the team's productivity and efficiency (Pinto & Slevin 1988).

Quality of work is another commonly cited team performance indicator that refers to the level of excellence in the output or deliverables of the team. High-quality work can lead to improved customer satisfaction, increased productivity, and better organisational outcomes (Eisenbeiss et al., 2008).

Timeliness is an important team performance indicator that refers to the ability of the team to complete tasks within a specified timeframe. Meeting deadlines and completing tasks on time is crucial for team success and can impact overall project success (Cooke-Davies & Arzymanow, 2003; Frimpong & Oluwoye, 2003).

Customer satisfaction is an important team performance indicator that reflects the extent to which the team has met or exceeded the expectations of its customers. Satisfied customers can result in repeat business, positive word-of-mouth advertising, and increased revenue. Teams that focus on customer satisfaction can benefit from increased revenue, repeat business, and positive word-of-mouth advertising (Anderson et al., 1994).

Innovation is another team performance indicator that reflects the team's ability to generate and implement new ideas and solutions. Teams that focus on innovation can benefit from improved performance and a stronger competitive position in the market.

In the present dissertation, the quality of work performed by work teams is used as an indicator of team performance. There are a number of reasons for this choice. First, it is a global indicator of team performance that can be applied to different types of teams. Second, previous research has shown that it is related to expected antecedents, such as team processes, states, and perceptions (González-Romá & Hernández, 2014; Valls et al., 2016), which supports its validity. Third, it is easy to gather information about this indicator in samples of real work teams.

4.2 TEAM PERFORMANCE AND CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP

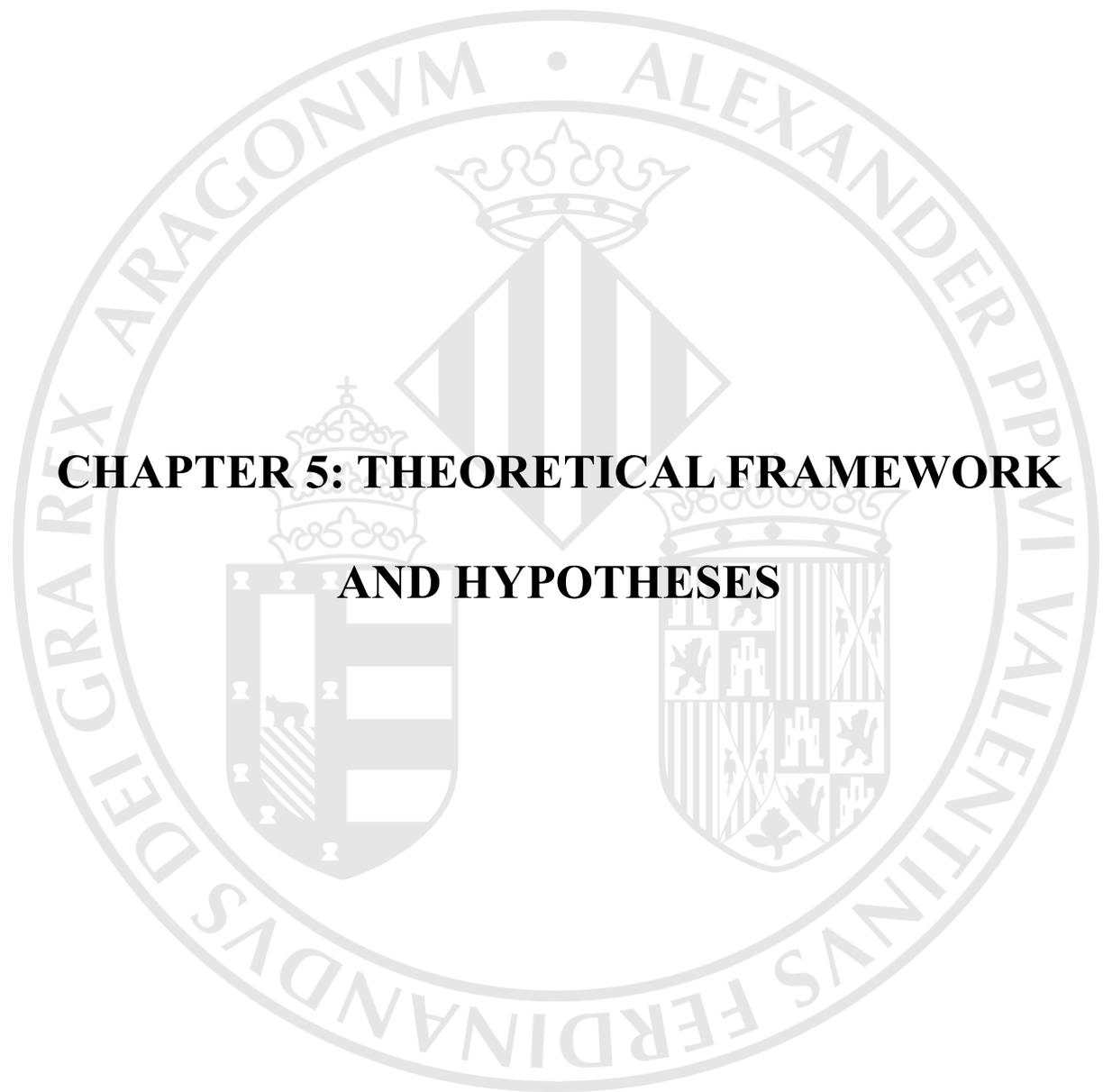
Different studies have shown that charisma can have a significant impact on team performance (House & Howell, 1992; Avolio & Yammarino, 2013; Yammarino et al., 2012; DeGroot et al., 2000).

As it was anticipated in Chapter 1, charisma is often considered a key characteristic of successful leaders, as it can help them to motivate and rally their team towards achieving common goals. Research has shown that charismatic leaders can have a significant impact on team performance with their ability to inspire and engage team members leading to improved productivity, creativity, and overall success (Avolio & Yammarino, 2013; Banks et al., 2017; Nassif et al., 2021).

A study conducted by House and Howell (1992) found that leaders who were rated as charismatic by their team members were more effective in achieving organisational goals and had higher levels of employee satisfaction. Similarly, in a meta-analysis of 45 studies, Lowe,

Kroeck, and Sivasubramaniam (1996) found that charismatic leadership was positively related to follower satisfaction, motivation, and performance. The authors also found that the positive effects of charisma on performance were stronger in situations where the task was complex or ambiguous, suggesting that charismatic leaders may be particularly effective in guiding their team through challenging and uncertain situations. In a similar line, the meta-analysis of Banks et al., (2017), in which 76 independent studies were analysed, found that charismatic leadership was positively related to group or firm performance.

However, as Antonakis et al. (2016) state in their review, we still do not know what mediating mechanisms transmit the influence of charismatic leadership on team performance. This state-of-the-art is problematic because it shows that we do not fully understand why charismatic leadership influences team performance. One of the goals of this dissertation is to shed some light on this issue considering the impact of both average perceptions of charismatic leadership and within-team homogeneity of those perceptions on team performance via intra-team communication quality.



**CHAPTER 5: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
AND HYPOTHESES**

5.1 AVERAGE PERCEPTIONS OF CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP AND TEAM PERFORMANCE: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF INTRA-TEAM COMMUNICATION QUALITY

It is proposed that APCL (average perceptions of charismatic leadership) is positively related to intra-team communication quality. Charismatic leaders have good communication skills (Tucker, 1968). In fact, expressive communication can be considered one of the key characteristics of charismatic leaders (Antonakis et al., 2016). They use their communication skills to inform team members about their vision of the team and the importance of its mission, as well as the actions in which team members should invest time and effort, and show confidence in team members' capabilities (Antonakis et al., 2016). Moreover, charismatic leaders use different communication techniques (e.g. verbal, non-verbal, and symbolic by means of metaphors) to communicate with their team members (Den Hartog & Verburg, 1997; Shamir et al., 1994). An empirical study conducted by de Vries et al. (2010) supported these ideas. They found that charismatic leadership is "to a considerable extent grounded in communication styles" (p. 376) and concluded that it is a communicative leadership style. Specifically, they observed that "charismatic leaders are characterised by an assured, supportive, argumentative, precise, and verbally non-aggressive communication style" (p. 376).

Because of their position and power, team leaders are important role models for team members. Based on social learning theory (Bandura, 1973), it is posited that, because charismatic leaders usually enact effective communication skills, techniques, and behaviours in their interactions with team members, the latter can learn and put them into practice. This will contribute to improving the quality of intra-team communication.

In addition, it is proposed that team communication quality is positively related to team performance. To function adequately, perform well, and achieve their team goals, “team members must effectively communicate with each other for multiple purposes, such as coordinating action, providing and receiving feedback, and solving team problems” (González-Romá & Hernández, 2014, p. 1047). Team communication also allows team members to obtain and share new information and knowledge about important team matters (e.g. work methods and resources) that can contribute to team performance (Mesmer-Magnus & DeChurch, 2009). All of this makes team communication a crucial process to achieve good performance (Salas et al., 2005). There is empirical evidence supporting the relationship between team communication and team performance. In their meta-analysis, Marlow et al. (2018) found a statistically significant positive correlation corrected for unreliability ($\rho = .36$).

Considering the arguments presented above, it is expected that the relationship between average perceptions of leaders’ charisma and team performance to be mediated by intra-team communication quality. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 1: Average team members’ perceptions of charismatic leadership (APCL) will have a positive indirect effect on team performance via intra-team communication quality. Specifically, APCL will be positively related to intra-team communication quality, which, in turn, will be positively related to team performance.

5.2 HOMOGENEITY IN PERCEPTIONS OF CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP AND TEAM PERFORMANCE: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF INTRA-TEAM COMMUNICATION QUALITY

As pointed out earlier, because charismatic leadership is based on followers’ attributions (Conger & Kanungo, 1987) (i.e., followers’ perceptions of their leaders), it is reasonable to

expect some heterogeneity in the way team members perceive their leader's charisma (Chen et al., 2013; Beimann et al., 2012; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Lindell & Brant, 2000).

Different followers may interpret their leaders' behaviour differently in different situations, thus bringing some heterogeneity to intra-team perceptions of leaders' charisma. This can occur for a variety of reasons. Employees may compare their leader's behaviour to their own idea of how an ideal leader should behave, and so their perception of their leader's behaviour would be filtered through this individual ideal (Foti et al., 2012). Likewise, leaders may find it challenging to demonstrate charismatic qualities to all the members of the team in the same way (Walter & Bruch, 2008), which may also produce discrepancies in team members' perceptions about their leaders' charisma. Because charismatic leadership is validated only by the perceptions of followers, within-team variations in these perceptions should not merely be considered error variance (Mathieu et al., 2008). Thus, research on charismatic leadership at the team level should also pay attention to dispersion-composition models that consider within-team variance in perceptions of charisma as a meaningful higher-level construct. Therefore, HPCL should also be considered when investigating charismatic leadership (Cole et al., 2010).

As mentioned in chapter 2, dispersion constructs are relatively rare in the leadership literature. However, recent findings have shown that dispersion constructs in leadership topics, such as Leader-Member-Exchange (LMX) differentiation (Boies & Howell, 2006; Le Blanc & González-Romá, 2012) and consensus (i.e. homogeneity) in perceptions of transformational leadership (Cole et al., 2011), can impact team performance through mechanisms such as team empowerment (Cole et al., 2011). These results support suggestions by Lindell and Brant (2000) that the absence of agreement among team members about leadership attributions can harm team processes such as team coordination and team

communication, which are expected to influence team outcomes such as performance (Bliese & Halverson, 1998).

In this dissertation, I argue that HPCL fosters intra-team communication quality. This relationship is based on the similarity-attraction theory (Byrne, 1971). This theory highlights the reinforcing value of perceptual similarity. When team members have similar perceptions about an important issue in their work (e.g. the team leader), the reinforcement of one member's views by other team members will have positive consequences because interactions with team members with similar views reinforce members' beliefs (Harrison & Klein, 2007). Thus, the degree to which team members have similar beliefs and views about their leaders may provide a solid basis for interpersonal attraction (Byrne, 1971; Williams & O'Reilly, 1998), which should facilitate intra-team communication quality (Liu et al., 2012). In contrast, experiences of dissimilarity have been shown to result in factionalism, message distortion, and other communication difficulties (Barnlund & Hariand, 1963; Triandis, 1960).

Taking all these arguments into consideration, I expect HPCL to be positively related to intra-team communication quality. In addition, considering the arguments and empirical evidence presented above supporting a positive relationship between intra-team communication quality and team performance, it is proposed that, when controlling for average perceptions of leaders' charisma, HPCL will have an indirect effect on team performance via intra-team communication quality. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 2. Team members' homogeneity in perceptions of charismatic leadership (HPCL) will have a positive indirect effect on team performance via intra-team communication quality. Specifically, HPCL will be positively related to intra-team communication quality, which, in turn, will be positively related to team performance.

5.3 THE MODERATOR ROLE OF HOMOGENEITY IN PERCEPTIONS OF CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP

Thus far, it has been argued that both average team members' perceptions of leaders' charisma and intra-team homogeneity in these perceptions will have an indirect effect on team performance via intra-team communication quality. Next, I posit that HPCL moderates the direct relationship between APCL and intra-team communication quality, and the indirect effect of the former variable on team performance via communication quality. The scant research on dispersion constructs in leadership research (e.g. Boies & Howell, 2006; Cole et al., 2011; González-Romá & Le Blanc, 2019; Le Blanc & González-Romá, 2012) has shown the value of modelling the moderator role of homogeneity in leadership perceptions in predicting important outcomes such as team performance, team potency, and commitment.

Focusing on charismatic leadership, Klein and House (1995) suggested that the relationship between charismatic leadership and team outcomes should be moderated by homogeneity in subordinates' perceptions of charismatic leadership. The moderator role of HPCL in the relationship between average perceptions of charismatic leadership and team communication quality can be justified as follows. Low homogeneity in charismatic leadership perceptions within a team may produce friction and tension among team members because they hold differing views about leader behaviour (Feinberg et al., 2005). Friction and tension within the team may hinder the role of a charismatic leader as a communicator role model because, in these circumstances, the social environment within the team is not appropriate for impacting the way team members communicate. This social environment may interfere with, and attenuate, the role modelling effect played by charismatic leaders' effective communication skills and behaviours that foster team communication quality. However, high homogeneity in charismatic leadership perceptions creates a positive social environment

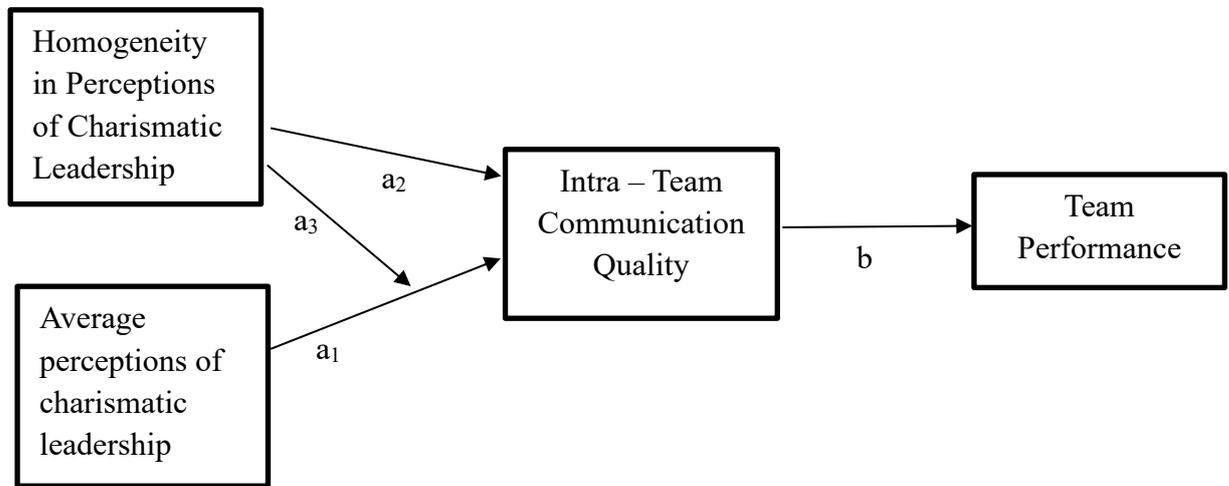
because “there is no need for team members to challenge other members’ leadership attributions because each of their positions is equivalent” (Cole et al., 2011, p. 385). Under these conditions, the outcomes associated with charismatic leadership are more predictable, and its influence is intensified (Cole et al, 2011; Feinberg et al., 2005; Mishel, 1973). Therefore, HPCL should moderate the relationship between average perceptions of charismatic leadership and team communication quality, so that when HPCL is high, the relationship is enhanced, whereas when HPCL is low, the relationship is weakened.

Considering this moderation effect along with Hypothesis 1, the strength of the positive indirect effect of APCL is expected to be conditional on HPCL. Thus, the following final hypothesis is proposed:

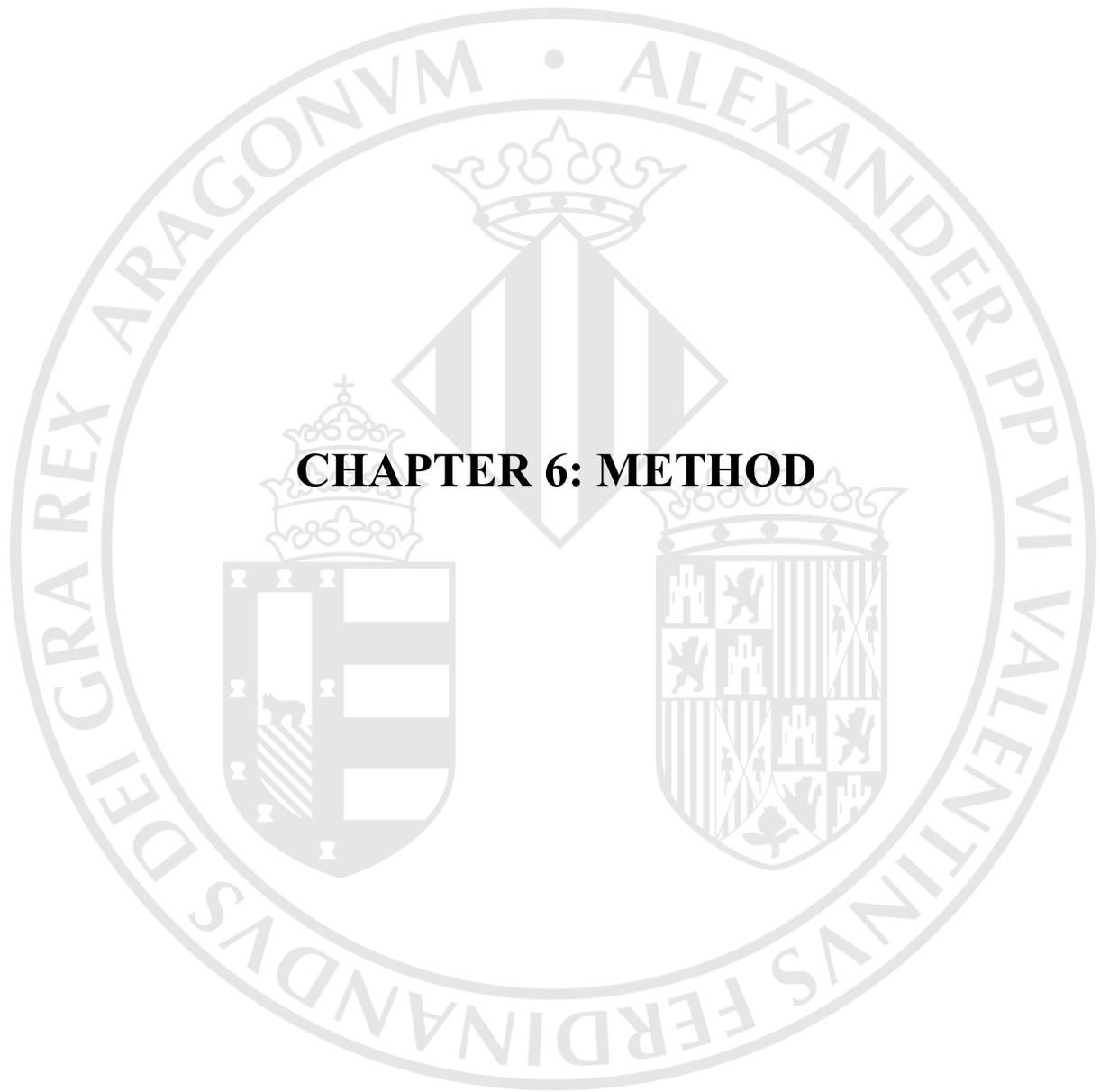
Hypothesis 3: Homogeneity in perceptions of charismatic leadership (HPCL) will moderate the positive indirect effect of average perceptions of charismatic leadership (APCL) on team performance via team communication quality, so that when HPCL is high, the indirect effect of APCL is enhanced, whereas when HPCL is low, the indirect effect is weakened.

The proposed research model that includes the three hypotheses is shown in Figure 1. This model is congruent with the input-process-output model (Hackman, 1987; Kozlowski et al., 1999). The team process considered (team communication) is posited to convey the influence of the team inputs examined (APCL and HPCL) on the team outcome considered (team performance).

Figure 1. The research model



Note. For simplicity, control variables are not included in the model



CHAPTER 6: METHOD

6.1 RESEARCH DESIGN AND PARTICIPANTS

Data were collected at two different time points with a gap of 6 months. At Time 1 (T1), 517 bank employees of 111 bank branches belonging to two different organisations filled out the questionnaire. At Time 2 (T2), 455 employees of 110 bank branches of the same organisations completed the questionnaire. Teams with at least three respondents at T1 were kept for the analyses, and in order to ensure enough team composition stability over time, only teams with a team member stability rate of .50 and above were selected (average final stability rate = .85, SD = .14). In addition, teams that changed leadership between the two measurement points were also discarded to make sure that the “effects” of charismatic leadership were due to the team manager in question.

After applying these restrictions, the final sample consisted of 244 bank employees grouped in 54 branches (i.e., work teams) of two savings banks located in the same geographical area in Spain. The branches of the two banks had similar missions, sizes, and structures. Out of a total of 54 branches, 29 (56%) belonged to one bank and 23 (44%) to the other. According to Guzzo and Dickson (1996), teams can be defined as groups of people who have interdependent roles, share common goals, and interact with each other to achieve these goals, and they typically have a formal leader (i.e. team manager). Although managers were part of the branch, they had a separate office from the rest of branch members and different levels and types of responsibilities, such as serving as a carrier of communication between the work team and the organisation. Branch members shared common goals established at the branch level, such as a specific volume of business or the number of loans, and they had to interact to achieve these goals. Taking these considerations into account, it is reasonable to assume that bank branches can be considered work teams.

Among the team members, 57% were male. In the questionnaire different age intervals were presented to participants (less than 25; 25-36; 36-45; 46-55; more than 55), and most of them were between 36 and 45 (30%) and 46 and 55 (37%) years old. The average response rate for T1 was 95%, and for T2, 88%. At T1, team tenure was 23 months on average (SD = 38.23 months). The average tenure of the leaders at T1 was 40.76 months (SD = 39.86 months). Eighty-five percent of leaders were male (46 in all) and 15% female (8 in all).

6.2 PROCEDURE

The research team liaised with personnel managers to set up and describe the data collection process. Trained administrators carried out the process. For both Time 1 and Time 2, the questionnaires were filled out during work time at the workers' respective workplaces. The questionnaires were delivered personally to those who missed the data gathering sessions, and they were later collected by the assigned administrator. The process followed was the same at Time 1 and Time 2. Participation was voluntary, and anonymity and confidentiality of the responses were guaranteed at both times.

6.3 MEASURES

Charismatic leadership. It was measured at T1 by means of four items taken from Morales and Molero's (1995) adaptation of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) created by Bass and Avolio (1990). The four items capture the three components of charismatic leadership and refer to team managers as formal leaders. Specifically, two items ("My team manager shows enthusiasm for what I usually have to do", and "My team manager enhances my optimism about the future") belong to the "inspirational motivation" dimension of the MLQ; and two items ("My team manager believes in and transmits the importance of our mission"; and "I am proud to work with my team manager") belong to the behavioural and attributional components, respectively of the "idealized influence"

dimension of the MLQ. This four-item scale has been used in previous studies (see Baeza et al., 2009 and Le Blanc et al., 2021).

Items were responded to by team members on a Likert scale with six response options ranging between 1 (“Strongly disagree”) and 6 (“Strongly agree”). These individual scores were used to compute both APCL and HPCL within teams.

To operationalise leaders’ charisma, specifically APCL, individual responses were aggregated to the team level by taking the average team member ratings of their leaders’ charisma. To justify the aggregation of the individual responses, a number of coefficients and indices were computed. Specifically, the intra-class correlation coefficients (ICC(1) and ICC(2)) obtained from a one-way ANOVA, and the Average Deviation Index (ADI) (Burke et al., 1999) were computed. ICC(1) is an indicator of interrater reliability, and it also estimates the proportion of variance that resides at the team level. ICC(2) estimates the reliability of the team mean (Bliese, 2000). ADI is a pragmatic index of within-team interrater agreement that does not require modelling a null or random response variance (Burke & Dunlap, 2002). The upper limit criterion, according to Burke and Dunlap (2002), is $c/6$, where c is the number of response categories. The results obtained (ICC(1) = .15; ICC(2) = .46; and ADI= 0.67) can be considered satisfactory based on standard cut-off points (Bliese, 2000; Burke & Dunlap, 2002). Cronbach’s alpha for aggregated scores was .94.

Homogeneity in perceived charismatic leadership (HPCL). It was measured at T1. HPCL was operationalised by computing the standard deviation in the within-team “charismatic leadership” individual scores multiplied by -1. The standard deviation can be calculated quickly and is easy to understand in comparison with other measures of dispersion (Roberson et al., 2007). In addition, it has been shown to be a valid measure for representing the lack of consensus or agreement in the population (Schmidt & Hunter, 1989). In this

dissertation the data analysed also met the criteria presented in chapter 2 that ensure that the standard deviation is an adequate indicator of dispersion: the team average scores on the charismatic leadership scale can be treated as a quantitative variable that ranges between 1 and 5; the scores were not severely skewed (average skewness across teams was $-.41$; $SD=.96$) and there were not extreme outliers in the teams. Only 2 of the 54 teams presented a case that could be considered an extreme outlier according to the Box-Plot and the IQR (Interquartile Range) technique. These were not considered relevant given the small size of the teams (i.e. 5 members). The results showed that, although the level of agreement was sufficient to average the scores, there was also considerable variability in the level of HPCL (MEAN = -0.88 , SD = 0.38).

Intra-team communication quality. It was measured at T2 by means of a 5-item scale (“To what extent is the communication among the members of your team: 1. Clear, 2. Effective, 3. Complete, 4. Fluent, 5. On time?”) (González-Romá & Hernández, 2014). Items were responded to on a 5-point graded scale ranging from 1. “Not at all” to 5. “Very much”. Aggregation at the team level was justified (ICC(1) = $.12$; ICC(2) = $.38$; and ADI= 0.44). Cronbach’s alpha for aggregated scores was $.92$.

Team performance. It was measured at T2 as rated by team members. A two-item scale was used (“How well do you think your team does the assigned work?” and “What is the quality of the work performed by your team?”), based on Jehn and colleagues’ “members’ perceived group performance scale” (Jehn et al., 1999). The scale was responded to on a 5-point graded scale ranging from 1 (“Very bad”) to 5 (“Very good”). Aggregation indices in this case were ICC (1) = 0.04 , ICC(2) = 0.17 ; and ADI= 0.20 . Although the ICCs are modest at best, some studies have suggested that ICC (1) values around 5% may be large enough to test hypotheses at the aggregated level (Finch & French, 2011; LeBreton & Senter, 2008).

Reliability was estimated by using the Spearman-Brown coefficient because there is evidence that this coefficient is more suitable than alpha for two-item scales (Eisinga et al., 2013). The Spearman-Brown coefficient for aggregate scores was .72.

The items of the scales used in the present study are presented in the Appendix. To assess the validity of the scores obtained by means of the three measurement instruments, a three-factor Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of the team aggregated scores for charismatic leadership, intra-team communication quality, and team performance was run. Given that the item responses followed a normal distribution, Maximum Likelihood Estimation Methods were used. In addition, a CFA based on Harman's single factor test was run to test for potential common method variance effects. The goodness-of-fit of the three-factor model was acceptable ($\chi^2 = 72.78$; $df = 41$; $p < .01$; $\chi^2 / df = 1.78$; CFI = .93, TLI = .91, RMSEA = .12, SRMR = .05), whereas the goodness of fit of the single-factor model was poor ($\chi^2 = 272.06$; $df = 44$; $p < .01$; $\chi^2 / df = 6.18$; CFI = 0.53, TLI = 0.41, RMSEA = 0.31, SRMR = .22). For the three-factor model, standardised factor loadings were statistically significant ($p < .01$) and ranged between .68 and .95, and factor correlations ranged between .22 and .66. All these results taken together support the adequacy of the measurement instruments.

Control variables. Several control variables were introduced. First, some relevant structural variables were controlled for: the organisation to which the bank branches belonged, team size, and team tenure. These last two variables have been shown to have an influence on work-team performance (Kang et al., 2006). Team size can influence team dynamics and performance, due to the availability of human contact and the frequency of interaction with other team members, as well as the availability of human resources (Brewer & Kramer, 1986; Smith et al., 1994; Wallmark, 1973). Team tenure may affect team outcomes because longer tenure fosters coordination, learning, and control (Guzzo et al., 2022; Smith et

al., 1994). Team size and tenure were measured by asking team managers how many individuals were working in the bank branch they managed and how many months they had been working together, respectively. Because bank branches belonged to two different organisations, a dummy variable was created to differentiate between them and control for its potential effects.

Second, some research suggests that team members are more likely to agree if they share some similarities such as demographic characteristics (Rentsch & Klimoski, 2001). Thus, heterogeneity in three demographic variables (gender, age, and educational level) were included as potential control variables. Because these variables were measured by using different categories, I used Blau's Index (1977) to capture demographic heterogeneity, where zero indicates no variability in the variable of interest.

Finally, the potential effects of leaders' tenure in leading the team were also controlled for because more tenured leaders have more opportunities to develop their leadership skills, and there is meta-analytical evidence that leaders' tenure is positively related to work-unit performance (Guzzo et al., 2022).

6.4 ANALYSIS

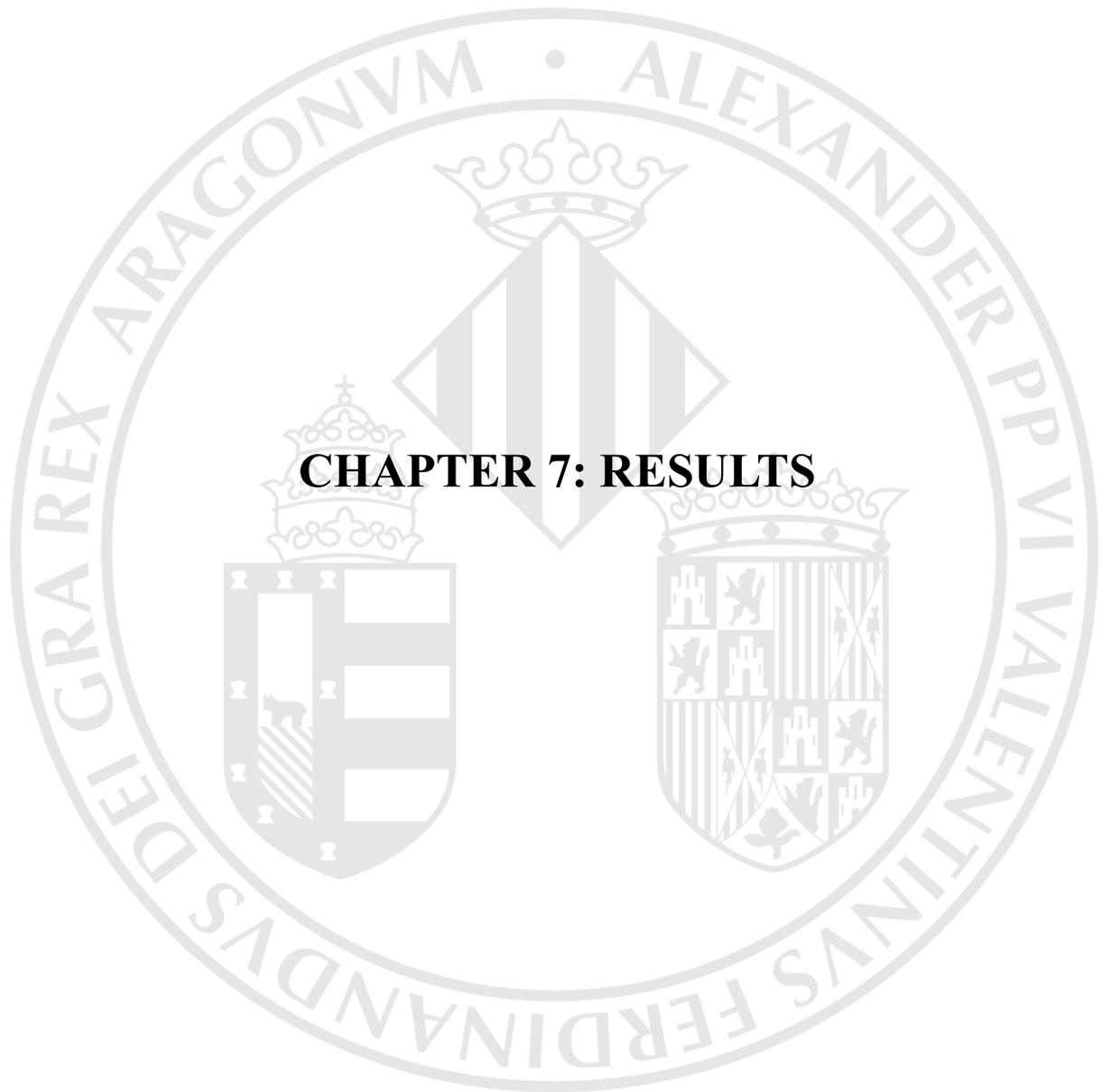
All the hypotheses of the research model proposed were tested by means of path analysis with Mplus (Muthen & Muthen, 1998-2017) using Maximum Likelihood estimation methods. Regarding control variables, given the small number of teams and the complexity of the model, for the sake of parsimony, only those variables that showed significant correlations with the variables in the proposed research model were included in the regression equations. Regarding the study hypotheses, Hypotheses 1 and 2 were tested for by fitting a model that included the indirect effects of APCL and HCPL on team performance. As recommended in the literature (e.g. James et al., 1982), the effects of the two differentiated

but correlated dimensions of charismatic leadership were simultaneously tested for. Then, a second model that added the interaction term between APCL and HPCL was fitted to test for Hypothesis 3 (the moderating effect of HPCL). APCL and HPCL were mean-centered before computing the interaction.

In order to conclude that there is a mediation effect, the indirect effect has to be statistically significant. The indirect effect is the product of the coefficients involved in the mediation chain ab , where a refers to the $X \rightarrow M$ coefficient, and b refers to the $M \rightarrow Y$ coefficient after controlling for X (Sobel, 1982) (where X is the independent variable, M is the mediator, and Y is the dependent variable). In our case, two indirect effects were tested: APCL \rightarrow intra-team communication quality \rightarrow team performance (a_1b in Figure 1) and HPCL \rightarrow intra-team communication quality \rightarrow team performance (a_2b in Figure 1), for Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2, respectively. Considering that the product of regression coefficients does not follow a normal distribution, the significance of indirect effects were tested by means of bootstrapping. Specifically, 10,000 samples were bootstrapped (e.g. MacKinnon et al., 2004; Williams & MacKinnon, 2008) with 95% Bias Corrected (BC) Confidence Intervals (CIs).

To test for the significance of the moderation effects proposed in Hypothesis 3, after adding the interaction term between APCL and HPCL, the significance of the index of moderated mediation (Hayes, 2015) (a_3b in Figure 1) was tested by means of bootstrapping. A significant index of moderated mediation indicates that the indirect effect of APCL on team performance via intra-team communication quality is not equally strong for all the levels of HPCL. To gain a deeper understanding of the moderation effects of the predictor, and following Dawson's (2014) recommendation to avoid the use of specific values of the moderators (1SD below and above the corresponding means) when these values are not

meaningful by themselves, the conditional indirect effects of the average perceptions of leaders' charisma on team performance were tested for all the different levels of HPCL by obtaining the regions of significance using 95% BC bootstrapped CIs.



CHAPTER 7: RESULTS

7.1. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND CORRELATIONS

Means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations among the study variables are shown in Table 1. As Table 1 shows, none of the control variables showed significant correlations with any of the variables in the research model. Thus, none of them were introduced as covariates.

Table 1.

Means, Standard Deviations, Intercorrelations, and Reliability Coefficients

	MEAN	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Organisation	.46	.50	--										
2. Team size (T1)	4.52	2.01	-.24	--									
3. Team tenure (months) (T1)	23.00	38.23	.13	.35	--								
4. Blau Sex (T1)	.34	.17	.23	.12	.08	--							
5. Blau Age (T1)	.59	.20	-.13	.21	.23	.47**	--						
6. Blau Education (T1)	.62	.21	-.16	.26	.20	.28*	.53**	--					
7. Leader Tenure (months) (T1)	40.76	39.86	.25	.16	.50**	.11	.11	.19	--				
8. APCL (T1)	4.39	.61	.07	.02	.22	-.01	-.03	-.03	-.08	<i>(.94)</i>			
9. HPCL (T1)	-.88	.38	-.03	-.12	.05	.02	.05	-.08	-.12	.66**	---		
10. Intra-team communication quality (T2)	3.69	.42	.19	-.14	.00	-.07	-.22	-.25	.04	.44**	.51**	<i>(.92)</i>	
11. Team performance (T2)	4.04	.21	.03	.14	.01	.04	-.04	.05	.12	.20	.28*	.54**	<i>(.72)</i>

*Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$*

T1: Time 1; T2: Time 2; APCL: Average Perceptions of Charismatic Leadership; HPCL: Homogeneity in Perceptions of Charismatic Leadership Italicized values between brackets along the main diagonal are Cronbach's alphas, except for team performance, whose value refers to the Spearman-Brown coefficient

7.2. TESTING THE RESEARCH MODEL

Table 2 presents the results of the model fitted to test Hypotheses 1 and 2. This model showed satisfactory fit ($\chi^2 = .20$; $df = 2$; $\chi^2/df = .10$; CFI = 1.00, TLI = 1.00, RMSEA = .00, SRMR = .012)².

Table 2.

Path Analysis: Coefficients and Standard Errors

Model	Dependent Variable	Predictor	Coeff.	SE	R ²
MODEL 1: Mediated model	Intra-team communication quality	APCL	.12	.10	.27**
		HPCL	.42**	.17	
	Team Performance	Intra-team communication quality	.28**	.06	.29**
MODEL 2: Moderated mediated model/	Intra-team communication quality	APCL	.20	.11	.33**
		HPCL	.43**	.16	
		APCL*HPCL	.38*	.18	
	Team performance	Intra-team communication quality			.29**

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

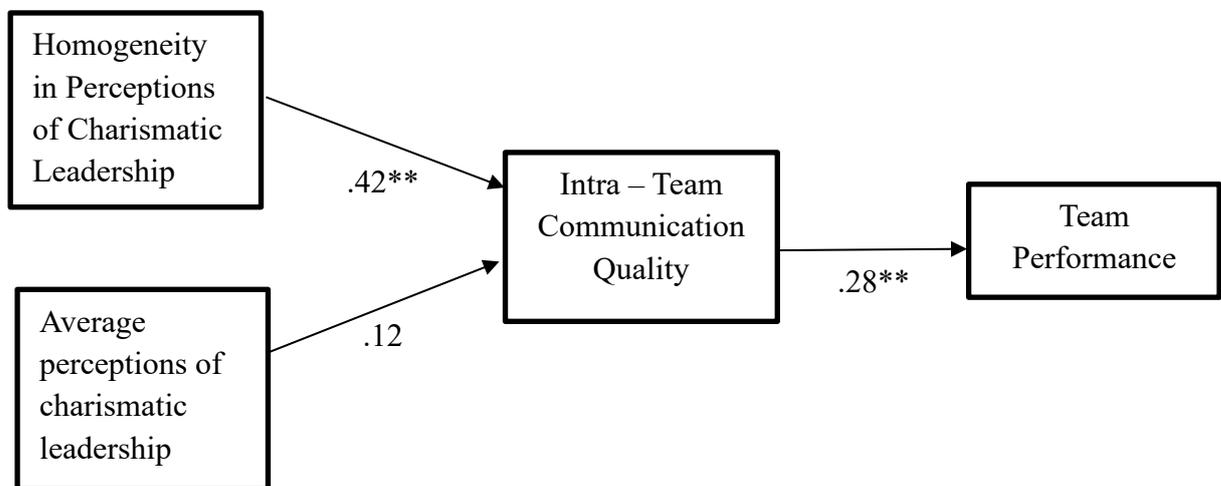
Average Perceptions of Charismatic Leadership; HPCL: Homogeneity in Perceptions of Charismatic Leadership

Hypothesis 1 proposed that average perceptions of charismatic leadership (APCL) have a positive indirect effect on team performance via intra-team communication quality. Results showed that, whereas the second coefficient involved in the mediation path (intra-team

² Although the model showed a satisfactory goodness-of-fit, I tested whether adding the direct paths from the predictors (APCL and HPCL) to the outcome (team performance) improved model fit. Although the model with these two additional direct paths was saturated ($d.f. = 0$), the improvement in fit was not statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2 = .20$; $d.f. = 2$; $p > .05$). Moreover, the direct “effects” of APCL and HPCL on team performance were not statistically significant ($-.02$ and $.03$ for APCL and HPCL, respectively; $p > .05$ in both cases).

communication quality \rightarrow team performance) was statistically significant ($b = .28, p < .05$), the first coefficient (APCL \rightarrow intra-team communication quality) was not ($a_1 = .12; p > .05$). These results are summarised in Figure 2. The indirect effect a_1b ($.12 \cdot .28$) was .03, and the BC Bootstrapped 95% CI included zero (-.02, 0.16). Thus, the results did not support Hypothesis 1.

Figure 2. Paths involved in hypothesised indirect effects

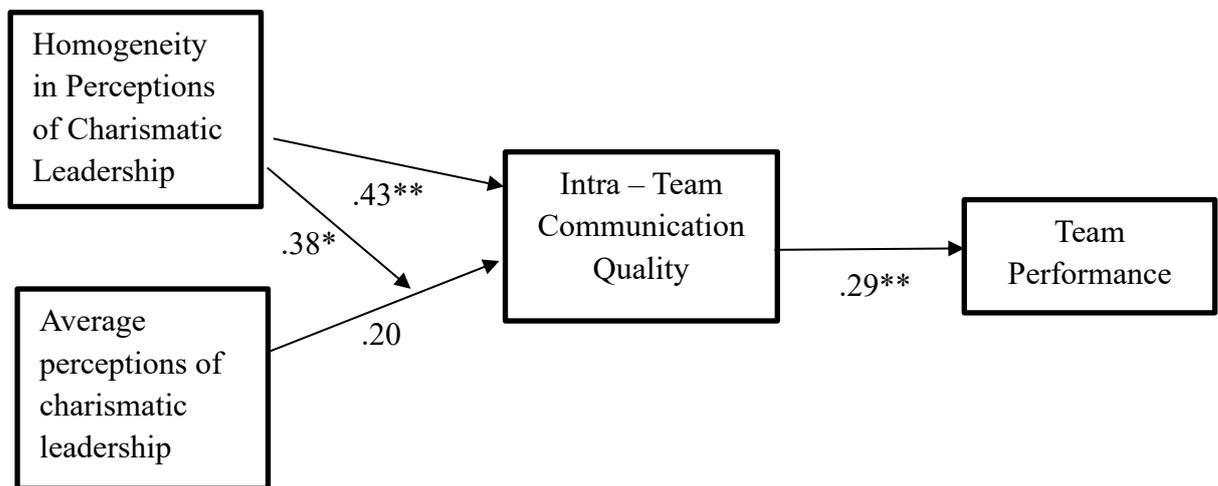


Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Hypothesis 2 proposed that within-team homogeneity in perceptions of charismatic leadership (HPCL) has a positive indirect effect on team performance via intra-team communication quality. The coefficients involved in the mediation path (HPCL \rightarrow intra-team communication quality, $a_2 = .42$; and intra-team communication quality \rightarrow team performance, $b = .28$), were both statistically significant ($p < .01$) (see Table 2 and Figure 2). The indirect effect a_2b was .12 ($.42 \cdot .28$), and the BC Bootstrapped 95% CI did not include zero (.03, 0.28). Thus, the results supported Hypothesis 2.

Finally, Hypothesis 3 proposed that HPCL moderates the indirect effect of APCL on team performance via team communication quality. The results supported this hypothesis. The model that included the interaction term showed satisfactory fit ($\chi^2 = .24$; $df = 3$; $\chi^2 / df = .08$; CFI = 1.00, TLI = 1.00, RMSEA = .00, SRMR = .015), and the inclusion of the interaction term (see Table 2) explained an additional 6% of the mediator variance ($p < .05$). In addition, the coefficient estimating the interaction was statistically significant $a_3 = .38$ ($p < .05$). The results of this model are summarised in Figure 3. Finally, the index of moderated mediation ($a_3b = .11$) was statistically significant because the BC Bootstrapped 95% CI did not include zero (.002; .30). This result indicates that the indirect effect of APCL is moderated by HPCL, supporting Hypothesis 3.

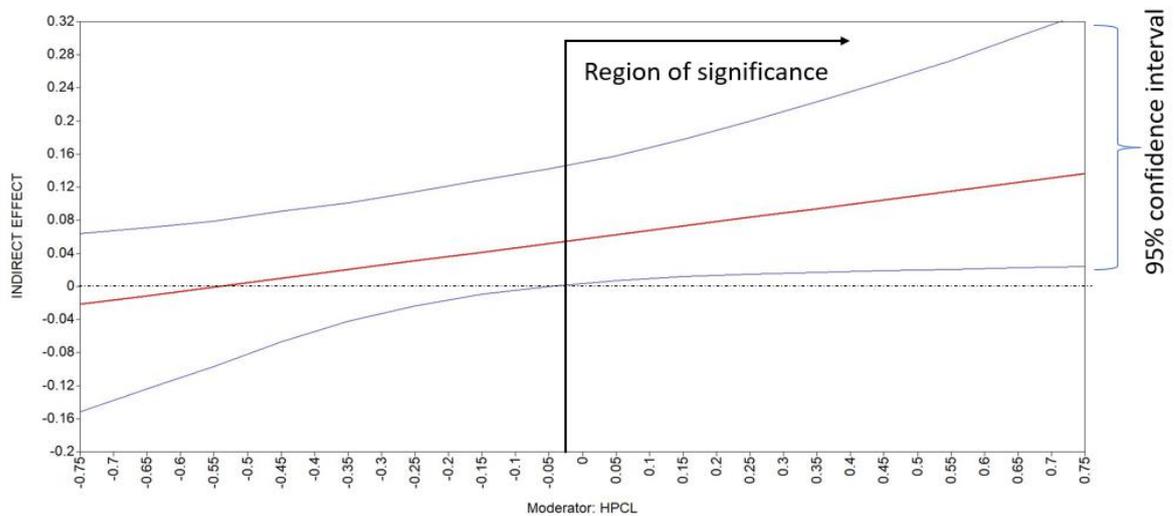
Figure 3. Paths involved in hypothesised conditional indirect effects



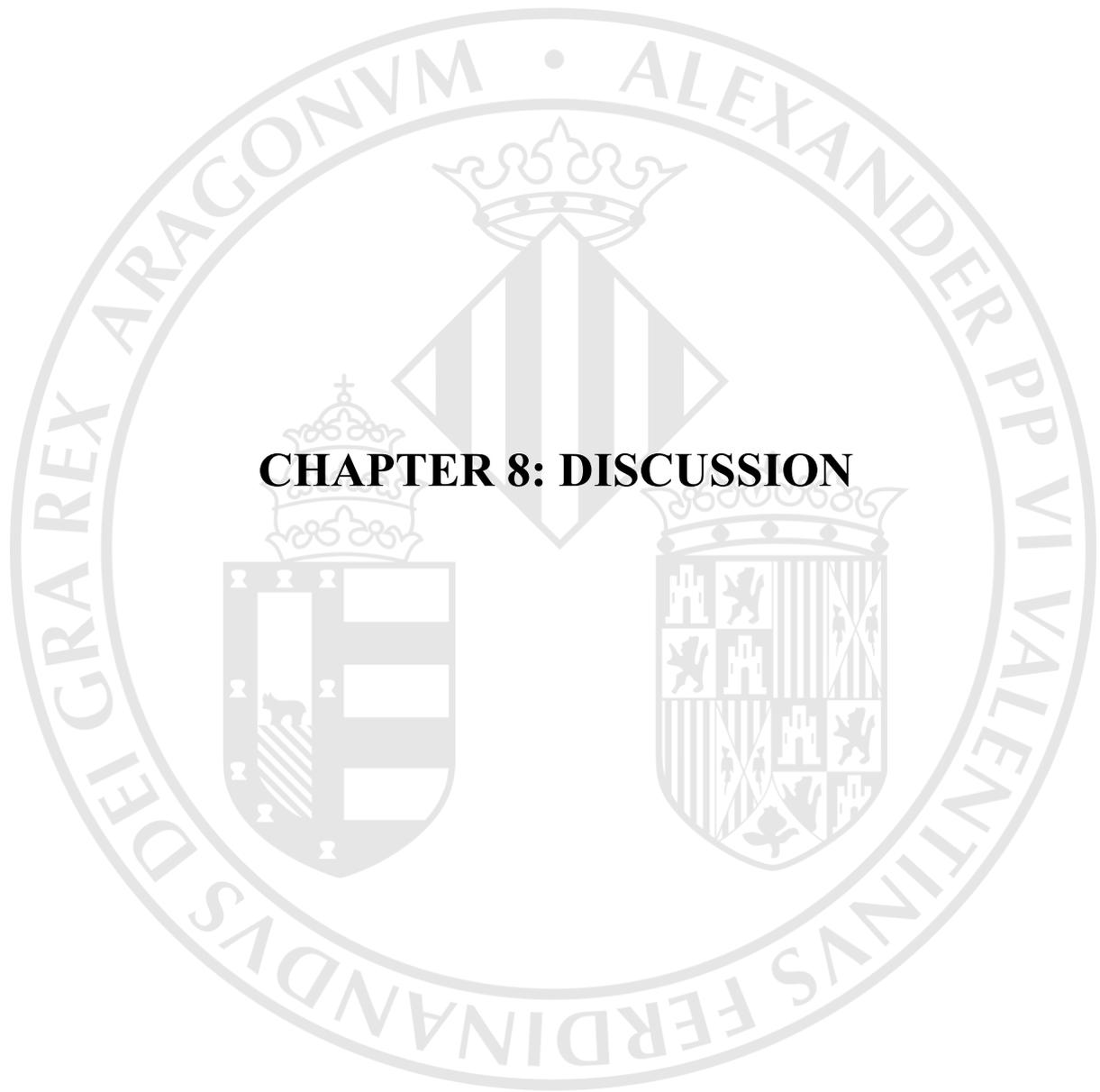
Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

To interpret the conditional indirect effects hypothesised in Hypothesis 3, in Figure 4 I plotted the conditional indirect effect of APCL at different levels of HPCL, with the corresponding 95% confidence band. The region of significance for these conditional indirect effects shows that, as expected, the positive indirect effect of APCL becomes larger as the perceptions become more homogenous (i.e., higher HPCL) and requires a minimum level of HPCL to become statistically significant. As Figure 4 shows, the indirect effect of APCL is statistically significant when HPCL is higher than -.03 (.03 units below the mean, which is -.88 in our sample), and it is not significant for low homogeneity (HPCL values below -.03).

Figure 4. The conditional indirect effect of APCL on team performance via team communication quality at different levels of HPCL



Note: Homogeneity in perceptions of charismatic leadership (HPCL) values are mean-centered scores.



CHAPTER 8: DISCUSSION

The widespread use of teams as building blocks in organisations has put a spotlight on team leaders (team managers) because they play a key role in fostering team performance. This dissertation has focused on a particular type of leadership style, charismatic leadership, which has been linked to enhanced team performance (see meta-analytical evidence by Banks et al., 2017). Considering that leaders' charisma is based on followers' perceptions of their leaders, and that team members are expected to show different degrees of homogeneity in those perceptions (Beimann et al., 2012; Lindell & Brant, 2000), I argued the need to integrate team members' average perceptions of leader charisma (APCL) and the homogeneity in these perceptions (HPCL) to fully understand the construct of charismatic leadership at the team level and its influence on key team outcomes such as team performance. In addition, it was proposed that intra-team communication quality is a key underlying mechanism (i.e. mediator) that contributes to linking these two facets of charismatic leadership at the team level (APCL and HPCL) to team performance. The results showed that HPCL and the interaction between APCL and HPCL have a positive indirect effect on team performance via team communication quality. As expected, higher HPCL strengthens the indirect effect of charismatic leadership perceptions on team performance via intra-team communication quality because it strengthens the relationship between charisma and intra-team communication quality. Next, I discuss the implications of the study findings.

8.1 THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS

The study has several implications for theory and research. First, responding to the call to understand the importance of dispersion constructs in leadership research (Boies & Howell, 2006; Chan, 1998; Cole et al., 2010; Le Blanc & González-Romá, 2012; Mathieu

et al., 2008), this dissertation contributes to enriching the construct of charismatic leadership by proposing and showing that *both* average perceptions of charismatic leadership (APCL) *and* homogeneity in these perceptions (HPCL) are important for team functioning (communication quality) and team performance. Focusing on HPCL, the study shows that it influences team communication quality and team performance beyond APCL. This finding suggests that teams whose members have disparate views about their leaders' charismatic behaviours tend to have worse communication quality, which in turn has a negative influence on team performance (Klein & House, 1995; Walter & Bruch, 2008). These results highlight the role of dispersion constructs such as HPCL in improving our understanding of the impact of leadership on team functioning and outcomes.

Second, in a recent review about charismatic leadership, Antonakis et al. (2016) stated that "to move the field forward ... we need to know more about the *mediators* and *moderators* of the charismatic effect" (p. 310). Focusing on mediators, the results obtained showed that intra-team communication quality is a key underlying mechanism that links HPCL and the interaction between the two facets of charismatic leadership considered (APCL and HPCL) to team performance. Thus, this dissertation contributes to advancing the field. The study findings suggest that similarity in team members' perceptions of charismatic leadership (i.e. HPCL) offers a solid basis for interpersonal attraction (Byrne, 1971) that facilitates intra-team communication quality, which in turn improves team performance. Moreover, when HCPL is medium or high, based on social learning (Bandura, 1973), charismatic leaders can model team members' behaviour by enacting their effective communication skills. Thus, under these conditions, charismatic leaders can contribute to improving team communication quality and (indirectly) team performance. By uncovering this mediating mechanism, this dissertation contributes to deepening our knowledge about

why and *how* charismatic leadership influences team functioning (communication quality) and outcomes (performance).

Third, this study shows that HPCL plays a moderator role in the direct relationship between APCL and team communication quality, and the indirect effect of APCL on team performance via the investigated mediator. Thus, according to Antonakis et al.'s (2016) statement mentioned above, by identifying the moderator role of HPCL, this dissertation also contributes to moving the field forward. The study findings clarify *when* APCL is (directly) related to team communication quality and (indirectly) to team performance. These relationships are observed when the level of HPCL is medium or high, but not when HPCL is low. When the latter occurs, friction and tension among team members may appear because they hold differing views about their leader's behaviour (Feinberg et al., 2005). This social environment hinders the modelling role of charismatic leaders as good communicators and attenuates the direct impact of APCL on team communication quality and its indirect impact on team performance. However, when HPCL is medium or high, there is a positive social environment among team members (Cole et al. 2011) because they hold similar views about a key team aspect (i.e. the leader) that reinforces each team member's view. In these conditions, the influence of APCL is intensified. Charismatic leadership theories and models should consider this moderation effect in order to achieve a more comprehensive understanding of how the different facets examined here impact team processes (e.g. communication) and team performance.

On a related note, the observed interaction helps to understand why Hypothesis 1 was not supported (i.e., why the indirect effect of APCL on team performance via communication quality was not statistically significant): this effect is only relevant when HPCL reaches medium to high levels. This finding stresses the need to improve our understanding of the

boundary conditions that facilitate the functional influence of charismatic leadership at the team level (Antonakis et al., 2016).

8.2 FUTURE RESEARCH

The results of this dissertation also have implications for future research. First, the finding that HPCL is important for team communication and performance should foster research on dispersion constructs related to other forms of leadership, such as authentic and servant leadership (Luthans & Avolio, 2003; Graham, 1991; Eva et al., 2019; Zhang et al, in press). Researchers should examine whether within-team homogeneity in perceptions of these forms of leadership is related to team processes, states, and outcomes. This will allow us to ascertain whether the role of dispersion constructs in leadership research is generalisable to different leadership styles.

Second, considering the positive influences shown by HPCL on team performance via intra-team communication quality, future research should investigate what drives homogeneity in perceptions of charismatic leadership within a team. Some research suggests that a team is more likely to agree if the members share some similarities (e.g. demographic characteristics) and the team has an optimal size (small enough to provide an opportunity for all members to interact with each other) (Rentsch & Klimoski, 2001). Other antecedents may come from the leaders themselves and their motivation to succeed as leaders (Barbutto, 2005). Given that organisational teams tend to homogenise over time (Schneider et al., 2000), it would be interesting to conduct a longitudinal study and observe how HPCL changes and what influences it.

Further, conceptualisation of charisma as made of idealised influence (behavioural and attributional) and inspirational motivation has been operationalised by means of a short scale that combines the scores of the items referred to the three components (behavioural

idealised influence, attributional idealised influence and inspirational motivation). Short scales were used because this study was part of a larger research project where many other variables were collected, and the questionnaire length was an issue to ensure high response rates. Future research that uses a larger number of items to tap each component should assess the potential differential importance of the three components of charismatic leadership (and the homogeneity in perceptions of these components) in predicting performance via team communication quality (see Antonakis et al., 2016; Banks et al., 2017). For future research it is also recommended to use objective indicators of charismatic leadership (Antonakis et al., 2016). Some recent examples consist of analysing verbal and/or non-verbal communication styles by analysing leaders' speech (see for example Hansen et al., 2020).

8.3 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

Because charismatic leadership can be taught (Antonakis et al 2011; Richardson & Thayer 1993), successful training programs may be used to foster high (homogeneous) perceptions of leaders' charisma among team members. Based on the results obtained in this dissertation, this would enhance team performance via intra-team communication quality. In this regard, the Full Range Leadership Development (FRLD) model (Avolio & Bass, 1991) has been used by other researchers to develop and test various leadership training approaches. For example, using the FRLD model as a reference point, Parry and Sinha (2005) found that charismatic leadership can be improved through training.

Another training approach involves focusing on the trainability of the mediator. Because charismatic leadership is communicative and communication skills can be taught (de Vries et al., 2010), it is reasonable to expect that leadership training programs that focus on developing communication skills with team members would contribute to fostering team functioning and performance.

From the followers' perspective, and considering the functional influence of HPCL on team communication and performance, efforts should be made to increase HPCL within teams. Based on research on the antecedents of perceptual sharedness about team features (González-Romá & Peiró, 2014), augmenting social interaction within teams should lead to greater homogeneity in their perceptions about leader behaviours. Through social interactions, team members collectively build on and assign meaning to environmental features (Ashforth, 1985). Team members can increase their social interactions by planning formal and informal meetings to discuss team matters.

8.4 LIMITATIONS

The present study has some limitations that must be considered when interpreting the results. First, the results of the study are based on a small sample composed of only one type of team (bank branches). These factors (sample size and team type) limit the generalisability of the findings. Future studies should cross-validate the results in larger and more heterogeneous samples composed of teams from other sectors (e.g. manufacturing, education, health). However, similar results are expected to be found because the same theoretical rationale should operate regarding the influence of APCL and HPCL to different types of teams. Supporting this idea, Jackson et al.'s (2013) meta-analysis (which analysed samples from different sectors) found significant correlations between charismatic leadership, on the one hand, and task and group performance, on the other. Moreover, the sampled teams operated in a Western country. Jackson et al.'s (2013) meta-analysis showed that the correlations between charismatic leadership and some outcomes (e.g. organisational commitment) vary across individualistic and collectivistic cultures. These cultures are typical in Western and Eastern countries, respectively. Thus, future studies should also cross-validate the findings of this dissertation in Eastern countries.

Second, data were collected from a single source (team members). Thus, common-method variance might have inflated the relationships between perceptions of charisma and team processes and outcomes. However, the fact that the study variables were measured at two different time points should reduce the impact of this problem to some extent. On a related note, common method variance does not seem to be strong because, as it was showed in the Method section, Harman's test supported the adequacy of the multidimensional model underlying the study variables, compared to a single-factor model.

Third, the team performance measure used was based on team members' ratings. This might be problematic because individuals may inflate *self*-ratings of performance (e.g. Janssen, & Van der Vegt, 2011; Pfeffer & Sutton, 2006). However, some scholars argue that these leniency effects are: a) less serious and threatening when rating teams than when rating individual performance, and b) especially important when assessing employees' performance levels, but less important when focusing on correlations among variables (Wall et al., 2004). Because the study focused on team performance and its relationships with the other study variables, it does not seem this problem seriously affected the results obtained. Nevertheless, future studies should replicate the study findings using other sources to measure team performance (e.g. team leader ratings, objective indicators). Fourth, the mediator and outcome variables were measured at the same time point, which is not congruent with their place in the research model proposed. This might have inflated their relationship. APCL, HPCL, and their interaction was separated six months in time from team communication quality because the examination of the relationship between these variables is new and requires sound empirical evidence, whereas the relationship between team communication quality and team performance has been documented in previous research and supported by meta-analytical evidence (Marlow et al., 2018). However, future studies that aim to replicate

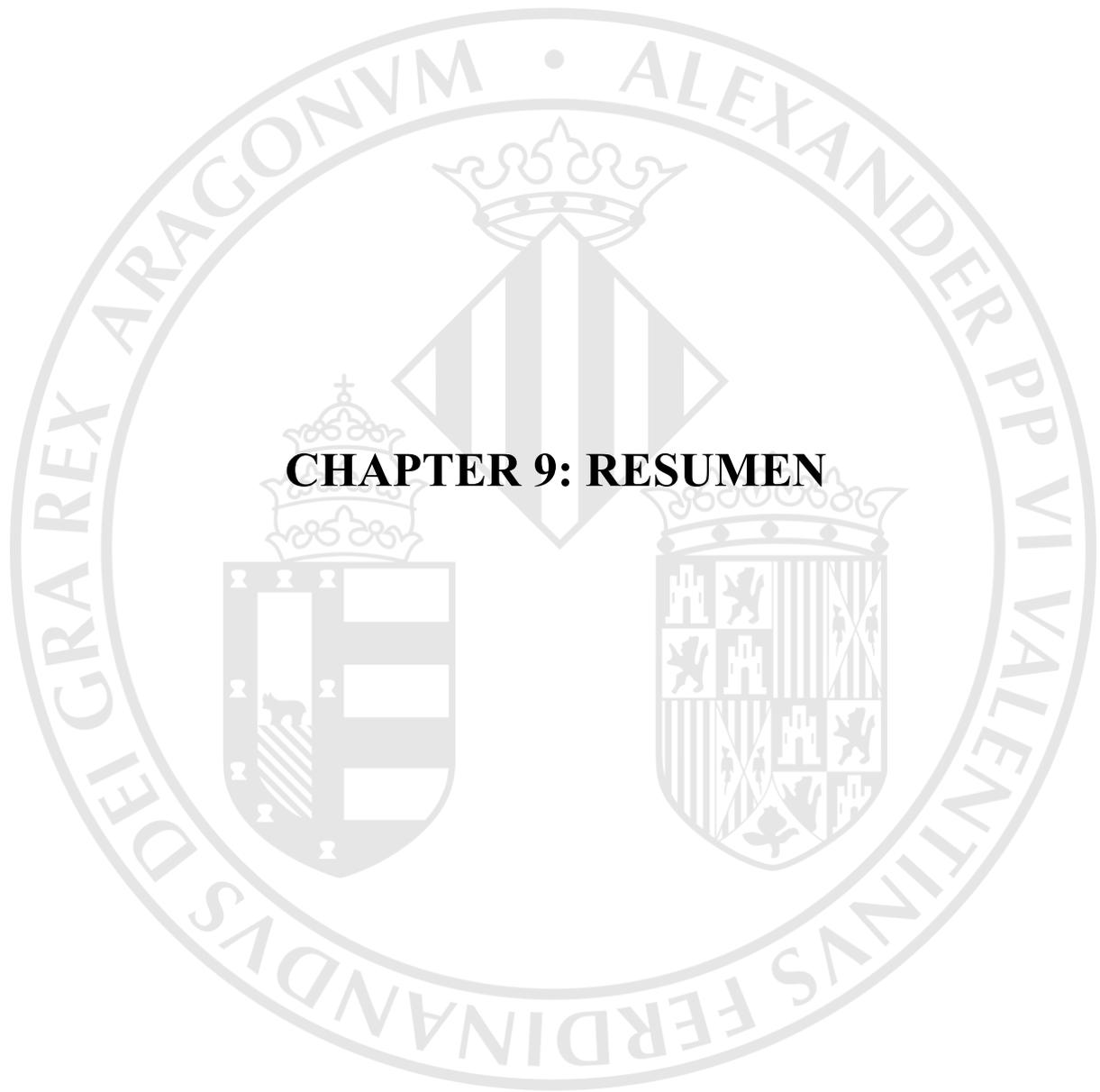
the findings of this dissertation should also separate in time the mediator from the outcome variable.

Finally, the study only focuses on the “positive side” of charismatic leadership. While the majority of charismatic leadership research focuses on its potential and benefits, there is also a body of literature which spotlights potential dangers and the “dark side” of charismatic leadership (Hogan et al., 1990; Fogarty, 2010; Fragouli, 2018; Zhang et al., 2020).

In their paper “The Ethics of Charismatic Leadership: Submission or Liberation?” Howell and Avolio (1992) distinguish ethical from unethical charismatic leaders. On the one hand, a charismatic leader who is motivated by a higher purpose and uses their charisma to inspire and empower others can be seen as promoting liberation. In this context, followers may feel motivated to work towards a shared goal and may be given the freedom to express their ideas and opinions. This type of leadership can create a culture of collaboration and can lead to positive outcomes for the individuals and the organisation. On the other hand, a charismatic leader who is motivated by personal gain and uses their charisma to manipulate others for their own benefit can be seen as promoting submission. In this context, followers may feel compelled to conform to the leader's vision and values, even if it goes against their own beliefs and interests. This type of leadership can lead to a culture of blind obedience and can be harmful to the individuals and the organisation as a whole. Future studies should investigate the mediators that transmit the negative influence of charismatic leadership on work outcomes, and the moderators that boost or buffer this influence. This will give us a broader and more comprehensive understanding of charismatic leadership.

8.5. CONCLUSION

This dissertation shows that, at the team level of analysis, it is crucial to consider within-team homogeneity in perceptions of charismatic leadership (HPCL) above and beyond the effects of average perceptions of charismatic leadership (APCL). On the one hand HPCL has a significant influence on team performance via team communication quality. On the other hand, HPCL moderates the indirect effect of ACPL on team performance, in such way that for ACPL to have a significant effect on intra-team communication quality, which in turn, relates to team performance, moderate to high levels of HPCL are required. These results contribute to improving our understanding of the role of charismatic leadership in shaping team functioning and team performance.



CHAPTER 9: RESUMEN

Percepciones de liderazgo carismático en los equipos de trabajo: el rol de las percepciones promedio y su homogeneidad en la predicción del rendimiento de los equipos a través de la calidad la comunicación dentro del equipo

El trabajo en equipo es esencial en las organizaciones actuales. La principal razón es que los equipos de trabajo están mejor equipados que los individuos para realizar tareas complejas y alcanzar los objetivos de la organización (Kozlowski y Bell, 2013; O'Neill y Salas, 2018). Por ello, es importante determinar qué factores contribuyen al buen funcionamiento y desempeño de los equipos de trabajo. En este contexto, los líderes de los equipos (es decir, los managers o directores de equipo) se han convertido en agentes clave para garantizar el desempeño de los equipos y el logro de sus objetivos (Gardner et al., 2012; Salas et al., 2015; Weberg y Weberg, 2014; Wilderom et al., 2012). Diversos estudios han puesto de manifiesto que una característica clave para el rendimiento de los equipos de trabajo es el liderazgo carismático (Avolio y Yammarino, 2013; Banks et al., 2017; Nassif et al., 2021). Los líderes carismáticos articulan y ayudan a construir una visión positiva sobre el futuro. Infunden confianza en las personas que lideran (i.e. los miembros de los equipos de trabajo que dirigen), fomentan una impresión de la importancia de su misión, inspiran en dichas personas un sentimiento de orgullo por los logros obtenidos, establecen altas expectativas y muestran confianza en que dichas expectativas se pueden lograr (Bass, 1985; Le Blanc y otros, 2021; Yammarino et al., 2012). Pero para que el liderazgo carismático tenga efecto, las personas lideradas tienen que percibir dicho carisma. De hecho, el liderazgo carismático se concibe como el resultado de una atribución basada en las percepciones de los seguidores sobre el comportamiento de los líderes (Ito et al., 2020; Bligh et al., 2018; Uhl Bien et al., 2014).

Para obtener un indicador de liderazgo carismático a nivel de equipo, la práctica habitual es promediar las percepciones de los miembros del equipo sobre el carisma de su líder (Harrison y Klein, 2007), siguiendo un modelo de composición por consenso (Chan, 1998). Esta práctica permite obtener un indicador de un constructo compartido a nivel de equipo (Kozlowski y Klein, 2000). Sin embargo, puesto que el carisma de los líderes tiene su base en las percepciones de los seguidores, es razonable esperar cierta heterogeneidad en dichas percepciones (Antonakis, 2012; Biemann et al., 2012; Harrison y Klien, 2007; Lindell y Brant, 2000). Esta tesis doctoral propone que dicha heterogeneidad no debe tratarse como error muestral o de medida, ya que puede proporcionar información significativa que ayude a comprender los efectos del liderazgo carismático en los equipos de trabajo.

De hecho, distintos investigadores han recomendado que, al estudiar constructos agregados basados en las percepciones de los miembros del equipo, como es el caso del liderazgo carismático en los equipos de trabajo, se modele tanto la media aritmética como la variabilidad dentro de los equipos (Chen et al., 2005; Klein et al., 2001; Lindell y Brant, 2000). Los constructos compartidos (como el promedio o Agregación de las Percepciones los miembros del equipo sobre el Carisma del Líder, en adelante APCL) reflejan los elementos (por ejemplo, las percepciones de liderazgo carismático) que son comunes o compartidos por los miembros del equipo. Los constructos de dispersión (como la Homogeneidad en las Percepciones del Carisma del Líder, en adelante HPCL) reflejan las diferencias dentro del equipo en estos elementos. Por lo tanto, APCL, como constructo compartido, y HPCL, como constructo de dispersión, son *cualitativamente distintos y se operacionalizan de manera diferente*.

Sin embargo, a pesar de estas diferencias y de la recomendación de modelar la variabilidad en las percepciones sobre fenómenos relevantes dentro de los equipos, los

estudios sobre carisma han ignorado el papel de HPCL en la predicción de resultados organizacionales importantes como el desempeño de los equipos, y el papel de posibles mecanismos subyacentes (es decir, mediadores) que expliquen esta relación. Esta omisión es sorprendente porque investigaciones anteriores han demostrado que los constructos de dispersión en otros aspectos del liderazgo (como, por ejemplo, la diferenciación en el intercambio líder-miembro -*LMX Differentiation*; González-Romá, 2016; LeBlanc y González-Romá, 2012), pueden mejorar la comprensión de la relación entre el liderazgo de los equipos y sus resultados. Además de sorprendente, esta omisión es preocupante si nuestro objetivo es entender el liderazgo carismático como un fenómeno colectivo, a nivel de equipo.

El presente estudio aborda esta omisión y contribuye a aportar luz sobre el liderazgo carismático en los equipos de trabajo al incorporar HPCL como una dimensión relevante (junto con APCL), y al analizar algunos de los potenciales mecanismos subyacentes que vinculan el liderazgo carismático con el desempeño de los equipos. En concreto, se diferencian las percepciones promedio de los miembros del equipo sobre el liderazgo carismático (APCL), la homogeneidad de estas percepciones (HPCL) y la interacción entre ambas variables (APCL x HPCL). El objetivo es determinar los efectos que estos tres componentes ejercen sobre el desempeño de los equipos, definido como la calidad de los procesos y comportamientos orientados hacia el logro de objetivos de los equipos (Motowidlo, 2003).

Por otra parte, a pesar de que investigaciones meta-analíticas han demostrado que el liderazgo carismático está positivamente relacionado con el desempeño de los grupos y equipos de trabajo (e.g. Banks et al., 2017), como señalan Antonakis et al. (2016) y Yammarino et al., (2004), todavía no sabemos qué mecanismos mediadores transmiten o explican la influencia del liderazgo carismático sobre el rendimiento de los equipos. Esta

carencia es importante porque impide comprender el *porqué* de dicha influencia. En esta tesis doctoral se propone que calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo es un mecanismo mediador explicativo de la relación “liderazgo carismático-desempeño de equipo”. Se propone este mediador porque la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo (el grado en que la comunicación entre los miembros del equipo es clara, efectiva, completa, fluida y puntual - González-Romá y Hernández, 2014) es un proceso clave para el rendimiento de los equipos (González-Romá y Hernández, 2014; Kozlowski y Bell, 2003), siendo un mecanismo de apoyo para otros procesos fundamentales en el equipo, como la coordinación y la resolución de problemas (Gibson, 2001; Kozlowski e Ilgen, 2006). Como se argumentará más adelante, la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo puede verse influenciada tanto por APCL como por HPCL y su interacción. Además, cabe esperar que la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo se relacione con un mejor rendimiento del equipo.

Con este estudio se espera realizar distintas contribuciones al campo del liderazgo carismático. En primer lugar, desde una perspectiva teórica, al incorporar HPCL como un aspecto relevante, se amplía la conceptualización del liderazgo carismático: este se considerará como un fenómeno a nivel de equipo que puede estudiarse utilizando no solo el promedio de las percepciones de liderazgo carismático (APCL), sino también la variabilidad intra-equipo en estas percepciones (HPCL). Esto nos permitirá una comprensión más completa del papel que desempeña el liderazgo carismático en el funcionamiento y los resultados de los equipos. En segundo lugar, al incorporar la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo como mediador, aumentaremos nuestro conocimiento sobre los mecanismos a través de los cuales el liderazgo carismático fomenta el desempeño del equipo. Por lo tanto, el presente estudio contribuye a mejorar la comprensión de *por qué* el liderazgo carismático está relacionado con el rendimiento del equipo. Finalmente, al analizar los efectos de interacción entre APCL y HPCL, también se aporta luz sobre *cuándo* y *cómo* (en qué

condiciones) la relación entre liderazgo carismático y el rendimiento del equipo a través de la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo se potencia o se debilita.

Desde una perspectiva práctica, el análisis del impacto del liderazgo carismático a nivel de equipo podría ser particularmente relevante para las organizaciones actuales, que organizan el trabajo en torno a equipos. En particular, considerando la evidencia que muestra que el carisma se puede entrenar (e.g. Antonakis, 2017; Antonakis et al., 2011), los resultados del estudio podrán orientar el diseño de estrategias de intervención que promuevan percepciones altas y homogéneas del carisma del líder dentro de los equipos que, a su vez, permitan mejorar la calidad de la comunicación dentro del equipo y su rendimiento.

Percepciones promedio de liderazgo carismático y desempeño del equipo: el papel mediador de la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo.

Por una parte, este estudio propone que APCL se relacionará positivamente con la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo. Los líderes carismáticos tienen buenas habilidades de comunicación (Tucker, 1968). De hecho, la comunicación expresiva es una de las características clave del carisma (Antonakis et al., 2016). Los líderes carismáticos usan sus habilidades comunicativas para informar a los miembros del equipo sobre su visión del equipo y la importancia de su misión y transmiten confianza en las capacidades de los miembros del equipo (Antonakis et al., 2016). Además, los líderes carismáticos utilizan diferentes técnicas de comunicación (por ejemplo, verbal, no verbal y simbólica, mediante metáforas) para comunicarse con los miembros de su equipo (den Hartog y Verburg , 1997; Shamir et al., 1994), y existen evidencias de que “los líderes carismáticos se caracterizan por un estilo de comunicación seguro, solidario, argumentativo, preciso y verbalmente no agresivo” (de Vries et al., 2010; p. 376). Debido a su posición, los líderes de equipo son importantes modelos a seguir. Por ello, y partiendo de la teoría del aprendizaje social

(Bandura, 1973), se espera que los miembros del equipo puedan aprender y mimetizar las buenas prácticas comunicativas de sus líderes. Esto contribuirá a mejorar la calidad de la comunicación dentro del equipo.

Por otra parte, se propone que la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo está positivamente relacionada con su desempeño. Para funcionar adecuadamente, rendir adecuadamente y lograr las metas del equipo, “ los miembros del equipo deben comunicarse de manera efectiva entre sí para múltiples propósitos, como coordinar acciones, proporcionar y recibir retroalimentación y resolver problemas del equipo” (González-Romá y Hernández, 2014, pág. 1047). La comunicación también permite a los miembros del equipo obtener y compartir nueva información y conocimientos sobre asuntos importantes (por ejemplo, métodos de trabajo y recursos) que pueden contribuir al desempeño del equipo (Mesmer-Magnus y DeChurch, 2009). Todo ello hace que la comunicación del equipo sea un proceso crucial para lograr un buen desempeño (Salas et al., 2005). De hecho, existen evidencias meta-analíticas sobre dicha relación (Marlow et al., 2018).

A partir de estas dos líneas argumentales en este estudio se plantea la siguiente hipótesis:

Hipótesis 1: Las percepciones promedio de los miembros del equipo sobre el liderazgo carismático (APCL) tendrán un efecto indirecto positivo en el desempeño del equipo a través de la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo. Específicamente, APCL se relacionará positivamente con la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo, que, a su vez, se relacionará positivamente con el desempeño del equipo.

Homogeneidad en las percepciones de liderazgo carismático y desempeño del equipo: el papel mediador de la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo

Como se señaló anteriormente, debido a que el liderazgo carismático se basa en las atribuciones (percepciones) de los seguidores sobre sus líderes (Conger y Kanungo, 1987) es razonable esperar cierta heterogeneidad en la forma en que los miembros del equipo perciben el carisma de su líder (Chen et al., 2013; Beimann et al., 2012; Graen y Uhl -Bien, 1995; Lindell y Brant, 2000). Esto puede ocurrir por una variedad de razones. Los empleados pueden comparar el comportamiento de su líder con su propia idea de cómo debería comportarse un líder ideal, por lo que sus percepciones sobre el líder se filtrarían a través de este ideal individual (Foti et al., 2012). Asimismo, a los líderes les puede resultar difícil demostrar cualidades carismáticas a todos los miembros del equipo de la misma manera (Walter y Bruch, 2008), lo que también podría producir discrepancias en las percepciones de los miembros del equipo sobre el carisma de su líder. Puesto que el liderazgo carismático se valida solo por las percepciones de sus seguidores, las variaciones dentro del equipo en estas percepciones no deben considerarse varianza de error (Mathieu et al., 2008). Por ello, como se indicó anteriormente, la investigación sobre el liderazgo carismático a nivel de equipo debe prestar atención a los modelos de composición de dispersión que consideran la varianza de percepciones dentro del equipo como un constructo significativo de nivel superior. Por lo tanto, HPCL también debe modelarse (Cole et al., 2010).

Los constructos de dispersión son relativamente raros en la literatura sobre liderazgo. Sin embargo, hay evidencias de su importancia. Por ejemplo, la diferenciación en el intercambio líder-miembro (*Leader-Member Exchange* -LMX) (Boies y Howell, 2006; Le Blanc y González- Romá, 2012) y la homogeneidad en las percepciones de liderazgo transformacional (Cole et al., 2011), pueden afectar el desempeño del equipo - en el último

caso, a través de mecanismos como el empoderamiento del equipo (Cole et al., 2011). Estos resultados respaldan las sugerencias de Lindell y Brant (2000) de que la falta de acuerdo entre los miembros del equipo sobre las atribuciones de liderazgo puede dañar procesos como la coordinación y la comunicación del equipo, esenciales para su rendimiento (Bliese y Halverson, 1998).

En esta tesis se propone que HPCL fomenta la calidad de la comunicación dentro del equipo. Esta relación se basa en la teoría de la atracción interpersonal (Byrne, 1971). Esta teoría destaca el valor reforzante de la similitud perceptual. Cuando los miembros del equipo tienen percepciones similares sobre un tema importante en su trabajo (por ejemplo, el liderazgo), el refuerzo de los puntos de vista de un miembro por otros miembros del equipo refuerza dichas percepciones (Harrison y Klein, 2007). Por lo tanto, el grado en que los miembros del equipo tengan creencias y puntos de vista similares sobre sus líderes puede proporcionar una base sólida para la atracción interpersonal (Byrne, 1971; Williams y O'Reilly, 1998), lo que debería facilitar la calidad de la comunicación dentro del equipo (Liu et al., 2012). Por el contrario, se ha demostrado que las experiencias de disimilitud acaban en facciones, distorsionan el mensaje y crean otras dificultades de comunicación (Barnlund y Hariand, 1963; Triandis, 1960).

Teniendo en cuenta todos estos argumentos, y los presentados anteriormente que respaldan una relación positiva entre la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo y el desempeño del equipo, se propone la siguiente hipótesis:

Hipótesis 2. La homogeneidad de los miembros del equipo en las percepciones de liderazgo carismático (HPCL) tendrá un efecto indirecto positivo en el desempeño del equipo a través de la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo. Específicamente, HPCL

se relacionará positivamente con la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo, la cual, a su vez, estará positivamente relacionada con el desempeño del equipo.

El papel moderador de HPCL

Hasta ahora, se ha argumentado que tanto APCL como HPCL tendrán un efecto indirecto en el desempeño del equipo a través de la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo. A continuación, se propone que HPCL moderará la relación directa entre APCL y la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo, y por tanto, el efecto indirecto de APCL sobre el desempeño del equipo. La escasa investigación sobre los constructos de dispersión en la investigación en liderazgo (e.g. Boies y Howell, 2006; Cole et al., 2011; González-Romá y Le Blanc, 2019; Le Blanc y González-Romá, 2012) ha mostrado el valor de analizar el rol moderador de la homogeneidad en las percepciones de liderazgo en la predicción de resultados como el rendimiento, la potencia y el compromiso de los equipos.

Centrándonos en el liderazgo carismático, Klein y House (1995) sugirieron que la relación entre el liderazgo carismático y los resultados del equipo debería estar moderada por la homogeneidad en las percepciones de los subordinados sobre dicho liderazgo carismático. El papel moderador de HPCL en la relación entre APCL y la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo se puede justificar de la siguiente manera. La baja homogeneidad en las percepciones de liderazgo carismático dentro de un equipo puede producir fricción y tensión entre los miembros del equipo porque tienen puntos de vista diferentes sobre el comportamiento del líder (Feinberg et al., 2005). Dichas fricciones pueden obstaculizar la percepción del líder carismático como modelo de comunicación a seguir, porque se genera un entorno social que puede interferir y atenuar el efecto de modelado de la calidad de la comunicación del equipo. Sin embargo, la alta homogeneidad en las percepciones de liderazgo carismático crea un ambiente social positivo porque “no hay necesidad de que los miembros del equipo desafíen

las atribuciones de liderazgo de otros miembros, ya que cada una de sus posiciones son equivalentes” (Cole et al., 2011, p. 385). En estas condiciones, los efectos positivos del liderazgo carismático se deberían intensificar (Cole et al, 2011; Feinberg et al., 2005; Mishel, 1973). Por lo tanto, HPCL debe moderar la relación entre APCL y la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo, de modo que cuanto mayor sea HPCL más fuerte se harán los efectos de APCL. Considerando este efecto de moderación esperado junto con los argumentos de la Hipótesis 1, se propone la siguiente hipótesis:

Hipótesis 3: La homogeneidad en las percepciones de liderazgo carismático (HPCL) moderará el efecto indirecto positivo de las percepciones promedio de liderazgo carismático (APCL) en el rendimiento del equipo a través de la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo, de modo que cuando HPCL es alto, el efecto indirecto de APCL aumenta, mientras que cuando HPCL es bajo, el efecto indirecto se debilita.

El modelo de investigación propuesto que incluye las tres hipótesis se muestra en la Figura 1 (ver página 92). Este modelo es congruente con el modelo de entrada-proceso-salida (Hackman, 1987; Kozlowski et al., 1999): APCL y HPCL, son el input o entrada, la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo, el proceso, y el desempeño del equipo, el output o salida.

Método

Participantes

Los datos se recopilaron en dos momentos diferentes separados por seis meses. En Tiempo 1 (T1), 517 empleados de 111 sucursales bancarias pertenecientes a dos organizaciones diferentes completaron el cuestionario. En Tiempo 2 (T2), 455 empleados de 110 sucursales de las mismas organizaciones completaron el cuestionario. Se descartaron los equipos con menos de tres participantes y, para garantizar suficiente estabilidad en la

composición del equipo a lo largo del tiempo, solo se seleccionaron aquellos equipos con una tasa de estabilidad de .50 o más (tasa de estabilidad final promedio = .85, DT = .14). También se descartaron los equipos que cambiaron de líder (director) entre los dos tiempos para asegurarnos de que los “efectos” del liderazgo carismático se debían al director del equipo analizado en T1.

Tras aplicar estas restricciones, la muestra final estuvo formada por 244 empleados bancarios agrupados en 54 sucursales bancarias consideradas como equipos de trabajo. Las sucursales tenían misiones, tamaños y estructuras similares. De las 54 sucursales, 29 (56%) pertenecían a una organización bancaria y 23 (44%) a la otra. De acuerdo con Guzzo y Dickson (1996) los equipos pueden definirse como grupos de personas que tienen roles interdependientes, comparten objetivos comunes e interactúan entre sí para lograr estos objetivos y, por lo general, tienen un líder formal (un director o manager del equipo). En este estudio, aunque los líderes formaban parte de la sucursal, tenían una oficina separada del resto de los miembros de la sucursal y diferentes niveles y tipos de responsabilidades. Los miembros de la sucursal compartían objetivos comunes establecidos a nivel de sucursal, como un volumen específico de negocios o cantidad de préstamos, y tenían que interactuar para lograr estos objetivos. Teniendo en cuenta estas consideraciones, es razonable tratar a las sucursales bancarias como equipos de trabajo.

Entre los miembros del equipo, el 57% eran hombres. En el cuestionario se presentaron diferentes intervalos de edad (menos de 25; 25-36; 36-45; 46-55; más de 55), y la mayoría de los participantes tenía entre 36 y 45 (30%) y 46 y 55 (37%) años. La tasa de respuesta promedio en T1 fue del 95% y en T2, del 88%. En T1, la antigüedad promedio de los equipos fue de 23 meses (DT= 38.23) y la de los líderes fue de 40.76 meses (DT = 39.86). Entre los líderes, el 85% eran hombres (46 en total) y el 15% mujeres (8 en total).

Procedimiento

Tanto para T1 como para T2, los cuestionarios se completaron durante el horario de trabajo en las sucursales bancarias. En caso de no estar presentes, se les hizo llegar el cuestionario que posteriormente fue recogido por un miembro del equipo investigador. La participación fue voluntaria, y se garantizó el anonimato y la confidencialidad de las respuestas.

Medidas

Liderazgo carismático. Se midió en T1 mediante cuatro ítems tomados de la adaptación de Morales y Molero (1995) del Cuestionario Multifactorial de Liderazgo (MLQ) elaborado por Bass y Avolio (1990). Los ítems tenían como referente a los directores de los equipos, como líderes formales, y fueron respondidos por los miembros del equipo en una escala de Likert con seis opciones de respuesta entre 1 (“Muy en desacuerdo”) y 6 (“Muy de acuerdo”). Estas puntuaciones individuales se usaron para calcular APCL y HPCL dentro de los equipos. Todos los ítems se presentan en español en el Apéndice.

Para operacionalizar el carisma de los líderes, específicamente APCL, las respuestas individuales se agregaron al nivel del equipo tomando las valoraciones promedio de los miembros del equipo sobre el carisma de sus líderes. Para justificar la agregación de las respuestas individuales, se calcularon una serie de coeficientes e índices. Específicamente, se calcularon los coeficientes de correlación intraclase (ICC(1) e ICC(2)) a partir de un ANOVA unifactorial y el índice de desviación promedio (*Average Deviation Index -ADI*) (Burke et al., 1999). ICC(1) estima la proporción de varianza atribuible a la pertenencia al equipo. ICC(2) estima la fiabilidad de la media del equipo (Bliese, 2000). Y ADI es un índice pragmático de acuerdo (Burke y Dunlap, 2002). El criterio límite superior de este índice, según Burke y Dunlap (2002), es $c/6$, donde c es el número de categorías de respuesta. Los resultados

obtenidos ($ICC(1) = .15$; $ICC(2) = .46$; y $ADI = 0.67$) pueden considerarse satisfactorios en base a puntos de corte estándar (Bliese, 2000; Burke y Dunlap, 2002). El alfa de Cronbach para las puntuaciones agregadas fue de .94.

Homogeneidad en el liderazgo carismático percibido (HPCL). Se midió en T1 y se operacionalizó calculando la desviación típica de las puntuaciones de liderazgo carismático dentro del equipo multiplicadas por -1. La desviación típica es fácil de calcular y entender en comparación con otras medidas de dispersión (Roberson et al., 2007). Además, ha demostrado ser una medida válida para representar la falta de consenso o acuerdo (Schmidt y Hunter, 1989). Aunque, como se acaba de señalar, el nivel de acuerdo general obtenido fue suficiente para agregar las puntuaciones en liderazgo carismático, los resultados mostraron que también hubo una variabilidad considerable en HPCL ($MEDIA = -0.88$, $DE = 0.38$).

Calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo. Se midió en T2 mediante una escala de 5 ítems (González-Romá y Hernández, 2014). Los ítems se respondieron en una escala graduada de 5 puntos, de 1. "Nada" a 5. "Mucho". La agregación a nivel de equipo se puede justificar a partir de los índices obtenidos ($ICC(1) = .12$; $ICC(2) = .38$; y $ADI = 0.44$). El alfa de Cronbach para las puntuaciones agregadas fue de .92.

Desempeño del equipo. Se midió en T2 mediante dos ítems basados en la escala de desempeño grupal de Jehn y colaboradores (1999). Los ítems se respondieron mediante una escala graduada de 5 puntos: desde 1 ("Muy mal" o "Muy malo") a 5 ("Muy bien" o "Muy bueno"). Los índices de agregación en este caso fueron $ICC(1) = .04$, $ICC(2) = .17$; y $ADI = 0.20$. Aunque los ICC son modestos en el mejor de los casos, algunos estudios han sugerido que los valores de $ICC(1)$ en torno al 5% pueden ser lo suficientemente grandes como para probar hipótesis a nivel agregado (Finch y French, 2011; LeBreton y Senter, 2008). En este caso, la fiabilidad se estimó utilizando el coeficiente de Spearman-Brown debido a que existe

evidencia de que este coeficiente es más adecuado que el alfa para escalas de dos ítems (Eisinga et al., 2013). El coeficiente de Spearman-Brown para las puntuaciones agregadas fue .72.

Para evaluar la validez de las puntuaciones obtenidas, se realizó un análisis factorial confirmatorio (AFC) de tres factores sobre las puntuaciones agregadas a nivel de equipo. Dado que las respuestas de los ítems siguieron una distribución normal, se utilizó el método de estimación de máxima verosimilitud. Además, se realizó la prueba de Harman para probar los posibles efectos de varianza del método común. La bondad de ajuste del modelo de tres factores fue aceptable ($\chi^2 = 72.78$; $df = 41$; $p < .01$; $\chi^2 / df = 1.78$; CFI = .93, TLI = .91, RMSEA = .12, SRMR = .05), mientras que la bondad de ajuste del modelo unifactorial no ($\chi^2 = 272.06$; $df = 44$; $p < .01$; $\chi^2 / df = 6.18$; CFI = .53, TLI = .41, RMSEA = .31, SRMR = .22). Para el modelo de tres factores, las saturaciones factoriales estandarizadas fueron estadísticamente significativas ($p < .01$) y oscilaron entre .68 y .95. Las correlaciones entre factores oscilaron entre .22 y .66. Estos resultados tomados en conjunto respaldan la adecuación de los instrumentos de medida.

Variables de control. En primer lugar, se controlaron algunas variables estructurales relevantes: la organización a la que pertenecían las sucursales bancarias, el tamaño del equipo y la antigüedad en el equipo. Se ha demostrado que estas dos últimas variables influyen en el desempeño del equipo de trabajo (Kang et al., 2006). El tamaño del equipo puede influir en la dinámica y el rendimiento del equipo, al facilitar en distinto grado la interacción con otros miembros del equipo, así como la disponibilidad de recursos humanos (Brewer y Kramer, 1986; Smith et al., 1994; Wallmark, 1973). La antigüedad puede afectar al rendimiento del equipo porque una mayor antigüedad fomenta la coordinación y el aprendizaje (Guzzo et al., 2022; Smith et al., 1994). El tamaño del equipo y su antigüedad se midieron preguntando a

los directores de equipo cuántas personas trabajaban en la sucursal bancaria que dirigían y cuántos meses había estado trabajando junto el equipo, respectivamente. Asimismo, para controlar la sucursal bancaria a la que pertenecía los equipos, con el fin de controlar posibles diferencias en la cultura organizacional, se creó una variable *dummy* (0/1).

En segundo lugar, algunas investigaciones sugieren que es más probable que los miembros del equipo estén de acuerdo si comparten algunas similitudes, como las características demográficas (Rentsch y Klimoski, 2001). Por lo tanto, se incluyó la heterogeneidad en tres variables demográficas (género, edad y nivel educativo) como variables de control. Debido a que estas variables se midieron usando diferentes categorías, usamos el índice de Blau (1977) para capturar la heterogeneidad demográfica, donde cero indica que no hay variabilidad en la variable de interés.

Finalmente, también se controló el efecto de la antigüedad de los líderes en los equipos liderados ya que una mayor antigüedad proporciona más oportunidades para desarrollar las habilidades de liderazgo, y existe evidencia meta-analítica de que la antigüedad de los líderes se relaciona positivamente con el desempeño de los equipos (Guzzo et al., 2022).

Análisis

Las hipótesis implicadas en el modelo de investigación se pusieron a prueba mediante *path analysis* con Mplus (Muthen y Muthen, 1998-2017) utilizando métodos de estimación de Máxima Verosimilitud. En cuanto a las variables de control, dado el pequeño número de equipos y la complejidad del modelo, en aras de la parsimonia, se incluyeron en las ecuaciones solo aquellas variables que mostraron correlaciones significativas con las variables del modelo de investigación propuesto. En primer lugar, se probaron las hipótesis 1 y 2, ajustando un modelo que incluía los efectos indirectos de APCL y HCPL en el

rendimiento del equipo a través de la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo. Estos efectos se probaron simultáneamente tal y como se recomienda en la literatura sobre path analysis (p. ej., James et al., 1982). En segundo lugar, se puso a prueba la Hipótesis 3, agregando el término de interacción en la ecuación. Antes de calcular la interacción se obtuvieron las puntuaciones centradas de APCL y HCPL, con el fin de facilitar la interpretación.

Para concluir que existe un efecto de mediación, el efecto indirecto tiene que ser estadísticamente significativo. El efecto indirecto es el producto de los coeficientes involucrados en la cadena de mediación ab , donde a se refiere al coeficiente $X \rightarrow M$, y b se refiere al coeficiente $M \rightarrow Y$, tras controlar X (Sobel, 1982) (donde X es la variable independiente, M es el mediador e Y es la variable dependiente). En el modelo propuesto hay dos efectos indirectos: $APCL \rightarrow$ calidad de comunicación intra-equipo \rightarrow rendimiento del equipo (a_1b en la Figura 1) y $HPCL \rightarrow$ calidad de comunicación intra-equipo \rightarrow rendimiento del equipo) (a_2b en la Figura 1), para las Hipótesis 1 y 2, respectivamente. Considerando que el producto de los coeficientes de regresión no sigue una distribución normal, la significación estadística de los efectos indirectos se puso a prueba mediante *bootstrapping* (MacKinnon et al., 2004; Williams y MacKinnon, 2008). Específicamente, se obtuvieron 10000 muestras con intervalos de confianza (IC) del 95 % con corrección de sesgo (BC -Bias corrected).

Para probar la significación de los efectos de moderación propuestos en la Hipótesis 3, se obtuvo el índice de mediación moderada (Hayes, 2015) (a_3b en la Figura 1) que también se puso a prueba mediante *bootstrapping*. Un índice de mediación moderada estadísticamente significativo indicaría que el efecto indirecto de APCL en el desempeño del equipo a través de la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo no es igual para todos los niveles de HPCL. Para profundizar en los efectos de moderación, y siguiendo la recomendación de Dawson (2014) de evitar el uso de valores específicos de los moderadores (1 desviación típica por

debajo y por encima de las medias correspondientes) los efectos indirectos de ACPL sobre el desempeño del equipo se probaron para los diferentes niveles de HPCL mediante la obtención de las regiones de significación utilizando IC-BC del 95%.

Resultados

Las medias, las desviaciones típicas y las intercorrelaciones entre las variables de estudio se muestran en la Tabla 1 (ver página 107). Puesto que ninguna de las variables de control mostró correlaciones significativas con ninguna de las variables del modelo de investigación, ninguna de ellas se introdujo como covariable.

La Tabla 2 (ver página 108) presenta los resultados del modelo ajustado para probar simultáneamente las Hipótesis 1 y 2. Este modelo mostró un ajuste satisfactorio ($\chi^2 = .20$; g.l. = 2; $\chi^2 / \text{g.l.} = .10$; CFI = 1.00, TLI = 1.00, RMSEA = .00, SRMR = .012)³.

En la hipótesis 1 se propuso que APCL tendría un efecto indirecto positivo en el desempeño del equipo a través de la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo. Los resultados mostraron que, mientras que el segundo coeficiente involucrado en la ruta de mediación (calidad de comunicación intra-equipo \rightarrow desempeño del equipo) fue estadísticamente significativo ($b = .28$, $p < .05$), el primer coeficiente (APCL \rightarrow calidad de comunicación intra-equipo) no lo fue ($a_1 = .20$; $p > .05$). Los resultados se presentan en la Figura 2 (ver página 109). El efecto indirecto a_1b ($0.12 \cdot 0.28$) fue de 0.03, y el *Bootstrapped* IC-BC del

³Aunque el modelo mostró una bondad de ajuste satisfactoria, se probó un modelo de mediación parcial en el que los predictores (APCL y HPCL) tenían un efecto directo sobre el output (rendimiento del equipo). Aunque el modelo con estos dos paths directos adicionales estaba saturado (g.l.= 0), la mejora en el ajuste no fue estadísticamente significativa ($\Delta \chi^2 = .20$; g.l. = 2; $p > .05$). Además, los “efectos” directos de APCL y HPCL en el rendimiento del equipo no fueron estadísticamente significativos (-0.02; 0.03 para APCL y HPCL, respectivamente; $p > .05$ en ambos casos).

95% incluyó el valor cero (-0.02, 0.16) por lo que no fue estadísticamente significativo. Por lo tanto, los resultados no apoyan la Hipótesis 1.

La hipótesis 2 propuso que HPCL tendría un efecto indirecto positivo en el desempeño del equipo a través de la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo. Los coeficientes involucrados en la ruta de mediación (HPCL → calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo, $a_2 = .42$) y (calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo → desempeño del equipo, $b = .28$), fueron estadísticamente significativos ($p < .01$) (ver Figura 2). El efecto indirecto a_2b fue 0.12 (0.42 · 0.28), y el *Bootstrapped* IC-BC al 95 % no incluyó el valor cero (0.03, 0.28). Por lo tanto, los resultados apoyaron la Hipótesis 2

Finalmente, la Hipótesis 3 propuso que HPCL moderaría el efecto indirecto de APCL en el desempeño del equipo a través de la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo. Los resultados apoyaron esta hipótesis. El modelo que incluyó el término de interacción mostró un ajuste satisfactorio ($\chi^2 = .24$; g.l. = 3; $\chi^2 / \text{g.l.} = .08$; CFI = 1.00, TLI = 1.00, RMSEA = .00, SRMR = .015), y la inclusión del término de interacción (ver Tabla 2 en página 108) explicó un 6% adicional de la varianza del mediador ($p < .05$). Además, el coeficiente que estima la interacción fue estadísticamente significativo $a_3 = .38$ ($p < .05$) (ver resultados en Figura 3; pp. 110). Finalmente, el índice de mediación moderada ($a_3b = .11$) fue estadísticamente significativo porque el intervalo de confianza (*Bootstrapped* IC-BC del 95%) no incluyó el valor cero (.002; .30). Este resultado indica que el efecto indirecto de APCL es moderado por HPCL, respaldando la Hipótesis 3.

Para interpretar los efectos indirectos condicionales planteados en la Hipótesis 3, en la Figura 4 (ver página 111) se representa el efecto indirecto condicional de APCL para los diferentes niveles de HPCL, así como los correspondientes intervalos de confianza bootstrap al 95%. La región de significación para estos efectos indirectos condicionales muestra que,

como se esperaba, el efecto indirecto positivo de APCL se vuelve más fuerte a medida que las percepciones se vuelven más homogéneas (es decir, HPCL es más alto) y requiere un nivel mínimo de HPCL para resultar estadísticamente significativo. Como muestra la Figura 4, el efecto indirecto de APCL es estadísticamente significativo cuando HPCL es superior a $-.03$ ($.03$ unidades por debajo de la media), y no es significativo para baja homogeneidad (valores de HPCL debajo de $-.03$).

Discusión

El uso generalizado de los equipos de trabajo como unidad fundamental en las organizaciones ha puesto de relieve la importancia de los líderes o directores de equipo para el rendimiento del equipo. Este estudio se ha centrado en un tipo particular de estilo de liderazgo, el liderazgo carismático, para el que existen evidencias meta-analíticas de su relación con el desempeño del equipo (Banks et al., 2017). Puesto que el carisma de los líderes se basa en las atribuciones de los seguidores y se espera que los miembros del equipo muestren diferentes grados de homogeneidad en esas percepciones (Beimann et al., 2012; Lindell y Brant, 2000), en esta tesis se ha argumentado la necesidad de integrar las percepciones promedio de los miembros del equipo sobre el carisma del líder (APCL) con la homogeneidad en dichas percepciones (HPCL) a la hora de estudiar el impacto del liderazgo carismático sobre el rendimiento de los equipos. Además, se ha propuesto la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo como un mecanismo subyacente clave (mediador) que contribuye a vincular estos dos aspectos del liderazgo carismático a nivel de equipo (APCL y HPCL) con el desempeño del equipo. Los resultados mostraron que HPCL y la interacción entre APCL y HPCL tienen un efecto indirecto positivo en el rendimiento del equipo a través de la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo. Como se esperaba, los resultados muestran que un HPCL

ejerce un efecto indirecto positivo sobre el desempeño y fortalece el efecto indirecto de APCL. A continuación, se discuten las implicaciones de estos hallazgos.

Implicaciones teóricas

Este estudio responde al llamamiento hecho por distintos autores para incorporar los constructos de dispersión en la investigación sobre liderazgo (Boies y Howell, 2006; Chan, 1998; Cole et al., 2010; Le Blanc y González- Romá, 2012; Mathieu et al., 2008). En concreto contribuye a enriquecer el constructo de liderazgo carismático a nivel de equipo al proponer y mostrar que tanto las percepciones promedio de liderazgo carismático (APCL) como la homogeneidad en estas percepciones (HPCL) son importantes para el funcionamiento del equipo (calidad de la comunicación) y su desempeño. Centrándonos en HPCL, esta homogeneidad influye en la calidad de la comunicación del equipo y el rendimiento del equipo más allá de APCL. Este hallazgo sugiere que los equipos cuyos miembros tienen puntos de vista dispares sobre los comportamientos carismáticos de sus líderes tienden a tener una peor calidad de comunicación, lo que a su vez afecta negativamente desempeño del equipo. Además, este resultado pone de manifiesto la importancia de incorporar HPCL en la investigación como un constructo de dispersión que contribuye a mejorar nuestra comprensión sobre los efectos del liderazgo carismático.

En segundo lugar, en una revisión reciente sobre el liderazgo carismático, Antonakis et al. (2016) afirmaron que “para hacer avanzar el campo... necesitamos saber más sobre los *mediadores* y *moderadores* del efecto carismático” (p. 310). Centrándonos en los mediadores, los resultados de este estudio muestran que la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo es un importante mecanismo explicativo que vincula HPCL y la interacción entre las dos facetas del liderazgo carismático consideradas (APCL y HPCL) con el desempeño del equipo. Los resultados apoyan que HPCL fomenta la atracción interpersonal (Byrne, 1971) y facilita la

calidad de la comunicación dentro del equipo, lo que a su vez mejora su desempeño. Además, apoyan la idea de que a través el aprendizaje social (Bandura, 1973), los líderes que son percibidos de forma más homogénea como carismáticos modelan más fácilmente el comportamiento de los miembros del equipo, quienes aprenden de las habilidades de comunicación efectiva de sus líderes. Así, bajo estas condiciones de alta HPCL, los líderes carismáticos pueden contribuir a mejorar la calidad de la comunicación del equipo y (indirectamente) su desempeño. Este hallazgo contribuye a profundizar nuestro conocimiento sobre *por qué* y *cómo* el liderazgo carismático influye en el funcionamiento del equipo (calidad de la comunicación) y sus resultados (rendimiento).

Tercero, el papel moderador de HPCL (tanto en la relación directa entre APCL y la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo, como indirecta entre APCL y el desempeño a través de la comunicación) también contribuye a avanzar el conocimiento sobre el liderazgo carismático. Los resultados muestran que APCL tiene “efectos” directos sobre la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo, e indirectos sobre el rendimiento de los equipos, cuando el nivel de HPCL es medio o alto, pero no cuando el nivel de HPCL es bajo. Cuando esto último ocurre, pueden aparecer fricciones y tensiones entre los miembros del equipo, quienes tienen puntos de vista diferentes sobre el comportamiento de su líder (Feinberg et al., 2005). Este entorno social dificulta el papel de modelado de los líderes carismáticos como buenos comunicadores y, por ello, atenúa el impacto directo de APCL sobre la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo y su impacto indirecto sobre el desempeño. Cuando HPCL es medio o alto, el hecho de compartir puntos de vista similares sobre un aspecto clave del equipo (el líder) refuerza la visión compartida y fomenta un ambiente social positivo entre los miembros del equipo que favorece la comunicación (Cole et al., 2011). En estas condiciones, la influencia de APCL sobre la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo (e indirectamente sobre el desempeño) se intensifica. Por tanto, las teorías y modelos de liderazgo carismático

deben considerar este efecto de moderación para lograr una comprensión más integral de cómo las diferentes facetas examinadas en este estudio (APCL y HPCL) influyen sobre el funcionamiento y los resultados del equipo.

En relación con el efecto de interacción, éste ayuda a comprender por qué la Hipótesis 1 no fue respaldada (es decir, por qué el efecto indirecto de APCL en el desempeño del equipo a través de la calidad de la comunicación no fue estadísticamente significativo): este efecto solo es relevante cuando HPCL alcanza niveles medios y altos. Este hallazgo enfatiza la necesidad de mejorar nuestra comprensión de las condiciones límite que facilitan la influencia del liderazgo carismático a nivel de equipo (Antonakis et al., 2016).

Investigación futura

Los resultados también tienen una serie de implicaciones para futuras investigaciones. Primero, el hallazgo de que HPCL es importante para la comunicación y el desempeño del equipo debería fomentar la investigación sobre constructos de dispersión relacionados con otras formas de liderazgo, como el liderazgo auténtico, por ejemplo (Luthans y Avolio, 2003; Graham, 1991; Eva et al., 2019; Zhang et al, en prensa). Esto permitirá determinar si los resultados del presente estudio son generalizables a otros estilos de liderazgo.

En segundo lugar, teniendo en cuenta los efectos positivos de HPCL sobre el rendimiento de los equipos a través de la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo, es necesario investigar sobre los factores que promueven y facilitan HPCL. Algunas investigaciones sugieren que es más probable que un equipo esté de acuerdo si los miembros comparten algunas similitudes (por ejemplo, características demográficas) y si el equipo tiene un tamaño suficientemente pequeño para facilitar que todos los miembros interactúen entre sí (Rentsch y Klimoski, 2001). Otros antecedentes pueden provenir de los propios líderes y su motivación para triunfar como tales (Barbutto , 2005). Dado que los equipos organizacionales tienden a

homogeneizarse con el tiempo (Schneider et al., 2000), sería interesante realizar un estudio longitudinal y observar cómo cambia HPCL y qué influye en dichos cambios.

Implicaciones prácticas

Debido a que el liderazgo carismático puede enfrentarse (Antonakis et al 2011; Richardson y Thayer 1993), los programas de entrenamiento pueden usarse para fomentar percepciones altas (y homogéneas) sobre el carisma de los líderes entre los miembros del equipo que fomenten la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo y el rendimiento. El modelo de Desarrollo de Liderazgo de Rango Completo (FRLD) (Avolio y Bass, 1991) ha sido utilizado por otros investigadores para desarrollar y probar varios enfoques de entrenamiento en liderazgo, que han resultado exitosos para fomentar el liderazgo carismático (ver por ejemplo, Parry y Sinha, 2005). Otra línea de intervención puede ser mejorar las habilidades comunicativas de los líderes, ya que dichas habilidades también pueden entrenarse (de Vries et al., 2010).

Por otra parte, para aumentar HPCL dentro de los equipos, las intervenciones orientadas a aumentar la interacción social dentro de los equipos deberían conducir a una mayor homogeneidad en las percepciones sobre los comportamientos de los líderes (González-Romá y Peiró, 2014). La razón es que, a través de estas interacciones sociales, los miembros del equipo construyen colectivamente la realidad y asignan significado a los fenómenos que les rodean (Ashforth, 1985). Los miembros del equipo pueden aumentar sus interacciones sociales mediante la planificación organizacional de reuniones formales e informales para discutir asuntos del equipo.

Limitaciones

El presente estudio tiene algunas limitaciones que deben tenerse en cuenta a la hora de interpretar los resultados. En primer lugar, los resultados se basan en una muestra pequeña compuesta por un solo tipo de equipos (sucursales bancarias). Estos factores (tamaño de la muestra y tipo de equipo) limitan la generalización de los resultados. Estudios futuros deberían validar los resultados en muestras más grandes y heterogéneas, compuestas por equipos de otros sectores (por ejemplo, educación, salud, manufactura, etc.). Sin embargo, es razonable pensar que la lógica propuesta en este estudio sobre los efectos de APCL y HPCL debería operar en equipos de diversa naturaleza. Apoyando esta idea, el meta-análisis de Jackson et al. (2013) que incluyó muestras de diferentes sectores, mostró correlaciones significativas entre liderazgo carismático y rendimiento. Por otra parte, y siguiendo con la muestra de estudio, todos los equipos analizados operaban en un país occidental. El meta-análisis de Jackson et al. (2013) mostró que las correlaciones entre el liderazgo carismático y algunos resultados (por ejemplo, el compromiso organizacional) variaban entre culturas individualistas y colectivistas. Estas culturas son típicas de los países occidentales y orientales, respectivamente. Por ello, futuros estudios también deberían validar los resultados en países culturalmente diversos.

En segundo lugar, los datos se recopilaron de una sola fuente (miembros del equipo). Por lo tanto, la varianza de método común podría haber incrementado las relaciones entre las percepciones del carisma y los procesos y resultados del equipo. Sin embargo, el hecho de que las variables de estudio se midieran en dos momentos diferentes debería reducir en cierta medida el impacto de este problema. De hecho, la varianza de método común no parece ser un problema serio porque, como se mostró en la sección de Método, ya que la prueba de

Harman respaldó la adecuación del modelo multidimensional subyacente a las variables de estudio, en comparación con un modelo unidimensional.

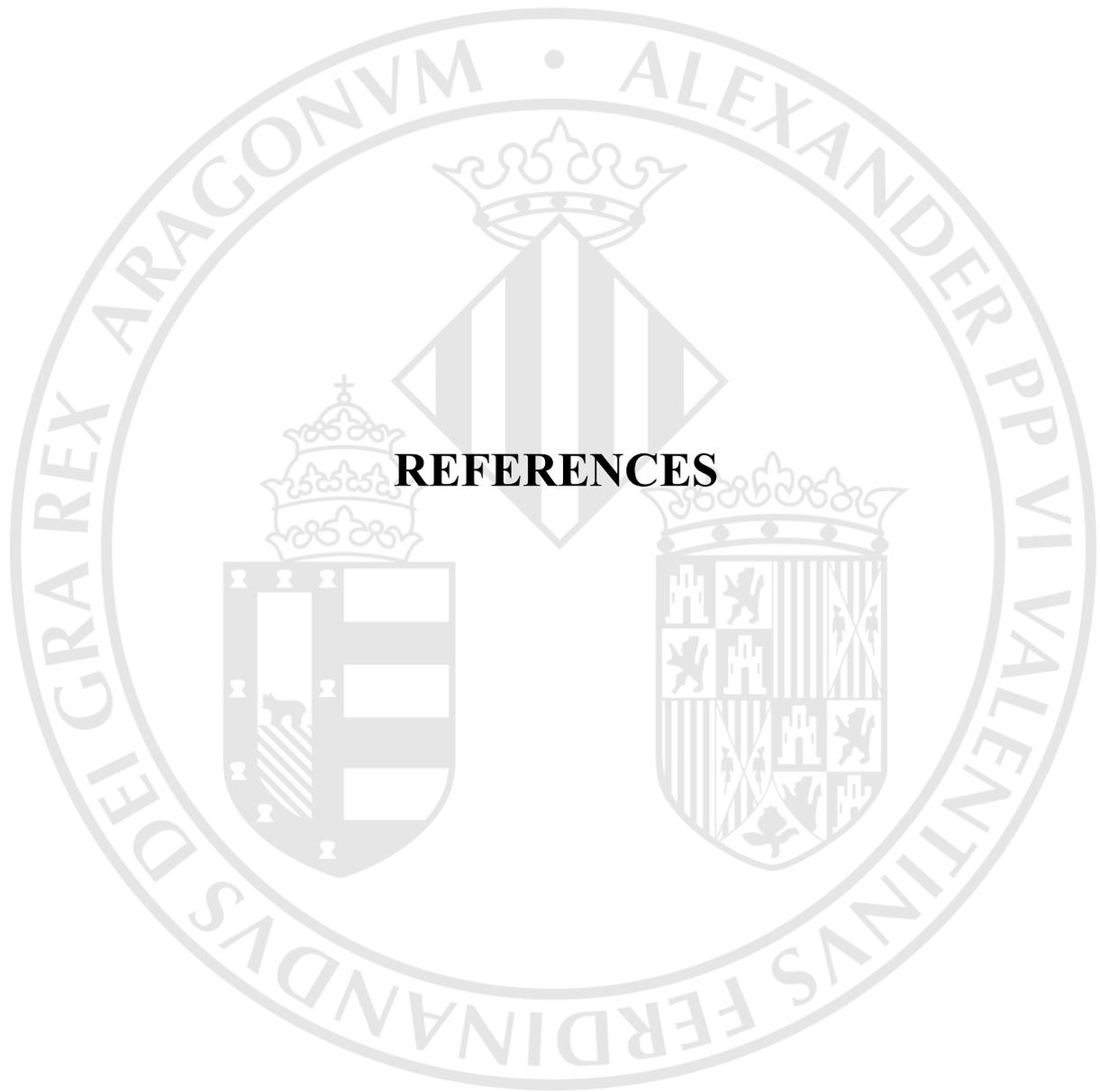
En tercer lugar, la medida del desempeño de los equipos se basó en las evaluaciones de los miembros del equipo. Esto podría ser problemático porque las personas tienden a inflar las autoevaluaciones de desempeño (p. ej., Janssen y Van der Vegt, 2011; Pfeffer y Sutton, 2006). Sin embargo, algunos académicos argumentan que estos efectos son: a) menos serios y amenazantes cuando se evalúa a los equipos que cuando se evalúa el desempeño individual, y b) especialmente importantes cuando se evalúan los niveles de desempeño de los empleados, pero menos importantes cuando el interés está en las relaciones entre variables (Wall et al., 2004). Debido a que en esta tesis doctoral el interés se centraba en el desempeño del equipo y la relación entre éste y el resto de variables del modelo, los problemas mencionados no deberían haber afectado seriamente a los resultados obtenidos. Sin embargo, estudios futuros deberían replicar los resultados obtenidos utilizando otras fuentes para medir el desempeño del equipo (por ejemplo, a través de las evaluaciones de los líderes de los equipos o mediante indicadores objetivos).

En cuarto lugar, la variables mediadora (calidad de la comunicación) y la variable resultado (rendimiento del equipo) se midieron al mismo tiempo, lo que no es congruente con el lugar temporal que ocupan en el modelo de investigación. Esto podría haber inflado su relación. Separamos seis meses en el tiempo APCL y HPCL (y su interacción) del mediador porque la relación entre estas variables y la calidad de la comunicación es novedosa y requiere evidencias empíricas sólidas, mientras que la relación entre la calidad de la comunicación del equipo y su rendimiento se ha documentado en numerosas investigaciones y ha sido respaldada por evidencia meta-analítica (Marlow et al., 2018). En cualquier caso,

futuros estudios que pretendan replicar los resultados obtenidos deberían separar en el tiempo la variable mediadora y la variable resultado.

Conclusión

Esta tesis doctoral muestra que, a nivel de equipo, la homogeneidad dentro del equipo en las percepciones de liderazgo carismático (HPCL) y la interacción entre las percepciones promedio de liderazgo carismático (APCL) y HPCL tienen un efecto indirecto significativo sobre el desempeño del equipo a través de la calidad de la comunicación intra-equipo. Estos resultados contribuyen a mejorar nuestra comprensión del papel del liderazgo carismático en la mejora del funcionamiento y el rendimiento de los equipos de trabajo.



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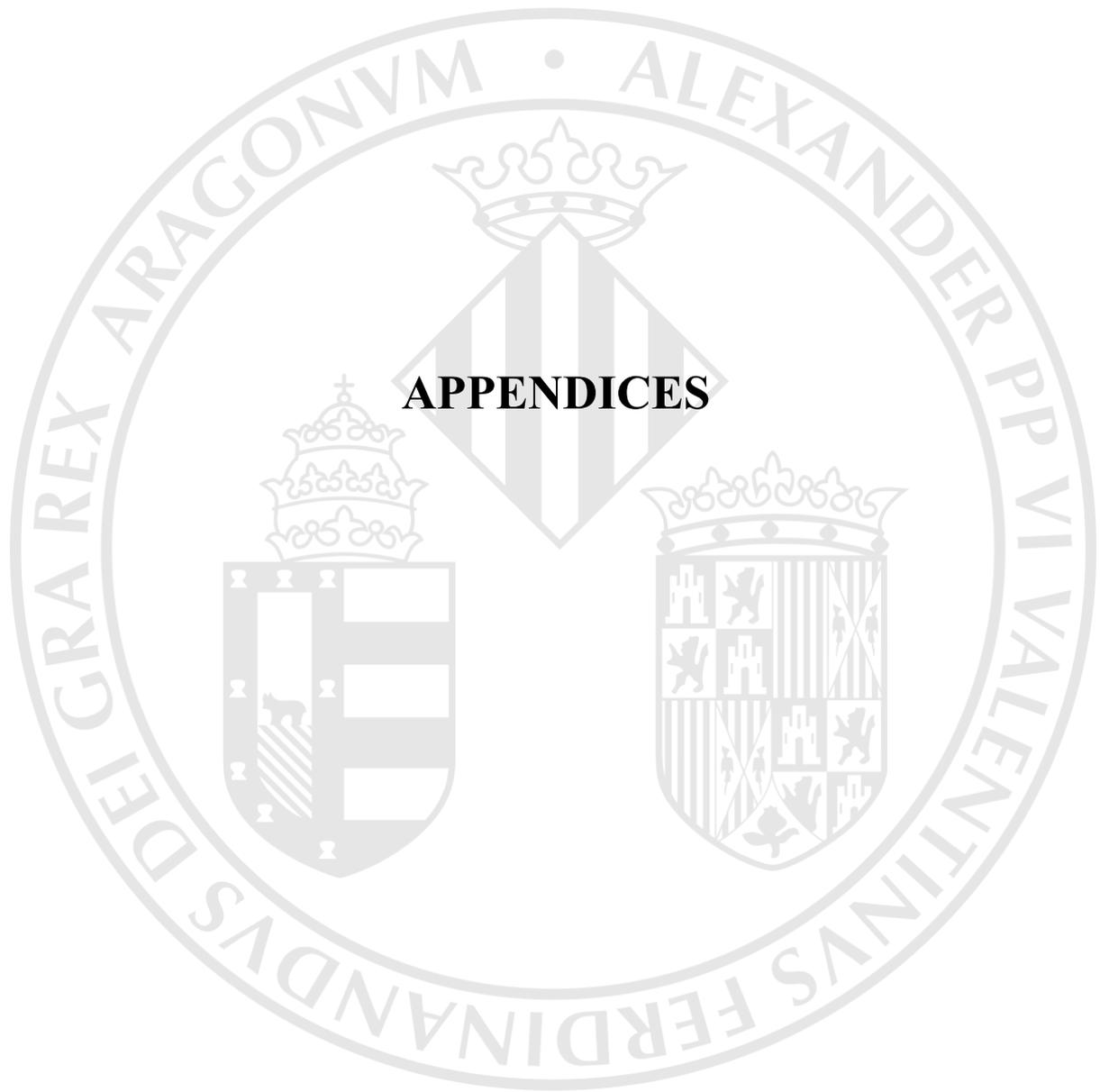
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Appendix

Items used to measure the study variables:

Charismatic leadership

My team manager ...

1. shows enthusiasm for what I usually have to do
2. enhances my optimism about the future
3. believes in and transmits the importance of our mission
4. I am proud to work with him/her

The response scale ranged from 1. Strongly disagree and 6. Strongly agree.

Intra-team communication quality

To what extent is the communication among the members of your team:

1. Clear
2. Effective
3. Complete
4. Fluent
5. On time

The response scale ranged from 1. Not at all to 5. Very much.

Team performance

1. How well do you think your team does the assigned work?
2. What is the quality of the work performed by your team?

The response scale ranged from 1. Very bad to 5. Very good.

Apéndice: Ítems

Liderazgo carismático

El director de mi equipo de trabajo ...

5. Muestra entusiasmo ante lo que debo hacer habitualmente
6. Potencia mi optimismo sobre el futuro
7. Cree y transmite la importancia de nuestra misión
8. Me siento orgulloso de trabajar con él.

La escala de respuesta osciló entre 1. Totalmente en desacuerdo y 6. Totalmente de acuerdo.

Calidad de la comunicación dentro intra-equipo

¿En qué medida la comunicación entre los miembros de su equipo es:

6. Fluida
7. Clara
8. Eficaz
9. A tiempo
10. Completa?

La escala de respuesta osciló entre 1. Nada y 5. Mucho.

Rendimiento del equipo

3. ¿Cómo cree usted que su equipo realiza el trabajo?

La escala de respuesta osciló entre 1. Muy mal y 5. Muy bien.

4. ¿Cómo es la calidad del trabajo que realiza su equipo?

La escala de respuesta va desde 1. Muy mala hasta 5. Muy bien.