How charismatic leadership affects direct follower behavior and perceived meeting effectiveness.

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Abstract
By viewing leadership as a co-constructive process between a leader and his/her followers, this study assesses the effects of charismatic leadership on follower behaviors displayed during meetings in a real work setting. A specific focus lied on visioning-, humorous-, and self-defending behaviors. Consequently, the effects of these behaviors on perceived meeting effectiveness were analyzed. These behaviors appeared to have no effect on perceived meeting effectiveness. However, leaders that were perceived as being charismatic did show more visioning- and humorous behaviors, and less self-defending behaviors, than their lower scoring counterparts. These results have several practical implications, which are mentioned in this paper before presenting several future research directions.

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Charismatic leadership; transformational leadership; followership; meeting effectiveness; visioning; humor; self-defending behaviors

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1. INTRODUCTION

The field of leadership research is evolving rapidly, bringing along many opportunities to the models and methods applied in business research (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009). New technologies such as video-observation methods and behavioral coding enable us to analyze leadership behaviors, a topic already discussed by many scholars, and describe their effects more accurately than ever before. The importance of leadership as a research topic has not diminished throughout the years. Many meta-analyses have demonstrated that leadership is positively related to desirable organizational outcomes (e.g., Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Wang, Oh, Courtright, & Colbert, 2011).

Even though there are seemingly countless definitions of leadership, most leadership scholars would probably agree that leadership can be defined as 1) an influencing process that exists between a leader and his/her followers and 2) the way this process is explained by dispositional leader characteristics and behaviors, follower attributions and perceptions of the leader, and the context in which the influencing process occurs (Antonakis & Day, 2011). Even though this definition is primarily centered around the leader, it also takes into account the different aspects of leader-follower interaction and the resulting organizational outcomes. Besides this, the importance of the context in which leadership occurs is also acknowledged, since this aspect tends to affect the leadership type that emerges and whether it will be effective (Liden & Antonakis, 2009). Since the 1980's, numerous studies have been conducted on transformational, charismatic, and transactional leadership in order to determine what leadership style is most effective (Yukl, 1999; Avolio et al., 2009). According to Lowe, Kroeck, and Sivasubramaniam (1996) charisma has the strongest link with leader effectiveness. This view is supported by Paulsen, Maldonado, Callan, & Ayoko (2009) who argue that employees are influenced more by charismatic leaders since these leaders are seen as effective and strong leaders with appealing visions.

Most studies that examined the full transformational, charismatic, and transactional range of leader behaviors (using the so-called Full Range of Leadership Theory; Bass & Avolio, 1997) relied solely on quantitative survey measures (Antonakis, Avolio & Sivasubramaniam, 2003; Lowe et al., 1996). This might be problematic since several studies demonstrated that actual leader behavior displayed often deviates from perceptual leader ratings (e.g., Brown & Keeping, 2005; Hoogeboom & Wilderom, 2015. Followers showed to experience difficulty in recalling what sort of leader behavior were actually displayed during meetings. Most objective studies that have been conducted focused on the relationship between transformational leadership style and performance (e.g. Lowe et al., 1996; Judge and Piccolo, 2004) but the relationship between charisma and objective measures of performance is less clear (Van den Berg, Wiersma, & Wilderom, 2012). Another limitation of past research conducted towards charismatic leadership is that most studies adopted an entirely leader-centric approach, even though it has been long known that followers and followership have a significant impact on leadership (Carsten, Lowe, Riggio & Uhl-Bien, 2013). Hence, much is still unknown about the actual charismatic leader behaviors and their effects on follower behavior and meeting efficiency. According to Fairhurst & Uhl-Bien (2012) leadership can only take place when there is followership, and is seen as a social, relational process between a leader and his/her followers. This co-constructive view bestows great importance to the role of follower behaviors within the leadership process. Many scholars have argued that leadership cannot be understood to its full extent without analyzing the influence of followership within this social process (e.g., Carsten et al., 2010; Howell & Shamir, 2005; Sy, 2010). Taking these theoretical recommendations into account, this paper elaborates on the interpretation of leadership as a co-constructive, social process resulting in the adoption of both leader- and follower behaviors as research variables.

The most common place of interaction between leaders and their followers are staff meetings. Today, staff meetings are ubiquitous in the modern day enterprise and many scholars have linked these organizational meetings to the levels of job satisfaction and employee perceptions towards the organization (Nixon and Littlepage, 1992; Rogelberg, Leach, Warr, and Burnfield, 2006). Evidently, these meetings are seen as an investment by managers since they cost time and money which also creates the essence of ensuring that meetings are efficient. Rogelberg et al. (2012) stress the importance of efficient leadership during meetings since the leaders play an essential role in these contexts and are perceived as being the facilitators of team decision making, brainstorming, and clarifying organizational tasks. As Liden & Antonakis (2009) mentioned in their paper, leadership is a context specific process and therefore a contextual, behavioral approach with precise observation methods is increasingly being called for (Allen and Rogelberg, 2013).

The research goal of this paper is focused towards identifying the influences of charismatic leader behavior on meeting effectiveness and the following research question will be answered in the paper: W*hich specific behavioral patterns are shown in staff meetings by charismatic leaders (compared to less-charismatic leaders) and to what extent does charismatic leadership influence follower behaviors and perceived meeting effectiveness?*

An interview and study conducted by Sparks (2014) on charismatic leadership showed that the leaders that were subject of the study perceived humor as being one of their most important instruments to influence followers. The effects of humor on meeting efficiency and group dynamics have been theorized by several scholars (e.g. Priest & Swain, 2002; Vinton, 1989) and according to Romero and Pessolido (2008) it is becoming ever more vital to understand humor in the workplace since employees are putting an increasing amount of value on having fun at work. Meindl & Lerner (1983) and Ashforth & Mael (1989) state that, even though barriers that counteract open communication exist, charismatic leadership reduces those barriers to some extent by making followers feel at ease and worthy. Besides making use of certain behaviors to make followers feel comfortable, leaders also display behaviors that seem to accomplish the exact opposite. Schyns and

Schilling (2013) conducted a meta-analysis and concluded that destructive leadership behaviors have a significant impact on attitudes towards the leader and follower work behaviors. This paper therefore argues that these alleged self-defending behaviors have a negative impact on meeting effectiveness, and that charismatic leaders will try to avoid using them.

The aim of this paper is to contribute to the existing leadership theories by determining the effects of charismatic leadership on follower behaviors during meetings and how this relates to followers' perception of meeting effectiveness. This study will analyze the effects of charismatic leadership on visioning, humor, and self-defending behaviors in a 'normal' work setting by combining the analysis of video-coded data with post-meeting surveys. By making use of inter-reliable video-coded data this study distinguishes itself from previous studies that solely relied on a survey-only measurement approach.

The paper will be structured as follows. First, the theory section will shed some light on existing literature with regards to charismatic leadership, meeting effectiveness, humor, and self-defending behavior. This section also harbors the hypotheses of this research. Afterwards, the methodological design of the study will be discussed as well as the results that were derived from the data. Subsequently, the limitations of this study are explained and recommendations for future research are made before presenting our final conclusions.

2. THEORY & HYPOTHESES

2.1 Charismatic Leadership

Bass (1985) was the first to make a distinction between transformational and transactional leadership. Unlike the "traditional" (more transactional) models, theories of transformational leadership put emphasis on values and emotions rather than solely focusing on the task-oriented, rational processes. Transactional leadership can be described as leadership that is predominantly based on the exchange of rewards contingent on performance, whereas transformational leadership seeks to transform and inspire followers to perform beyond expectation, to make self-sacrifices for the benefit of the organization (Avolio et al., 2009). Typical transformational, relation-oriented, behaviors include showing individualized consideration, stimulating creativity and presenting followers with an inspiring vision. Many authors have ascribed an increase in positive leader outcomes to high-quality relations between leaders and their followers (Yukl, 1999).

Bass (1985) suggested that charisma is a subcomponent of transformational leadership and since then charismatic leadership has received a great deal of attention from researchers, quite possibly because of its positive association with organizational performance (e.g., Baum, Locke, & Kirkpatrick, 1998; Fuller, Patterson, Hester, & Stringer, 1996; Waldman, Bass, & Yammarino, 1990). The charismatic and transformational style have some overlapping traits, but are theoretically distinct (Antonakis, 2012; Yukl, 1999). Transformational leadership is a broader term, and includes more behaviors than charismatic leadership. Transformational leadership includes more directly observable behaviors such as individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation, whereas charismatic leadership is more symbolic and is derived from certain leader attributions and actions that followers expect from true leaders, creating the alchemy of charisma (Shamir, 1999).

House (1977) and Shamir et al. (1993) defined the following behaviors as being charismatic: articulating an appealing vision, emphasizing ideological aspects of the work and providing ideological explanations, communicating high performance expectations, emphasizing a collective identity, expressing confidence that subordinates can attain them, modeling exemplary behavior, and being self-confident. According to Conger (1988) and Kanungo (1992) charismatic leadership behavioral patterns consist of displaying unconventional behavior, showing sensitivity towards the environment, articulating an innovative strategic vision, and showing sensitivity to member needs. In order to analyze the full range of effects of (transactional, charismatic, and transformational) leadership behaviors Bass & Avolio (2002) developed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) consisting of 9 leadership factors. Three of these factors are used to assess charismatic leadership behavior, which will also be used in this study: *idealized influence, inspirational behavior,* and *inspirational motivation*.

Throughout the years, many scholars have tried to describe the effects of charismatic leadership behaviors on followers. According to House et al. (1993) one of the most significant effects of charismatic leadership behavior is that it increases the intrinsic value of effort within followers, since charismatic leadership is presumed to enhance followers' belief in the value of "standing up and being counted". Furthermore, by increasing the effort-accomplishment expectancies and expressing high expectations towards the followers, charismatic leaders enhance the self-esteem followers and their confidence in the abilities to meet those expectations (Eden, 1990; Yukl, 1989). So in theory, charismatic leadership behavior has a lot of potential to enhance employee satisfaction and motivation during meetings. From these theories, our first hypotheses is derived.

H1: Charismatic leadership is positively related to meeting effectiveness.

2.2 Meeting effectiveness

In order to study the relationship between charismatic leadership, self-defending behavior, visioning, humor and meeting effectiveness, we defined meeting effectiveness by building on the work of Rogelberg, Leach, Warr, and Burnfield (2006). These authors propose that meetings can be defined as purposeful work-related interactions between at least two individuals (Rogelberg, Leach, Warr, and Burnfield, 2006) mostly directed by a leader (Clark, 1996). According to Allen & Rogelberg (2013) and Schwartzman (1989) meetings also function as a place where true leadership is born. The interaction between leaders and

followers during a meeting has more structure than a normal conversation in everyday situations, but are less structured than an instructive talk from a leader to a follower individually. Since meetings generally structure and accommodate work activities of employees, meetings are crucial to achieve organizational targets that are set (Rogelberg et al., 2006). Nixon and Littlepage (1992) also stress the importance for organizations and managers to spend more time to enhance the effectiveness of meetings since ineffective meetings have the ability to cause lasting mental effects (i.e., a negative attitude towards meetings) on followers, a perception that is shared by Leach et al. (2009). By facilitating effective meetings in which participants are given the opportunity to network and socialize with other employees while sharing fruitful ideas and information, member participation tends to increase and the overall perception of followers towards meetings improves (Nixon and Littlepage, 1992; Rogelberg et al., 2006).

2.3-Visioning

An increasing amount of complex organizational tasks is being assigned to teams rather than to individuals (Ginnet, 1990). Teams are being utilized as a basis for decision-making and structuring work by decentralizing assignments to several team members. An essential part of team effectiveness is determined by the level of information sharing as this factor has a significant impact on team performance, decision satisfaction, knowledge integration, and cohesion (DeChurch et al., 2009). Duncan et al. (1996) also argue that if team members have a good shared understanding of the team, equipment, task, and situation, the team performance will improve. This level of understanding between members can be reached by visioning behavior of the leader, which includes giving one's own opinion and suggestions about how to tackle existing organizational issues (Bales, 1950). The logic behind this lies in the simple fact that when information and suggestions are being shared by team members, it becomes a topic for discussion, susceptible to the expertise and opinion of all team-members instead of just one member (Mohammed & Dumville, 2001). A high level of employee commitment can also be reached by the creation of common vision, mission, or transcendent goal (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; House 1977). By developing an organizational vision the charismatic leader energizes and motivates the followers (Latham & Locke, 1991). The leader's visioning clarifies why the followers' efforts are significant to the future achievements of the organization. We hypothesize that because of this, followers will feel more encouraged to participate in essential meeting processes, such as brainstorming. In other words, visioning can be a powerful managerial tool that creates a strong sense of direction among followers (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). From this theory, our next two hypotheses are derived:

H2a: Leader visioning behavior is positively related to the charismatic leadership rating.

H2b: Leader visioning behavior is positively related to meeting effectiveness.

According to Fischer et al. (2001) the inability to share information and opinions effectively is one of the biggest problems in using information for collaborative decision-making. So in order for a leader to be effective in a meeting, enhancing team visioning is a must (Larson et al., 1996). Several studies have shown that members of a group are likely to be less willing to share their opinions and information with individuals they perceive to be different from themselves (Devine, 1999; Miranda & Saunders, 2003). However, Meindl & Lerner (1983) and Ashforth & Mael (1989) argue that when charismatic leaders increase the emphasis put on a collective identity they also increase the likelihood of collective oriented follower behavior. Therefore it can be expected that leaders that display charismatic behavior inspire followers to get a collective feeling that reduces personal barriers, making information sharing and follower visioning more fluent. Charismatic leaders are successful in motivating followers to overstep their self-interests in order to do what is best for the company, even if, beforehand, they might not have been capable of doing so (House, 1977; Bass, 1985) which again leads to a better follower participation in brainstorm sessions. Therefore, the following hypotheses of this study anticipate that:

H2c: Follower visioning is positively related to the charismatic leadership rating.

H2d: Follower visioning is positively related to meeting effectiveness.

2.4 Self-defending behaviors

In order to research the full-range of leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1997) it is essential not only to analyze the transformational and task-oriented leadership behaviors, but also the supposedly detrimental behaviors. These behaviors can be defined as behaviors that impair the effectiveness and/or motivation of followers (Einarsen, Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007). Even though these behaviors seem to be damaging to the goals and tasks that need to be achieved in organizations, they take place daily in organizational settings and are therefore being considered as being a part of a leader's full behavioral repertoire (Schyns & Schilling, 2013). The next hypotheses anticipate a negative impact of self-defending behaviors on the charismatic leadership rating of a leader and the perceived meeting effectiveness:

H3a: Self-defending leader behavior is negatively related to the charismatic leadership rating.

H3b: Self-defending leader behavior is negatively related to meeting effectiveness.

According to Van der Weide & Wilderom (2004), one of the requirements of a team to operate effectively is that various ideas and opinions have to be taken into account and that there should be an open attitude towards change. Self-defending behaviors, such as showing disinterest, defending one's own position, and giving negative feedback imply that there is no openness towards change and team members might feel less motivated to share new ideas. Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Finkenauer, & Vohs (2001) even claim that these demotivating leadership

behaviors might have a more profound influence on followers than transformational behaviors. These theorethical findings have led us to hypothesize the following:

H3c: Self-defending follower behavior is negatively related to the charismatic leadership rating.

H3d: Self-defending follower behavior is negatively related to meeting effectiveness.

2.5 Humor

An increasing amount of employees is perceiving humor to be an essential part of the workplace, as they expect their work not just to be about productivity but also about fun (Romero & Pescosolido, 2008). Besides the obvious social advantages of fun there are also some managerial motivations to ensure humor at the workplace. Humor reduces stress, which makes employees more open to input and good communication (Morreal, 1991; Romero & Pescosolido, 2008). This creates an open environment in which followers feel more encouraged to share opinions and ideas. As mentioned before, a good communication during a meeting is also positively related to visioning, which in turn is hypothesized to be positively related to meeting effectiveness. Furthermore, humor also appears to help create bonds among the employees (Vinton, 1989) which would also help reduce the team communication barriers posed by several authors (Devine, 1999; Miranda & Saunders, 2003) regarding communication between people that do not know each other all too well. Complementary to this, Priest and Swain (2002) argue that employees perceive it to be normal that effective leaders control group moral by making use of good-hearted jokes. The following hypotheses are derived from the theory:

H4a: Humorous leader behavior is positively related to the charismatic leadership rating.

H4b: Humorous leader behavior is positively related to meeting effectiveness.

Humor is one of the four most predominant techniques used by charismatic leaders to influence others (Sparks, 2014). By making use of humor, leaders develop relationships with followers and alleviate tense situations (Dubinsky, Yammarinho, & Jolson, 1995). Compared to tense situations, humor flows a lot more freely in less tense situations. When followers feel free to use humor they will feel more at ease, creating an open voice climate in which followers are confident and relaxed (Avolio et al., 1999). This contributes to team effectiveness and a good atmosphere during meetings. Therefore the following hypotheses were derived:

H4c: Humorous follower behavior is positively related to the charismatic leadership rating.

H4d: Humorous follower behavior is positively related to meeting effectiveness.

Figure 1 provides an overview of the hypotheses and the anticipated negative or positive correlations. An important notice is that this research model will be tested both from a leader-centric approach (hypotheses a & b) and from a follower-centric approach (hypotheses c & d).

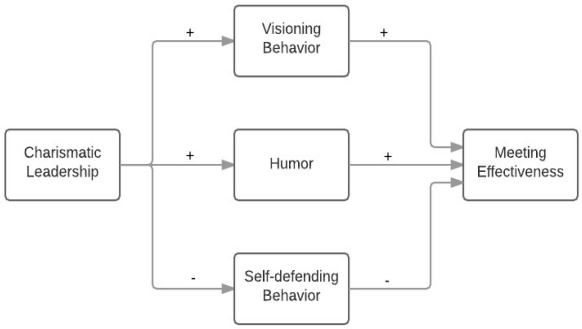

Figure 1: the research model adopted in this study.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Design of the study

Two different data sources were used during this cross-sectional design study: (1) video-coded leader and follower behavior during staff meetings, and (2) a survey that measured followers' perception of a leader's level of charisma and the effectiveness of the meeting. Video-coded observation made sure that the data was objective, thereby enhancing the validity of this study (Podsakoff, Lee, MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2003).

3.2 Sampling

The study was conducted within one of the largest Dutch public sector organizations. The leader sample consisted of 44 leaders, operating either at higher (M1) or middle (M2) management levels within the organization. The sample was comprised of 30 male (68.2%) and 13 females (29.5%). Unfortunately, one of the leaders was unable to complete the survey. The average age of the leaders was 48.8 years old, ranging from 27 to 61 years (SD = 7.89). The average job tenure of the leader sample is 12.3 years, ranging from 1 to 35(SD=12.33).

The follower sample consisted of 550 followers, of which 315 were male (57.3%) and 195 were female (35.5). 40 (7.3%) respondents forgot, or chose not, to disclose their gender. The average age of the followers was 48.6 years on average, ranging from 19 to 65 years (SD = 10.29). Furthermore, the followers had an average job tenure of 23.7 years, ranging from 1 month to 53 years (SD = 13.34). The leaders and followers were asked to fill out a survey directly after each video recorded staff meeting. The survey contained questions regarding the leader- and team effectiveness, their cognitive and affective trust in the leader, the leader's degree of transactional, transformational (charismatic), and goal-focused leadership as well as multiple questions regarding the overall feeling of participants towards the rest of their team and their job.

3.3 Measures

Charismatic Leadership. The degree to which a leader is perceived to have a charismatic leadership style was assessed through follower's survey scores. This leadership style, as perceived by the followers, was measured with the MLQ items, Form 5X (Bass and Avolio, 1995). Lowe et al. (1996) have shown that the MLQ items establish good construct validity and other scholars (e.g., Avolio et al., 1999) have also concluded that the MLQ-Form 5X is a sound instrument for measuring the transformational (and therefore, also the charismatic) leadership style.

According to the literature regarding charismatic leadership behaviors (Anderson & Wanberg, 1991; Bass & Avolio, 2002; Conger, 1988; House, 1977; Kanungo, 1998) three items from the MLQ component scales correspond with charismatic leadership: idealized influence-attributes (4 items, e.g., 'This person displays a sense of power and confidence', $\alpha = 0.796$), inspirational motivation (4 items, e.g., 'Talks optimistically about the future, $\alpha = 0.859$) and inspirational behavior (4 items, e.g. 'This person specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose', and 'Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission', $\alpha = 0.819$). The response categories ranged from 1 (never) to 7 (always). These three subscales were aggregated to represent the construct of charismatic leadership, since transformational/charismatic leadership is a higher order construct comprising conceptually distinct yet commonly inter-correlated scales (Bass, 1985). Aggregating this construct is consistent with previous empirical work regarding transformational research (e.g. Bass & Avolio, 2004). The overall Cronbach's Alpha of the charismatic leadership construct in this study was .81.

Meeting effectiveness. The effectiveness of the meetings was measured by using 3 meeting-effectiveness items from the MLQ. The meeting effectiveness score as perceived by the followers will be used, since the focus of this study lies on researching the relationship between a leader's charismatic behaviors and the follower's perception of these behaviors. This measure of meeting effectiveness consisted of sample items such as: 'Overall, our meetings are productive' and 'The meetings I attend are worth my time'. The response categories ranged from 1 (I totally disagree) to 7 (I totally agree) on the Likert's scale. The meeting effectiveness construct had a Cronbach's alpha validity of .89.

Humor. A different approach is used to assess the amount of humor portrayed during each meeting, since 'humor' is not represented in any of the questions of the MLQ. Therefore, the behavioral coding scheme was used (Van der Weide, 2007). During the coding process, which is explained more elaborately in section 3.4, every 'funny' act that makes other members of the group laugh is scored as humor. An important criterion here is that the laughter is genuine, and not nervous or uninterested. These latter events are part of another category. Making fun of others and laughing about your own jokes are also scored in another category. The amount of humor shown during the observed meetings is subdivided in the duration of the humorous situations, and the frequency that humor was displayed.

Visioning behaviors. The 'visioning' behavior was subdivided in three components: 1) stating one's own opinion, 2) giving long-term visions, and 3) giving own opinion on the mission of the organization. This research takes both frequency and duration of these behaviors into consideration.

Self-defending behaviors. This set of defensive behaviors consists of three components: 1) showing disinterest, 2) defending one's own position, 3) and providing negative feedback. Whenever a subject displayed behavior that lacked a sufficient level of interests in another member, or their opinion, of the team this was marked as showing disinterest. If a subject showed egocentric, arrogant, or actively placing other members 'below him/her self' this was scored in the 'defending one's own position' category. The 'providing negative feedback' category was scored whenever subjects showed behaviors that indicated irritation, doubts, or disappointments towards others, or towards the ideas that they shared with the group

Control variables. Avery, Tonidandel, Griffith and Quinones (2003) observed that the amount of leadership experience a manager has acquired through his career correlates positively with leader effectiveness. For this reason it might also be expected that a positive correlation exists between job tenure and meeting effectiveness. For this reason, 'leadership tenure' was inhibited into our control variables accordingly. After each meeting the leaders were asked to fill in the period of time in which they were employed in a supervisory position. Furthermore, gender was also inhibited as a control variable since several scholars (e.g. Korabik et al., 1993) have made claims regarding the possible influence of gender on leader- and meeting effectiveness.

3.4 Video observation

By making use of video-observation the 44 leaders and their followers were videotaped during randomly selected staff meetings, which captured the normal state of affairs. Subsequently, several students of the University of Twente analyzed the data in order to capture the displayed leader- and follower behaviors. Before analyzing this data, the students participating in this study have been trained to use the special behavioral software program "The Observer XT" in order to increase the accuracy and punctual coding of the different behaviors. "The Observer XT" software package is developed specifically for observing, analyzing, managing, and presenting video-data (Noldus et al., 2000). Furthermore, the students also received a 15-pages behavioral coding scheme with pre-defined sets of verbal and non-verbal behaviors which are coded very accurately for each follower and leader (Van der Weide, 2007). The students checked each other's work after each coding process in order to prevent subjectivity bias. This was done through the so-called confusion error matrix by the "Observer XT" in order to determine inter-reliability. This inter-reliability was defined as the percentage of agreement of a specific code within a time range of two seconds and if significant differences or disagreement occurred, the

observers re-viewed, discussed and re-coded the affected fragment. Combined with the received trainings and clear instructions, these aforementioned proceedings helped enhance the accuracy of the coding process.

Each team meeting was recorded by three video cameras which were installed beforehand in the meeting rooms in order to capture the actual leader and follower behaviors. According to Erickson (1992) and Mead (1995) subjects that were filmed for research purposes showed a quick habituation shortly after the camera's started filming. Furthermore, Kent and Foster (1997) showed that shortly after entering the meeting room the presence of the camera is forgotten and leaders and followers behave naturally, whereas observers who attend meetings often cause more obtrusive and abnormal behaviors of leaders and followers. This is why video cameras are used instead of external observers sitting in the same room who observe the meeting and take notes. Hence, observer bias is prevented and the meeting takes place without any interferences. After each meeting, the leaders and followers will be asked to rate their experience regarding the representativity of the meeting on a 7-point Likert's scale (1 being very different, and 7 being very representative) in order to assess if there were any differences between the videotaped meetings and other, non-videotaped, meetings. Previous video studies with similar data-handling showed that reactivity is not a problem (e.g. Van der Weide 2007; Nijhuis, Hulsman, Wilderom & Van den Berg, 2009). This is in line with the findings in this study as the average score of representativity was 5.69 (SD = 1.06). Therefore it can be concluded that, according to the followers, the leaders displayed similar kinds of behaviors to previous meetings.

3.5 Behavioral coding scheme

In order to capture specific leadership behaviors during daily work practices, a behavioral coding scheme has been developed (Gupta, Wilderom & Van Hillegersberg, 2009; Nijhuis et al., 2009; Van der Weide, 2007). In the appendix, a table is added which contains the different behaviors that were coded in this current study. After each behavior, a short description has been given about the behavior.

A solid base for this video coding scheme has been developed by Bales (1950) and Borgatta (1964). In earlier studies, Bales (1950) and Borgatta (1964) observed the interaction processes between the leaders and their followers. The observation of the interaction processes is done without any use of tape-recording device. In their exploratory work they made distinction between three broadly defined behaviors; neutral task oriented behavior, positive-social emotional behavior and the remaining socio-emotional behavior. Bales' (1950) and Borgatta´s (1964) work provided a practical scheme for coding a range of leadership behaviors (Yukl, 2002). Feyerherm (1994) extended the work of Bales and Borgatta; he used an experimental approach towards measuring the leadership behaviors and added some task-oriented and social-oriented behaviors to the work of Bales and Borgatta. The three coding schemes of Bales (1950), Borgatta (1964), and Feyerherm (1994) have two important commonalities. First, all of the three schemes assess the directly observable behavior. Second, the three studies use behavioral schemes to code leader behavior in a group context (e.g., Avolio, Howell and Sosik, 1999; Bass and Avolio, 1995; Pearce et al., 2003; Yukl, 2002). Furthermore, the behavioral taxonomy of Yukl (2002) was also used in the development of the behavioral coding scheme. It is more accurate to describe the behaviors of the leaders more in detail, the observable behaviors, than in one or two meta-constructs such as transactional or transformational leadership. Examples of behavior coded as directing behavior are; "I want you to have the work done next week", "You handle this one", and "Do you want to figure this out for me?"

3.6 Data Analysis

The intention of our analyses was to assess whether the presupposed charismatic leadership style has an association with leader- and follower behavior and if it has a positive influence on perceived meeting effectiveness. First, the average distribution of leader behaviors was examined before assessing the difference in behaviors between the leaders that scored highest and lowest on 1) charismatic leadership and 2) meeting effectiveness. Hereafter, a zero-order Spearman's rho analysis was conducted in order to analyze the correlation between charismatic leadership, meeting effectiveness and the hypothesized leader- and follower behaviors. The results section is concluded with the examination of our hypotheses, which was done by using linear regression models (Field, 2009).

4. RESULTS

Table 1 (Appendix A) presents an overview of the frequency and duration of all video-coded leader behaviors that were captured during the meetings. These descriptive results indicate that 'informing' occurred most frequently (24.38% of the time) and for the longest duration (i.e., 43,62% of the time). Another behavior that stands out from the rest is 'visioning', which had a frequency rating of 18.74% of the time, while occupying 23.79% of the leader's behavioral repertoire in terms of duration. The leaders in the observed videos did not engage often in 'providing positive feedback', which was shown the least (2.05% in terms of frequency) and for a duration of 1.05% of the leaders behaviors. The self-defending category (e.g., providing negative feedback, defending own position, and showing disinterest) was not displayed often. The task-oriented behaviors (e.g., informing, structuring the conversation, directing, task monitoring) accounted for more than half of the displayed behaviors in terms of frequency (55.57% of the time) and duration (62.10% of the time). The transformational leadership behaviors (e.g., visioning, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and providing positive feedback) were displayed in more than 30% of the total frequency and duration data. After analyzing the displayed leadership behaviors during meetings, the difference in behavioral repertoire between the leaders who scored highest and lowest on charismatic leadership- and meeting effectiveness was analyzed. These scores were derived from the MLQ-5X, on which the followers filled in a score (ranging from 1 till 7) for their leader. In order to analyze the (significant, 1-tailed) difference in displayed behaviors between these two groups a Mann-Whitney U test was used, which is also known as the Wilcoxon rank sum test. This test can be used when

comparing the averages of two independent groups and does not assume a normal distribution of the data. The data that is subject to analysis has to be of an ordinal- or continuous type (Nachar, 2008). The data did not meet the assumptions of normality which is required to perform a t-test, therefore the nonparametric Mann-Whitney U test was used. On average, the leaders scored a 5.35 on charismatic leadership (SD = .42). The leader with the highest charismatic leadership rating scored a 6.11, while the leader with the lowest charismatic leadership rating scored a 4.31. The average charismatic leadership of the three highest scoring leaders was 6.04, whose behaviors were compared to the three lowest scoring leaders, who had an average charismatic leadership rating of 4.55. The results of this test are displayed in table 2 (charismatic leadership) and 3 (meeting effectiveness). Both these tables are located in the Appendix.

Notably, there were no significant differences in visioning and humorous behaviors in terms of duration and frequency between the two leader groups that were rated on charismatic leadership. Leaders that scored high on charismatic leadership, however, displayed self-defending behavior less frequently (--4.14%) than the lower scoring leaders ($p = .05$). This indicates a negative correlation between self-defending behavior and charismatic leadership. No significant differences were found in terms of the duration of displayed self-defending behaviors. In terms of the difference in behaviors when comparing the leaders that scored highest on meeting effectiveness with the leaders that had the lowest ratings, no significant differences have been found. In order to further analyze these relations, a correlational analysis was executed hereafter.

Since the data was not normally distributed, a one-tailed Spearman's Rho analysis, which can be used to evaluate monotonic relationships between two ordinal or continuous variables and does not require data to be normally distributed (Caruso and Cliff, 1997), was executed in order to assess any existing significant correlations between the dependent variables charismatic leadership, meeting effectiveness, and the independent variables: displayed leader- and follower behaviors. The data presented in table 4 (Appendix) provides an overview of the discovered correlations.

The zero-order Spearman statistics of Table 4 provide an initial view on the hypotheses. With hypothesis 1 the following was anticipated: 'Charismatic leadership is positively related to meeting effectiveness'. When analyzing the data, it is clear that a strong correlation exists between the charismatic leadership rating of a leader and the meeting effectiveness as perceived by the followers ($r = .71$, $\rho < .01$). However, the influence of common-source bias could not be neglected (Meier & O'Toole, 2013) since the followers that are enthusiastic about the leader's charisma are the same followers that rated the level of meeting effectiveness. When examining the correlation between charismatic leadership and the meeting effectiveness as perceived by the leader though, no significant results were found. Consequently, the first hypothesis was rejected. Hereafter, hypothesis 2a was examined**: '**Leader visioning behavior is positively related to the charismatic leadership rating', which was rejected. Hypothesis 2b however, which states: 'Leader visioning behavior is positively related to meeting effectiveness' is being supported by the data ($r = .28$, $\rho < .05$). This correlation exists almost solely due to the frequency of the variable 'visioning: own opinion' ($r = .29$, $\rho < .05$). The other two forms of visioning ('long term' and 'organizational strategy') appeared to have no significant effect on meeting effectiveness, both in terms of frequency and duration. Hypothesis 3a: 'Self-defending leader behavior is negatively related to the charismatic leadership rating' (r (freq.) = .36, $\rho < .01$ and r (dur.) = .29, $\rho < .05$) and hypothesis 3b: 'Self-defending leader behavior is negatively related to meeting effectiveness' (r (freq.) = -.33, $\rho < .05$ and r (dur.) = -.27, $\rho < .05$) are statistically significant. Hypotheses 4a and 4b assumed to find a positive relation between humor and, respectively, charismatic leadership and meeting effectiveness. One of them was supported for by the data, that being hypothesis 4a: 'Humorous leader behavior is positively related to the charismatic leadership rating.' This positive relation is indicated by a correlation of .28 ($\rho < .05$) between the frequency of leader humor and the charismatic leadership ratings. Furthermore, a significant correlation between the frequency of leader humor and meeting effectiveness as perceived by the leader was also found ($r = .30$, $\rho < .05$). However, no correlation has been found between leader humor and the meeting effectiveness as perceived by the followers, which leads us to the rejection of the hypothesis. Subsequently a Spearman's Rho analysis was executed in order to evaluate the correlation between leadership and follower behavior in terms of follower visioning, self-defending and humor (hypotheses 2, 3, 4- c & d). The results are displayed in table 5 in the Appendix.

Hypothesis 2c anticipated that: 'Follower visioning is positively related to the charismatic leadership rating' as well as hypothesis 2d: 'Follower visioning is positively related to meeting effectiveness' both have to be rejected since no significant correlation was found. However, one subcomponent of visioning (visioning about the organizational strategy) did show a significant relationship with charismatic leadership, both in terms of frequency ($r = .36$, $\rho < .05$) and duration ($r = .37$, $\rho < .05$). Furthermore, the duration of follower visioning on organizational strategy also showed a positive correlation with the meeting effectiveness perceived by the followers ($r = .28$, $\rho < .05$), as did the frequency ($r = .27$, $\rho < .05$). When examining hypothesis 3c: 'Self-defending follower behavior is negatively related to the charismatic leadership rating' we found a strong, significant correlation with one of the components of self-defending: providing negative feedback. The correlation was found both for the duration of providing negative feedback ($r = -.52$, $\rho < .01$) as for the frequency ($r = -.5$, $\rho < .01$). Hypothesis 3d, which anticipated a negative relation between self-defending follower behaviors and meeting effectiveness, also found support through the negative feedback behavior from followers has a negative correlation with perceived meeting effectiveness (r (dur.) = -.37, $\rho < .01$, r (freq.) = -.38, $\rho < .01$).

Furthermore, a positive correlation between follower humor and charismatic leadership was also found in terms of duration ($r = .22$, $\rho < .05$) and frequency ($r = .39$, $\rho < .01$) which supports hypothesis 4c: 'Humorous follower

behavior is positively related to the charismatic leadership rating' and hypothesis 4d, which claimed that 'Humorous follower behavior is positively related to meeting effectiveness'. One sub-component of self-defending behavior (providing negative feedback) showed a significant negative correlation with charismatic leadership and meeting effectiveness. The effects on charismatic leadership had a strong correlation in terms of the duration of providing negative feedback ($r = -.52$, $\rho < .01$) and frequency ($r = -.49$, $\rho < .01$). The effects on meeting effectiveness seem to be more moderate, but is also displaying a negative correlation both in terms of duration ($r = -.37$, $\rho < .05$) and frequency ($r = -.38$, $\rho < .05$)

5. DISCUSSION

This study is different from previous research in several ways, most of all since its data collecting method consisted of a combination of subjective surveys and the very precise video-coding of behaviors during staff meetings. Furthermore, recent years have shown an increase in scholars that argue for a more follower-centric approach when it comes to the field of transformational- and charismatic leadership research (Uhl-Bien et al., 2013). This paper adhered to this view by adopting both a leader-centric and follower-centric approach, which is in line with the work of Collinson (2005) who argues that leadership consists of leader-follower behaviors and relations in which both groups co-produce leadership outcomes. By perceiving followers as co-constructors within the social process of leadership, this paper examined the correlation between charismatic leadership and displayed follower- and leader behaviors, as well as their implications on the perceived meeting effectiveness that was experienced during the meeting.

The Spearman's rho analysis and the subsequent regression analysis led to several interesting results. First of all a significant association between the amount of humor a leader displays and their level of charisma as perceived by the followers became apparent. This corresponds with the findings of Sparks (2014) who concluded that charismatic leaders used humor as one of their predominant instruments for influencing others. Past research has also shown that leaders that display a larger amount of self-directed humor (i.e., making jokes about yourself in order to make others laugh) are being seen as more accessible by their followers, compared to leaders who use this form of humor to a lesser extent (Kahn, 1989). So, charismatic leaders use (self-directed) humor in order to lower tensions within groups. Lowering tension, and making followers feel at ease during meetings, is also considered to be an attribute of charismatic leadership by Meindl & Lerner (1983) and Ashforth and Mael (1989). Linking these theoretical findings to the positive association between charismatic leadership and the use of leader humor found in this study, it can be concluded that charismatic leaders use humor as an instrument to influence the meeting.

Another set of behaviors that has been theorized to influence the emotions- and perceptions of followers towards a leader are self-defending behaviors. In contrast to humorous behaviors, however, these self-defending behaviors tend to have a negative impact on emotional employee well-being, causing stress (Ferris et al., 2007) and potentially a diminishing level of commitment towards the organization (Schyns & Schilling, 2013). In this paper it was hypothesized that in order to create a positive attitude towards meetings amongst followers, charismatic leaders would try to prevent using self-defending behaviors (hypothesis 3a). In turn, it was also hypothesized that followers would display less self-defending behaviors during meetings that were led by charismatic leaders (hypothesis 3c). Both hypotheses were accepted on the basis of the results, indicating that charismatic leaders maintain the positive atmosphere during meetings by lowering the total amount of self-defending behaviors displayed. These conclusions are aligned with the results from our Mann-Whitney U test (table 2) from which it was derived that the three most charismatic leaders displayed 1.68% less self-defending behaviors than their lower scoring counterparts. An interesting finding is that one of the self defending components was especially negatively correlated to charismatic leadership: providing negative feedback, indicating that this is a behavior best avoided in the meeting room.

When examining the influence of charismatic leadership on the amount of leader visioning (hypothesis 2a) and follower visioning (hypothesis 2c) no significant results were found for the overall visioning behavior. One component of visioning, however, did show a significant association with charismatic leadership. Leaders that were perceived as being charismatic displayed a significant amount of visioning about the organizational strategy more than their less-charismatic colleague leaders. According to Conger (1988) and Kanungo (1992) one of the charismatic leadership behaviors consists of articulating an innovative strategic vision, an assumption that was reflected in our results. By providing followers with an innovative strategical vision a charismatic leader also emphasizes, to some extent, on a collective group identity. This is also attributed as being charismatic by Shamir et al. (1993) and corresponds with our results. No significant association was found between charismatic leadership and any of the visioning components amongst followers, indicating that being charismatic as a leader has no influence on the amount of follower visioning displayed during meetings.

Another interesting finding is that none of the hypothesized variables showed any significant correlation with meeting effectiveness in the regression analysis. However, gender played a very important role in influencing the charismatic leadership rating and meeting effectiveness rating of the leaders. Women scored significantly better on both aspects than men. This is an encouraging sign for women since many employers still perceive managerial jobs as being ´for men´ (Billing, 2011). A meta-analysis conducted by Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, and van Engen (2003) found that female leaders were more likely to be successful in adopting transformational leadership approaches than their male counterparts. Furthermore, women were also found to be more likely to engage in contingent reward behaviors (e.g., praising someone when he/she completed a task on time, or encouraging them positively to do so), which is part of the transactional behaviors. Men, on the other hand, were more

likely to successfully adopt the other transactional behaviors. These theoretical implications shed some light on the findings of this study, and the influence of gender when measuring charismatic leadership and meeting effectiveness.

5.1 Practical implications

According to Antonakis et al. (2011) charismatic leadership can, to some extent, be taught. In contrary to popular belief, leaders are not born with the capability of creating a collective feeling amongst followers by making use of a compelling vision. Instead, they are more likely to have developed them (Sheard, Kababadse, and Kababadse, 2013). These statements grant several practical implications to the findings of this study. By providing leaders with practical training sessions regarding the use of charismatic leadership, humor, and how to convey the organizational strategy properly, they can learn how to influence followers with their compelling vision. Furthermore, enhancing the charismatic capabilities of leaders will lower follower self-defending behaviors. This leads to more open communication and opinion sharing during meetings. In their paper, Barling, Weber, and Kelloway (1996) state that positive results were found when leaders received a 1-day training that focused on developing their transformational leadership capabilities. Since charismatic leadership is a component of transformational leadership, it can be expected that similar positive outcomes will result from training leaders how to develop their charismatic leadership capabilities.

5.2 Strengths, limitations, and future research directions

This study derives its strength from the fact that a combination of different data sources and methods have been used, as this tends to reduce common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). These separate data sources consisted of 1) objective-video based coding and 2) subjective surveys that were filled in by the leaders and followers after each meeting. The first data source led to a better understanding of the variety of leader- and follower behaviors during staff meetings, while the latter provided insights regarding their perceptions on meeting effectiveness and (in case of the followers) on their perception of their leader's level of charisma. Even though this leads to higher levels of validity than a single-method research would, there are still some limitations with regards to the research approach adopted in this study.

The first, and most obvious, constraint is the sample size which could be perceived as being relatively small. A sample of 44 leaders makes it difficult to generalize the results outside the boundaries of the organization in which this study was conducted. Although the zero-order Spearman's rho analysis produced noticeable correlations between several variables and behaviors, a larger sample would increase the validity of the regression analysis results (Field, 2009). The follower pool, however, was of quite a significant size (n = 550). Another generalizability issue lies in the fact that the leaders, followers and coders all had Dutch nationalities. The Netherlands has a very individualistic culture (Hofstede, 2001) so the conclusions of this research might translate poorly across international organizational borders. For this reason it would be interesting to see how charismatic leadership behavior influences followers, and impacts meeting effectiveness, in different cultures. Another limitation of this research is that the leaders and followers may have suffered from social desirability bias during the meetings since these were videotaped. For this reason, we checked for reactivity by asking the followers to rate to what extent the leader acted as he or she would usually do during a meeting. The response categories ranged from 1 (not representative) to 7 (highly representative). Smith, McPhail and Pickens (1975) mention in their article that the amount of reactivity during video-taped observations is marginal. This is in line with our findings, as the average rating of representativeness of the leaders in this study was 5.69 (SD = 1.06), from which it can be concluded that the level of reactivity during these meetings was limited.

Furthermore, the fact that this study was carried out completely in a public organization also has some implications for the generalizability. There are many differences between public- and private organizations, both in terms of organizational structure and management practices (Boyne, 2002; Hooijberg & Choi, 2001). This calls for an increasing amount of organizational contexts in which to analyze the topic of objectively coded leadership behaviors. In this study the follower ratings of leaders was used in order to determine whether the level of a leader's charisma. However, several scholars have pointed out that follower perceptions of leaders (and their behaviors) do not always reflect actual behaviors very precisely (Shondrick, Dinh, and Lord, 2010). Some interesting results were found when analyzing the correlation between the charismatic leadership ratings and other variables such as follower self-defending and humor. Therefore it would be interesting to see if *actual* objective charismatic leadership behaviors can also account for these correlations, and if these behaviors are consistent with the follower's perception of a leader's level of charisma. Many authors have described behaviors that characterize charismatic leaders (e.g., Conger & Kanungo, 1992) enabling future researchers to analyze these behaviors specifically during the video-observations. Furthermore, studying which actual leadership behaviors lead to which specific follower behaviors is also an interesting topic for future research. For example, it was already concluded in this paper that follower negative feedback is best avoided during a meeting. But which specific leader behaviors (e.g., humor, visioning etc.) lead to the least negative feedback? Further research will have to reveal these interesting, possibly existing correlations in order to further enhance our understanding of leadership as a co-constructive, contextual, social process.

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Appendix

TABLE 1: Frequency and duration of the leader behaviors in % (n = 44).

Displayed behaviors	Duration	Frequency
Showing disinterest	0,10%	0,14%
Defending own position	1,23%	1,48%
Negative feedback	0,29%	0,53%
Disagreeing	0,41%	1,09%
Agreeing	2,14%	6,27%
Directing	2,38%	5,46%
Task monitoring	5,89%	12,94%
Structuring the conversation	10,21%	12,79%
Informing	43,62%	24,38%
Visioning / own opinion	23,79%	18,74%
Positive feedback	1,05%	2,05%
Intellectual stimulation	4,04%	4,95%
Individualized consideration	2,55%	4,77%
Humor	1,76%	3,52%
Personal informing	0,55%	0,91%
Total	100%	100%

TABLE 2: Mann-Whitney U Test and Direction in Terms of the Behaviors of the Leaders Scoring the Highest and Lowest on Charismatic Leadership

Variables	Duration	Frequency	Difference in % (Dur.)	Difference in % (Freq.)
1. Self defending	0,28	0,05*	–0,35%	**–1,68%**
2. Visioning	0,13	0,28	8,57%	5,73%
3. Humor	0,83	0,13	0,71%	3,56%

*. Difference is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed)

**. Difference is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed)

TABLE 3: Mann-Whitney U Test and Direction in Terms of the Behaviors of the Leaders Scoring the Highest and Lowest on Meeting Effectiveness

Variables	Duration	Frequency	Difference in % (Dur.)	Difference in % (Freq.)
1. Self defending	0,83	0,51	0,28%	-0,85%
2. Visioning	0,51	0,83	-6,64%	-3,68%
3. Humor	0,51	0,83	-0,18%	0,17%

*. Difference is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed)

TABLE 4: Correlation analysis for duration and frequency of leadership behavior

	Duration			Frequency		
Leader behavior	1	2	3	1	2	3
1. Charismatic leadership						
2. Meeting effectiveness	0,23			0,23		
(as measured by leader						
scores in the MLQ-5X)						
3. Meeting effectiveness	0,71**	0,16		0,71**	0,16	
(as measured by the follower						
scores in the MLQ-5X)						
4. Self defending	**–0,29***	-0,13	**–0,27***	**–0,36****	-0,08	**–0,33***
4.1 Showing disinterest	-0,04	-0,13	-0,2	-0,04	-0,11	-0,2
4.2 Protecting one's own position	-0,22	0,09	-0,17	**–0,27***	0,12	**–0,27***
4.3 Providing negative feedback	**–0,35***	-0,13	**–0,29***	**–0,34***	-0,22	-0,23
5. Visioning	0,15	-0,16	0,18	0,21	-0,14	**0,28***
5.1 Visioning (own opinion)	0,1	**–0,31***	0,17	0,18	-0,22	**0,29***
5.2 Visioning (organization)	**0,30***	0,09	0,03	0,08	0,1	0,24
5.3 Visioning (long-term)	0,08	0,1	0,23	**0,30***	0,12	-0,03
6. Humor	**0,28***	**0,30***	0,07	0,08	0,21	0,07

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

TABLE 5: Correlation analysis for duration and frequency of follower behavior

	Duration			Frequency		
Follower behavior	1	2	3	1	2	3
1. Charismatic leadership						
2. Meeting effectiveness	0,23			0,23		
(as measured by leader						
scores in the MLQ-5X)						
3. Meeting effectiveness	**0,71****	0,16		**0,71****	0,16	
(as measured by the follower						
scores in the MLQ-5X)						
4. Self defending	-0,23	0,02	-0,14	-0,25	0,14	-0,12
4.1 Showing disinterest	-0,15	0,35*	0,02	-0,19	0,19	0,06
4.2 Protecting one's own position	-0,04	0,01	-0,09	0,06	-0,02	0,05
4.3 Providing negative feedback	**-0,52****	-0,126	**-0,37****	**-0,5****	-0,18	**-0,38****
5. Visioning	-0,03	-0,05	0,17	0,01	-0,03	0,17
5.1 Visioning (own opinion)	0,35	-0,07	0,18	-0,01	-0,03	0,17
5.2 Visioning (organization)	**0,37***	0,25	**0,28***	**0,36***	0,23	**0,27***
5.3 Visioning (long-term)	-0,11	-0,03	-0,22	-0,14	-0,06	-0,24
6. Humor	**0,22***	**0,28***	-0,03	**0,39****	-0,01	**0,31***

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

TABLE 6: Results of the regression analyses that tested the hypothesized effects of leader behaviors.

	Charismatic Leadership		Meeting effectiveness			
Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Charismatic Leadership					0,62***	0,66***
Visioning		0,13		0,12		0,05
- Visioning (own opinion)		-0,03		-0,03		-0,01
- Visioning (organization)		0,31*		0,21		0,01
- Visioning (long-term)		0,09		0,11		0,05
Humor		0,32*		0,15		-0,1
Self-Defending		0,38**		-0,16		0,13
- Showing disinterest		-0,23		0,08		0,11
- Protecting one's own position		0,08		0,26		0,23
- Providing negative feedback		0,28*		-0,12		-0,01
Gender	0,42**	0,41**	0,54***	0,54***	0.28**	0,26**
Job tenure	0,08	0,12	0,21	0,19	0,06	0,13
Age	0,11	0,02	- 0,04	-0,04	-0,05	-0,1
R^2	0,15	0,41	0,27	0,31	0,59	0,53

Note: Coefficients are betas (standardized regression coefficients)

*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (1-tailed). ***. Correlation is significant at the .001 level (1-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the .01 level (1-tailed).

TABLE 7: Results of the regression analyses that tested the hypothesized effects of follower behaviors.

	Charismatic Leadership		Meeting effectiveness			
Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Charismatic Leadership					0,56***	0,57***
Visioning		0,09		0,11		0,02
- Visioning (own opinion)		0,08		0,14		0,07
- Visioning (organization)		0,24		0,22		-0,2
- Visioning (long-term)		0,09		-0,151		0,08
Humor		0,12		0,12		0,06
Self-Defending		0,30*		-0,11		-0,08
- Showing disinterest		-0,09		0,02		0,08
- Protecting one's own position		0,24		0,09		-0,1
- Providing negative feedback		-0,42*		-0,19		-0,17
Gender	0,42**	0,29	0,54***	0,39*	0,30*	0,29*
Job tenure	0,08	0,06	0,21	0,21	0,18	0,19
Age	0,11	0,04	-0,04	-0,06	-0,1	-0,06
R^2	0,15	0,34	0,27	0,38	0,54	0,55

Note: Coefficients are betas (standardized regression coefficients)

*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (1-tailed). ***. Correlation is significant at the .001 level (1-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the .01 level (1-tailed).

Behavioral coding scheme

Behavior category	Behavior		Definition
Self-defending	1	Showing disinterest	Not showing any interest, not taking problems seriously, wanting to get rid of problems and conflicts
	2	Defending one's own position	Protecting the own opinion or ideas, Emphasizing the own importance
	3	Providing negative feedback	Criticizing others, or their ideas/opinions
Steering	4	Disagreeing	Contradicting ideas, opposing team members
	5	Agreeing	Saying that someone is right, liking an idea
	6	Directing	Telling others what (not) to do, dividing tasks
	7	Verifying	Getting back to previously made agreements/ visions/ norms
	8	Structuring the conversation	Giving structure by telling the agenda, start/end time etc.
	9	Informing	Giving factual information
	10	Visioning	Giving the own opinion Giving long-term visions Giving own opinion on organization mission
Supporting	11	Intellectual stimulation	Asking for ideas, inviting people to think along or come up with own ideas, brainstorming
	12	Individualized consideration	Rewarding, complimenting, encouraging, being friendly, showing empathy
	13	Humor	Making people laugh, saying something with a funny meaning
	14	Positive feedback	Rewarding, complimenting
	15	Personally informing	Giving non-factual, but private information.