



Review

Charismatic, ideological, & pragmatic (CIP) model of leadership: A critical review and agenda for future research

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ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

CIP model of leadership
Charismatic leadership
Ideological leadership
Pragmatic Leadership
Sensemaking

ABSTRACT

Criticisms of the dominant leadership perspectives in the literature are increasing and, as such, a growing number of scholars are calling for more complex and conceptually sound theories of leadership. With a multifaceted perspective on effective leadership, detailed conceptual underpinnings, and increasing body of empirical support, the Charismatic, Ideological, and Pragmatic (CIP) model of leadership has the potential to address many of these concerns and substantively contribute to our understanding of effective leadership. Despite such advantages, however, wide scale proliferation of the model remains elusive. As such, this effort provides the first comprehensive review of the CIP model to analyze its potential to expand our understanding of leadership in science and practice. In doing so this review frames and organizes the existing CIP literature, identifies key strengths of the model, addresses key limitations of the model, and outlines future research opportunities that would benefit from adopting a CIP perspective.

Introduction

As interest in leadership continues to intensify, there are increasing calls to adopt more complex approaches to its systematic evaluation (e.g., Anderson & Sun, 2017; Lord, Day, Zaccaro, Avolio, & Eagly, 2017; Lord & Dinh, 2014; Mumford & Licuanan, 2004). In line with these calls, the charismatic, ideological, and pragmatic (CIP) model of leadership provides a unique perspective that promotes multiple distinct, yet equally, effective leadership approaches. As a central part of its examination of multiple pathways to effective leadership, the model presents a compelling theoretical foundation, addressing several of the criticisms of other prominent leadership theories (e.g., Mumford, 2006; van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013; Yukl, 1999). In addition to its strong conceptual foundation, the model has garnered substantial attention and support over the last decade (e.g., Bedell-Avers, Hunter, Angie, Eubanks, & Mumford, 2009; Griffith, Connelly, Thiel, & Johnson, 2015; Hunter, Cushenbery, Thoroughgood, Johnson, & Ligon, 2011; Thoroughgood & Sawyer, 2017). Given its conceptual strengths and expanding foundation of empirical support, the CIP model shows great potential to contribute to the leadership domain moving forward. As such, there is benefit to be gained from a comprehensive review of the key aspects of the model, an evaluation of its strengths and weaknesses, and the identification of critical future directions essential to bolstering the CIP model's potential to expand our understanding of leadership in

science and practice.

Thus, we aim to make three primary contributions with this review of the CIP model of leadership research. To begin, we provide the first comprehensive review of the relevant literature on the CIP model (e.g., Griffith et al., 2015; Ligon, Hunter, & Mumford, 2008; Lovelace & Hunter, 2013; Mumford, 2006). To this end, we examine the model's primary principle that there are multiple ways to effectively lead in organizations, the cognitive and behavioral variations that differentiate the CIP model of leadership styles, and additional relevant themes in the CIP literature (e.g., leadership style development, leader-follower relations, problem-solving approaches). Through this summary of the CIP theoretical foundations and empirical research findings, we present a process model of leadership that captures the emergence of CIP leadership styles and extends through the individual and organizational outcomes associated with different leadership approaches. Next, we analyze the CIP model's conceptual strengths, identifying how the model's clear conceptual foundation and causal process uniquely enable it to address many of the significant concerns of researchers today (see Hiller, DeChurch, Murase, & Doty, 2011; Lord & Dinh, 2014; van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). Third, we critically evaluate the weaknesses in the CIP model of leadership stream of research, identifying an over-dependence on specific methodological approaches and discuss how certain aspects of the model's current conceptualization limit its broader utility moving forward. Ultimately, we use this discussion to

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generate several conceptual recommendations that aim to advance the overall theory and to identify future research avenues that will enhance our broader understanding of leadership through the use of a CIP perspective.

An introduction to the CIP model of leadership

There is growing acknowledgment in the leadership literature of the need to adopt a greater variety of approaches to understanding leadership and its relationships with various outcomes of interest (e.g., Cho & Dansereau, 2010; Hiller et al., 2011; Yammarino, Dionne, Chun, & Dansereau, 2005). Too long has the leadership domain been over-committed to a single pathway of understanding effective leadership (Kaiser, Hogan, & Craig, 2008; van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). Adopting more nuanced perspectives will advance leadership theory and application by expanding our understanding of how different types of leadership relate to varying effects. Through this effort we argue that the CIP model of leadership has the potential to address many of these concerns, providing an avenue for the expansion of a leadership perspective that has a strong conceptual foundation and evidentiary support.

Using the work of Weber (1924) as a conceptual springboard, Mumford and colleagues specify three leadership styles capable of achieving highly successful and equally effective performance: charismatic, ideological, and pragmatic (e.g., Hunter et al., 2011; Mumford, 2006; Mumford, Antes, Caughron, & Friedrich, 2008). The central premise of the model is that there is no one best way to lead. Instead, each leadership style is capable of exceptional performance, in the aggregate, through the use of different approaches to critical organizational events in varied situations (Mumford, 2006). Given Mumford and colleagues' original focus on examples of exceptional organizational performance, they specifically conceptualized the CIP model within the upper echelons of organizations. To develop an understanding of the higher-level leaders associated with these outstanding effects, much of the early research on the model utilized historiometric methods (Crayne & Hunter, 2018) to examine the impact of CIP leaders (e.g., Griffith et al., 2015; Hunter et al., 2011; Mumford, 2006).

The variations in CIP leadership approaches stem from not only the process through which a leader constructs their own understanding of a situation (i.e., their *descriptive* mental model), but also how the leader applies their experience and analysis to that understanding to identify the goals or outcomes an organization should pursue and the key factors necessary to achieve their desired end state (i.e., their *prescriptive* mental model) (Mumford, 2006; Strange & Mumford, 2002). While the foundation of the CIP model is based on the varied cognitive processes of leaders, the model also recognizes the significance of followers and context (e.g., Ligon et al., 2008; Thoroughgood & Sawyer, 2017), an approach that is in line with calls from recent reviews of the leadership literature (Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe, & Carsten, 2014). Next, we summarize each CIP leadership style, paying particular attention to similarities and differences with other prominent approaches to leadership, before detailing the model's conceptual foundations and associated empirical investigations.

Differentiating other prominent leadership approaches

Given the CIP model's use of the term "charismatic leadership" to describe one of the styles detailed by the theory, it is reasonable to expect comparisons with other prominent leadership theories that invoke the same terminology. As an important point of note, Mumford's (2006) conceptualization of charismatic leadership deviates significantly from other prominent theories of charismatic/transformational leadership (Banks et al., 2017; Bass & Avolio, 1995; Conger & Kanungo, 1987, 1994, 1998; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993), as it argues that leader style originates from leader cognition as opposed to operationalizing the

leadership approach in terms of leader-follower interactions or the effect of leadership. That said, understanding the key similarities and differences between CIP - charismatic leadership and other charismatic/transformational theories facilitates a clearer understanding of the contributions of this review.

In line with van Knippenberg and Sitkin (2013), we treat these other prominent theories (i.e., Bass & Avolio, 1995; Conger & Kanungo, 1994; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Shamir et al., 1993) as a single model, despite some of the differences, based on their conceptual overlap and high intercorrelations in previous studies (e.g., Conger & Kanungo, 1994; Pillai, Stites-Doe, & Brodowsky, 2004). The similarities between these theories and CIP-charismatic leadership stem primarily from the focus on the importance of vision, vision articulation, and the change-oriented nature of each leadership perspective. Broadly all these theories stress the importance of conveying a sense of purpose, a collective mission based on a future oriented vision, and high-performance expectations. Beyond these broad similarities there are a variety of key elements that differentiate CIP model-charismatic leadership and these other prominent leadership perspectives.

The first key difference is that other prominent charismatic/transformational leadership theories define their main components in terms of leader behaviors or the outcomes associated with the leadership approach (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013; Yukl, 1999). As a result, the other prominent perspectives often fail to provide a conceptual definition that separates the articulation of the vision from its associated outcomes. CIP-charismatic leadership's conceptualization originates from a leader's sensemaking process before outlining the resulting leader behaviors (e.g., Griffith et al., 2015; Hunter et al., 2011). As a result, CIP leader behaviors and the outcomes associated with their actions are outlined in a clear causal process that we detail below. Next, a common theme in other charismatic/transformational perspectives is the importance of a leader's personal commitment or individual sacrifice and the ethical inclination of the leader (e.g., Bass & Avolio, 1995; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Shamir et al., 1993). Additionally, these perspectives focus on the importance of considering the needs of followers and the associated supportive behaviors by the leader (e.g., Bass & Avolio, 1995; Shamir et al., 1993). These elements are not explicitly included in the conceptualizations of CIP-charismatic leadership and are instead captured by the investigation of key moderating variables like a leader's personalized versus socialized orientation (e.g., House & Howell, 1992; Mumford, 2006; Strange & Mumford, 2002), which we further explore in our review of the CIP literature. That said, the importance of followers is included in the development of a CIP leader's prescriptive mental model, but the focus is on their role in fulfilling the CIP leader's organizational vision or plan.

A complete review of the other prominent conceptualizations of charismatic/transformational leadership goes beyond the scope of this effort.¹ However, it should be clear at this point that, while the CIP-charismatic leadership model shares some similarities with these perspectives, it represents its own distinct leadership approach. We now review each of the CIP leadership styles in greater detail.

Charismatic leadership

Mumford and colleagues explain that *charismatic* leaders excel by tying their future-focused vision for the organization to emotionally salient change for subordinates and by emphasizing the activities necessary to achieve their desired ends (e.g., Bedell-Avers, Hunter, & Mumford, 2008; Mumford, Scott, & Hunter, 2006). They utilize a vision-based approach to communicate their message to large masses of followers by providing a sense of meaning and a promise of a better tomorrow, if the group commits to accomplishing identified goals

¹ See van Knippenberg and Sitkin (2013) and Banks et al. (2017) for recent reviews and commentaries on charismatic and transformational leadership.

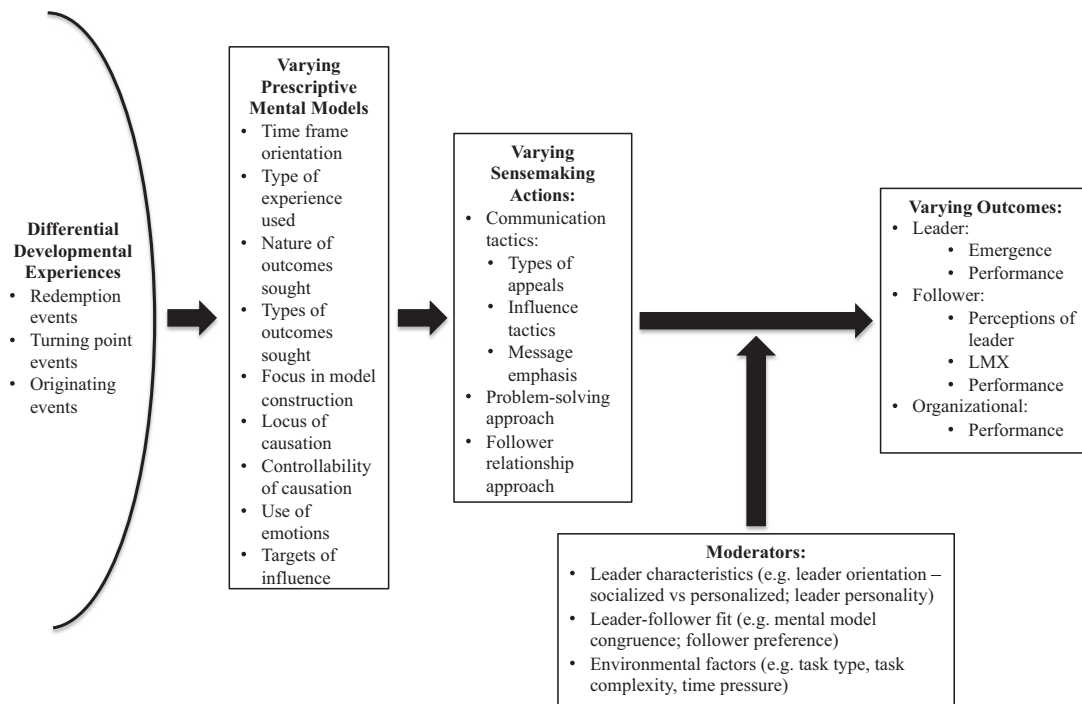


Fig. 1. The CIP model of leadership process model.

(Mumford, Scott, & Hunter, 2006). It is critical for charismatic leaders to provide a sense of identity, stress a sense of a shared experience, and provide direction to solve problems associated with the identified goals while also empowering followers to use their own discretion to accomplish the higher order vision (Bedell, Hunter, Angie, & Vert, 2006). By targeting large groups of followers, they build collective acceptance of a new identity, which is emotionally salient and provides normative pressure on members to reinforce support for the direction of the leader's vision (Mumford, Scott, & Hunter, 2006). Charismatic leaders' efforts to empower others provide a new sense of hope for followers, leading them to be highly susceptible to the influence of the leader as a result.

Ideological leadership

Ideological leaders also use a vision-based approach to leadership, but their vision is contingent upon a specific belief system that appeals to like-minded individuals (Hunter, Bedell-Avers, & Mumford, 2009; Mumford, Strange, & Bedell, 2006). Ideological leaders use their vision to highlight the importance of remaining true to a specific set of values that are often founded in tradition or past events. They tie their vision to emotionally salient experiences that bind groups of likeminded individuals together through their commitment to their shared belief system (Bedell-Avers et al., 2008). They are most effective when they are able to connect their shared belief system into a specific pathway, addressing the cause of a problem relevant to the followers they target with their influence (Mumford, Scott, & Hunter, 2006). The values shared by a group provide clarity on how members should approach enforcement of the vision. Ideological leaders use past events to provide a common reference point for group members to facilitate follower sensemaking activities by limiting the uncertainty and anxiety associated with thinking about an unknown future. The potent identity that ideological leaders create for their followers leads to the development of highly cohesive groups that are extremely committed to the values-based vision of the leader (Mumford, Strange, & Bedell, 2006).

Pragmatic leadership

Contrasting with the vision based approaches, *pragmatic* leaders utilize a problem-solving approach that aims to intellectually stimulate followers through effective communication steeped in logical appeals (Mumford & Van Doorn, 2001). As such, pragmatic leaders are effective communicators who tend to use rational persuasion as opposed to emotional appeals to gain support from followers (Mumford et al., 2008; Mumford, Strange, & Bedell, 2006). Pragmatic leaders are highly skilled at diagnosing problems, seeking out new opportunities, and developing viable solutions based on the situation (Lovelace & Hunter, 2013). Pragmatic leaders focus on connecting with elite groups of followers whose specific expertise can help address a focal problem (Mumford, 2006). They provide their followers the autonomy to address problems using their own discretion, which motivates followers to perform (Hunter et al., 2011). The discretion provided enables subordinates to make unique contributions that capitalize on their own expertise, creating an intense personal connection and dedication to their work (Mumford, Scott, & Hunter, 2006).

From CIP leadership style emergence to associated outcomes

Providing a specific origin for a leader's style, the model explains and supports that the differences between CIP leaders' prescriptive mental models are the result of varied developmental experiences which have implications ranging from leader emergence in certain contexts (e.g., Ligon et al., 2008; Mumford, Bedell, & Scott, 2006), to the actions leaders demonstrate (e.g., Griffith et al., 2015; Mumford, Strange, Gaddis, Licuanan, & Scott, 2006), to leader and follower performance differences on specific tasks (e.g., Bedell-Avers et al., 2009; Lovelace & Hunter, 2013). Using the work of Mumford and colleagues as a conceptual basis, we formalize a model of leadership from a CIP perspective for the first time here, see Fig. 1 (Mumford, 2006; Mumford & Van Doorn, 2001; Strange & Mumford, 2002). We use this model to frame our review of the conceptual foundation and empirical support for the CIP leadership perspective. See Table 1 for a summary of the CIP model of leadership literature's broad themes and key empirical findings.

Table 1
Summary of the CIP model of leadership literature.

Key themes	Citation	Method	Main contributions
General leader style differences	Mumford and Van Doorn (2001)	Case study	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Defines pragmatic leadership as appeal to interests instead of identity, identifying focus on current problems and commitment to logical appeals/rational persuasion • Presents a multiple pathway approach to understanding outstanding leadership • See chapters for specific contributions • Summarizes past literature on charismatic, ideological and pragmatic leadership
	Mumford (2006)	Book	
	Mumford, Strange, and Bedell (2006)	Theory	
Leader developmental differences	Mumford, Scott, Marcy, et al. (2006)	Empirical - Historiometric	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leaders frequency of specific types of critical life events relates to their CIP style later in life • During the period when CIP leaders are developing life narratives, they differ in the number of redemption, anchoring, turning point, and originating events they experience
	Ligon et al. (2008)	Empirical - Historiometric	
Mental model dimensionality	Mumford, Bedell, and Scott (2006)	Empirical - Historiometric	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CIP leaders' differing critical development experiences relate to specific leader behaviors and key outcomes • Identifies and defines the seven original differentiating factors of CIP prescriptive mental models (see Table 2), and classifies resulting sensemaking actions of leaders • Establishes broad support for the differentiating factor dimensionality of CIP leaders' prescriptive mental models in college and NFL football coaches
	Mumford, Scott, and Hunter (2006)	Theory	
	Hunter et al. (2011)	Empirical - Historiometric	
Leader actions & outcomes Problem-solving approach	Mumford, Strange, Gaddis, et al. (2006)	Empirical - Historiometric	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • While CIP leaders don't differ in their general contributions to society, they do differ in how they contribute. Example, charismatic and ideological leaders are more likely to create mass movements. • CIP leaders produce problem solutions of varying quality during their rise to power vs the pinnacle of their power • Leaders focus on different elements of the problem-solving process to address challenges
	Mumford, Bedell, Hunter, et al. (2006)	Empirical - Historiometric	
Influence mechanisms	Strange and Mumford (2002)	Empirical - Historiometric	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ideological leaders demonstrate greater focus on value autonomy and value commitment than charismatic leaders • Charismatic and ideological leaders are both likely to display vision-based leadership behaviors • CIP leader styles more likely to use certain influence tactics than other styles (pragmatic - expertise and control of resources; charismatic - status perceptions; charismatic and ideological - through coalition building) • Ideological leaders are more prone to violence than charismatic leaders and differ in terms of their just-world commitments, ideological extremism, oppositional bonding, imposition of interpretive structures, value-based control, and social disruption • Charismatic leaders display more use of positive emotions; ideological leaders display more use of negative emotions; pragmatic leaders use more rational persuasion • Charismatic leaders use more soft influence tactics and ideological leaders use more hard influence tactics
	Mumford, Licuanan, Marcy, Dailey, and Blair (2006)	Empirical - Historiometric	
	Mumford et al. (2007)	Empirical - Historiometric	
	Griffith et al. (2015)	Empirical - Historiometric	
Leader-follower relationships	Mumford, Strange, Scott, et al. (2006)	Empirical - Historiometric	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ideological leaders have close relationships with followers, providing followers the opportunity to exercise influence and significant autonomy • Charismatic leaders tend to have higher ratings of mutual exchange support with followers than ideological and pragmatic leaders (ideological leaders > pragmatic leaders) • Pragmatic leaders are perceived to be more emotionally authentic • Ideological leaders are perceived to be more emotionally volatile
	Griffith et al. (2015)	Empirical - Historiometric	
Moderating influences Leader orientation	Mumford, Gaddis, Licuanan, et al. (2006)	Empirical - Historiometric	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There are multiple significant interactions between CIP leader style and leader orientation (socialized vs personalized) that differentiate communication tactics • Multiple interactive effects between CIP Style and Leader Orientation (socialized vs personalized) on various outcomes of interest. For example, leader likelihood of producing landmark speeches, the maintenance of positive and close relationships with followers based on leader style and orientation • Identifies the impact of a leader's prescriptive mental model on their interaction with other leaders • Distinguishes how CIP leaders work together, and if they can work together
	Mumford, Strange, Gaddis, et al. (2006)	Empirical - Historiometric	
	Bedell-Avers et al. (2009)	Case study	
Leader-follower fit	Thoroughgood and Sawyer (2017)	Empirical - Vignette	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • By using a follower-centric lens, identifies for whom CIP leaders are most appealing and influential • Categorizes two follower individual difference profiles, personality function and work values function, which impact follower CIP leader preferences • CIP leader style and leader distance interact to shape follower creative outcomes • While general mental model congruence is not predictive of follower performance, alignment on types of experience, nature of outcomes and use of emotions were most important dimensions of mental model congruence
	Griffith et al., 2018	Empirical – Lab study	
Environmental factors	Mumford et al. (2008)	Theory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identifies various multi-level conditions that impact the emergence and performance of CIP leaders at the individual, group, organizational, and broader environmental level • Specific contextual conditions better facilitate the performance of certain CIP leader styles in specific situations, but not across conditions • Charismatic leaders performed best on problems that allowed for flexibility, ideological leaders excelled when identified as the leader, and pragmatic leaders were consistent across contextual conditions
	Bedell-Avers et al. (2008)	Empirical – Lab study	

(continued on next page)

Table 1 (continued)

Key themes	Citation	Method	Main contributions
	Hunter et al. (2009)	Empirical – Lab study	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Situational complexity and framing influence the success of CIP leaders in specific situations, but not across conditions • Charismatic leaders excelled except in highly complex situations, ideological leaders struggled in complex situations not aligned with their belief system, and pragmatic leaders were consistent across conditions
	Lovelace and Hunter (2013)	Empirical – Lab study	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • On short duration problem-solving tasks, charismatic and ideological leaders' followers outperformed pragmatic followers, suggesting pragmatic leaders need more time to emerge • Charismatic leader followers outperform ideological and pragmatic followers on idea generation task solution originality
	Lovelace et al. (2017)	Theory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Theorizes the impact of specific CIP leader behaviors on specific stages of the creative process • Provides a clear framework for applying the CIP model to the creative process depending on follower characteristics and situational constraints

The origins & emergence of CIP leadership styles

A leader's cognitive orientation (i.e., their prescriptive mental model) drives the way that they analyze and interpret situations to determine potential solutions to organizational challenges (Drazin, Glynn, & Kazanjian, 1999; Finkelstein, Hambrick, & Cannella, 2009; Strange & Mumford, 2002). Key to the formation of an individual's mental model is their personal history, which leaders use to compare against current issues to guide their perceptions of a situation, to reinforce their personal beliefs and values, and to identify what they see as important to the needs of the group (Ellis, 2001; Gioia & Poole, 1984; Strange & Mumford, 2002). Key events in an individual's development leave a lasting impression, conveying critical lessons learned, which guide the construction of the schemas used to interpret future experiences (McAdams, 2006; Mobley, Doares, & Mumford, 1992; Pillemer, 2001). These past crucible experiences forge the mental frameworks that leaders use to map the connection between desired goals and the actions necessary to facilitate achievement of those goals (Ellis, 2001; Habermas & Buick, 2000; Strange & Mumford, 2002). By interpreting critical situations through the lens of past experiences, leaders develop fundamentally different prescriptive mental models which guide their sensemaking and sensegiving actions, manifesting as different leadership approaches in organizations (Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991; Lord & Maher, 1991; Mumford, Scott, Marcy, Tutt, & Espejo, 2006; Strange & Mumford, 2005). The core differences between each CIP leadership style originate from critical variations in the prescriptive mental models of each leader type (Hunter et al., 2011; Mumford, Scott, & Hunter, 2006).

Ligon et al. (2008) established that critical life events shaped the foundation of historically significant leaders' CIP mental model development. They found that individuals vary in the frequency with which they experienced certain types of events during their development and in the themes associated with these significant life events. Charismatic leaders experienced a greater number of turning point events, experiences that redirect an individual's life direction creating a comfort with change and ambiguity. Ideological leaders experienced a greater number of anchoring events, experiences tied to the importance of belief commitment and the grounding of values leading to a dependence on these values and beliefs when making organizational decisions later in life. Last, pragmatic leaders experienced more originating events, experiences tied to the value of incremental progress and the importance of practical information leading to a reliance on facts and a focus on current problems.

These critical life experiences are not just tied to a leader's general CIP style. Strange and Mumford (2002) theorized that leaders use their previous experience during the reflection process to facilitate the identification of key information that is important to their organizational plans. In support of this perspective, Strange and Mumford

(2005) found that when leaders reflected on relevant past experiences they received higher ratings for their organizational vision from various stakeholders. Past experiences are not only essential to the successful sensemaking activities of leaders but are critical to determining the way leaders go about processing key organizational information.

Differentiating CIP leaders' mental models

Originating from key developmental experiences, CIP leaders' varied cognitive orientations lead them to identify, interpret, and react to situations in different ways (e.g., Finkelstein et al., 2009; March & Simon, 1958; Starbuck & Milliken, 1988). That is, depending on how leaders view a situation through their cognitive lens, they will diagnose what is going on around them, determine their desired response to a critical situation, and direct the cognitions and actions of followers given uncertain circumstances through sensemaking activities (e.g., Bedell-Avers et al., 2009; Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991; House, 1971; Maitlis & Lawrence, 2007). Thus, the leader's cognitive process and the differences between each CIP leaders' cognitive orientation heavily influence an organization's response to complex problems with significant ramifications for various individual and firm outcomes (e.g., Amabile, Schatzel, Moneta, & Kramer, 2004; Byrne, Mumford, Barrett, & Vessey, 2009; Finkelstein et al., 2009; Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991; Maitlis & Christianson, 2014).

Mumford and colleagues originally identified seven primary factors that distinguish the prescriptive mental models of the CIP leadership styles: *time frame orientation*, *type of experience used*, *nature of outcomes sought*, *types of outcomes sought*, *focus in model construction*, *locus of causation*, and *general controllability of causation* (e.g., Hunter et al., 2011; Lovelace & Hunter, 2013; Mumford, Scott, & Hunter, 2006). Additionally, while not explicitly part of their prescriptive mental models, there are two sensemaking elements that directly stem from the varied prescriptive mental models of leaders that are important to the differentiation of CIP leader styles: *use of emotions* and *targets of influence*. Together, these nine factors provide the lens through which leaders develop their prescriptive mental model. See Table 2 for a summary of the differentiating factors for each CIP leadership style.

Time frame orientation refers to the temporal focus of leaders, which drives how they view the causes of current organizational circumstances and determines their view of the best path forward given the situation (Mumford, Scott, & Hunter, 2006). Charismatic leaders utilize a vision-based approach focused on an image of the organization's brighter future (Bedell-Avers et al., 2008). Ideological leaders also employ a vision-based approach that is fixed on a return to an idealized view of the organization's traditions or past success (Strange & Mumford, 2002). Pragmatic leaders do not utilize a vision-based approach and instead concentrate on using the facts of the current situation to guide their sensemaking process (Mumford & Van Doorn,

Table 2

Description of the differentiating factors of the CIP model of leadership.

Adapted from Hunter et al. (2011), Mumford (2006), and Thoroughgood and Sawyer (2017).

Differentiating factor	Definition	Description by CIP leader cognitive style
1. Time frame orientation	Temporal reference point used to guide prescriptive mental model construction, leading to selection and organization of key causes and goals	C: Forward looking, future oriented I: Focused on return to idealized view of past success P: Present focused, problem oriented
2. Type of experience used	Use of positive or negative case examples to guide prescriptive mental model construction	C: Uses positive case examples illustrating causal factors essential to vision fulfillment I: Uses negative case examples to highlight failure compared with past success P: Combination of positive and negative case examples to best address problem at hand
3. Nature of outcomes sought	Type of goals or outcomes emphasized to frame prescriptive mental model construction	C: Focus on positive goals meant to inspire hope I: Focus on goals proven to be essential to past successes P: Little emphasis on goals, uses approach malleable to the causes of current challenges
4. Number of outcomes sought	Use of a select amount of goals or outcomes in accordance with a prescriptive mental model	C: Broad vision leads to use of multiple positive goals I: Values based vision leads to the use of limited goals tied to the belief system P: Number of goals varies based on the nature of the problem being addressed
5. Focus in model construction	Orientation towards internal or external demands as a guide prescriptive mental model construction	C: External demand orientation I: Internal demand orientation P: External demand orientation
6. Locus of causation	Guiding beliefs about the key causal forces that should be considered prescriptive mental model construction	C: Views people and their efforts as essential to successful goal fulfillment I: Sees situational circumstances as critical to reaching desired outcomes P: Views the interaction of people and situations as critical to achieving desired outcomes
7. Controllability of causation	Guiding belief about an individual's ability to control the emphasized locus of causation	C: View situations as highly controllable by people I: See situations as less malleable P: Varies depending on the situation
8. Targets of influence	Type of followers a leader considers essential to implement the plan/vision from their prescriptive mental model	C: Recognize the need for mass support to implement broad vision I: View those that share beliefs as essential to vision implementation P: See individual knowledge, skills, and abilities as key to plan implementation
9. Use of emotions	Appeals (emotional vs logical) critical to conveying important information about types of experiences used	C: Depend on positive appeals tied to case examples used I: Focus on negative appeals to highlight case examples used P: Depend on logical appeals to stress the importance of problem identification

2001).

Type of experience used indicates the positive or negative nature of the case examples that a leader references during the reflection process to guide the construction of their prescriptive mental model (Mumford, Scott, & Hunter, 2006). Charismatic leaders use positive case examples to showcase the causal factors essential to the fulfillment of their future oriented vision (Strange & Mumford, 2002). Ideological leaders focus on the negative case examples of the organization's current failure in comparison to their view of the organization's idealized past (Hunter et al., 2011). Meanwhile, pragmatic leaders use a combination of positive and negative case examples depending on the nature of the problem at hand, aiming to apply experiences that best relate to a given scenario (Lovelace & Hunter, 2013).

Nature of outcomes sought denotes a leader's emphasis in their prescriptive mental model on either the goals that support their vision or the causes of an organization's challenges (Mumford, Scott, & Hunter, 2006). This differentiating factor is directly tied to another factor, *types of outcomes sought*, which explains a leader's promotion of a certain number of goals or outcomes in accordance with their prescriptive mental model. Charismatic leaders emphasize multiple positive goals that support their broad future focused vision (Hunter et al., 2011). Ideological leaders also focus on goals that support their vision but tend to promote a limited number of goals that have proven to be essential to the organization's past successes (Mumford et al., 2008). Pragmatic leaders place little emphasis on goals and instead take an approach that

is more malleable to the specific causes of the current organizational challenges (Bedell-Avers et al., 2008).

A leader's *focus in model construction* varies to the extent that a leader concentrates on internal versus external forces (Mumford, Strange, Gaddis, et al., 2006). Charismatic and pragmatic leaders both tend to direct their attention towards external demands related to goal accomplishment or the solving of a current organizational problem (Mumford, Scott, & Hunter, 2006). Given their focus on a limited number of values-based goals which often require an individual evaluation of beliefs, ideological leaders tend to adopt an internally oriented approach (Bedell-Avers et al., 2008).

Next, leaders differ in how they view *locus of causation*, which refers to their interpretation of the key causal forces considered during the construction of a leader's prescriptive mental model (Mumford, Strange, Gaddis, et al., 2006). Charismatic leaders view people and their efforts as the forces that are essential to the achievement of their desired outcomes (Lovelace & Hunter, 2013). Ideological leaders, given their emphasis on a belief system exemplified by past success, see situational circumstances as the key cause of desired outcomes (Hunter et al., 2011). Meanwhile, pragmatic leaders, given their emphasis on understanding all the major facets an organizational crisis, tend to take an interactional approach that views the interplay of people and the situation as essential to outcome achievement (Bedell-Avers et al., 2008).

CIP leaders' prescriptive mental models also differ in terms of how they view the *general controllability of causation* of a situation; meaning,

the degree to which they can change (highly controllable) a situation or not (low controllability) (Mumford, Strange, Gaddis, et al., 2006). As charismatic leaders view the efforts of people as essential to the achievement of their desired goals, they typically view situations as being highly controllable or easily altered (Mumford, Scott, & Hunter, 2006). On the other hand, as ideological leaders see external drivers as the key causal factor in their ability to fulfill their vision, they tend to see situations as being less malleable (Bedell-Avers et al., 2008). As pragmatic leaders adopt a more interactive approach to their view of factors that are essential to achieving their desired end state, their view of the controllability of a situation varies depending on the circumstances (Hunter et al., 2011).

Use of emotions refers to how important a leader sees the use of affect (positive or negative) or rational persuasion to their ability to motivate and influence followers (Griffith et al., 2015). Given charismatic leaders' use of positive case examples in their prescriptive mental model construction and their focus on a brighter better vision of the future, they tend to invoke the use of positive emotions in their sensemaking activities (Hunter et al., 2011). As ideological leaders' visions revolve around avoiding the failures of the current situation they tend to use negative case examples to construct their prescriptive mental model, which leads them to depend on the use of negative emotions in their sensemaking activities (Mumford, Scott, & Hunter, 2006). Conversely, pragmatic leaders' focus on the specifics of a given situation, as they try to diagnose the best approach for dealing with organizational issues, leads them to build their sensemaking activities around the use of logic through rational persuasion (Mumford, Strange, Gaddis, et al., 2006).

Targets of influence refers to a leader's view of followers that are critical to the execution of their agenda for the organization (Hunter et al., 2011). Since charismatic leaders set broad or multiple goals which are under the control of their followers and are tied to their future oriented vision, they tend to view the mobilization of mass support from a larger number of followers as critical to their ability to achieve their broad-based agenda (Hunter et al., 2009). Given ideological leaders construction of their prescriptive mental models around a set number of shared goals tied to their idealized view of an organization's past traditions or values, ideological leaders tend to see a core base of followers that share their perspective as essential to their agenda's success (Bedell-Avers et al., 2008). Due to their view of problems as being the result of a complex system of goals and causes, pragmatic leaders see smaller groups of individuals with the essential knowledge, skills, and abilities necessary to address focal issues as key to the successful implementation of their plan (Mumford & Van Doorn, 2001).

Mumford's (2006) compilation of studies on the CIP model established strong initial support for the variations in these differentiating factors (e.g., Mumford, Scott, & Hunter, 2006; Mumford, Strange, Gaddis, et al., 2006). Additionally, a variety of subsequent empirical tests of the CIP model have established compelling evidence to further support the varying dimensions (i.e., the differentiating factors) of the three pathways to outstanding leadership (e.g., Bedell-Avers et al., 2009; Griffith et al., 2015; Hunter et al., 2011; Lovelace & Hunter, 2013). The important implication of varied prescriptive mental models is that they result in different leader actions, which are related to a variety of outcomes for individuals and organizations (e.g., Griffith et al., 2015; Mumford et al., 2007; Mumford, Strange, Scott, Dailey, & Blair, 2006; Strange & Mumford, 2005).

CIP leader actions & outcomes

When considering the impact of leader behaviors on performance, it is worth repeating that multiple studies support Mumford's original assertion that, in general, there are not *overall* performance differences based on CIP leadership styles across contexts or time (e.g., Griffith et al., 2015; Hunter et al., 2011; Mumford, 2006). That is to say, each

CIP leadership style has equal potential to achieve outstanding performance outcomes in the aggregate, or in the long-term. However, the literature establishes that there are clear differences in the types of actions associated with the three CIP leader styles, such as how each leader type approaches solving complex problems (Hunter et al., 2009), utilizes various influence mechanisms (Griffith et al., 2015), and manages relationships with key stakeholders (Mumford, Scott, & Hunter, 2006). These different actions have important implications for discrete measures of performance and other outcomes of interests (e.g., leader perceptions, relationship quality). Therefore, part of the value in the CIP approach to understanding the leadership process is being able to examine how different pathways lead to specific outcomes (e.g., Bedell-Avers et al., 2008; Hunter et al., 2009; Mumford, Bedell, Hunter, Espejo, & Boatman, 2006).

The existing research on CIP leaders across the sensemaking and sensegiving processes support the primary arguments that 1) leaders differ by style in terms of the skills and processes that they emphasize, 2) that performance by different leadership styles does not substantially differ on the aggregate, and 3) that variance in the environmental conditions may predispose specific leadership styles to success in certain scenarios. As such, we further explore the role of leader sensegiving actions (e.g., problem-solving approaches, influence tactics, and follower relationship approaches) and their impact on varying outcomes in our review of the CIP model below.

Leader problem-solving approach

An important part of the leadership role is solving the complex problems organization face (Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs, & Fleishman, 2000). As such, a main area of investigation for the CIP literature has centered around the problem-solving approaches of CIP leaders (Bedell-Avers et al., 2008; Hunter et al., 2009; Mumford, 2006). The differences in CIP leaders' cognitive processes at work lead them to vary in how they define problems and in how they emphasize certain skills or processes in their problem-solving approaches (Mumford, Bedell, & Scott, 2006; Mumford & Van Doorn, 2001). Mumford and colleagues argue that these differences emerge when leaders address issues that are highly complex and ill-defined, usually requiring creative solutions (Lubart, 2001; Mumford, 2006). To be clear, while much of the CIP literature has focused on creative problem-solving, we frame this literature under the broader problem-solving umbrella.

Using a process perspective (Lovelace, Neely, Jayne, & Hunter, 2017), problem-solving can be thought of as consisting of three stages (including eight core processes): early stage (problem identification, information gathering, concept selection), middle stage (conceptual combination, idea generation), and late stage (idea evaluation, implementation planning, monitoring) (Hunter et al., 2011; Mumford, Mobley, Uhlman, Reiter-Palmon, & Doares, 1991). Charismatic leaders' use of multiple positive goals and emphasis on the importance of people as a causal mechanism encourages a focus on idea generation activities that are essential to the middle stages of problem-solving (Mumford & Licuanan, 2004; Mumford, Scott, & Hunter, 2006). Ideological leaders' emphasis on an idealized view of past success and current differences based on a failure to adhere to a belief system leads to a focus on the evaluative activities critical to the late stages of problem-solving (Lovelace et al., 2017; Mumford, Scott, & Hunter, 2006). Pragmatic leaders' emphasis on the key facts related to current organizational challenges and view of information as essential to rational persuasion leads to a focus on defining the key elements of a problem which is important to the early stages of problem-solving (Mumford, 2006; Mumford & Van Doorn, 2001).

In line with this perspective, Mumford, Bedell, Hunter, et al., (2006) found that CIP leaders vary in the way that they solve organizational problems. Charismatic leaders, given their broad goals and focus on empowerment, emphasize middle stage processes focused on developing multiple potential solutions to the focal issue. Ideological leaders, given their commitment to a specific belief system, are highly

evaluative, and stress late stage processes focused on determining the viability of a solution and setting the conditions necessary for successful implementation of a selected solution. Pragmatic leaders, given their present orientation and problem focused approach, stress early stage processes focused on building a foundational understanding of the causes of an organizational issue. Further, Lovelace and Hunter (2013) found initial evidence that suggests a leader's problem-solving approach influences follower performance differences; most notably, that charismatic leader followers outperformed ideological and pragmatic leader followers on ratings of originality for problem solutions on an idea generation (i.e., middle stage) task.

Influence mechanisms

Notably, one way the differences between CIP leader prescriptive mental models manifests is in how leaders communicate with and attempt to influence the members of their organizations (Griffith et al., 2015; Mumford, Scott, & Hunter, 2006). The ability to persuade others through various communication tactics is an essential element of outstanding leadership more broadly (Bass, 1985, 1999; Mumford, 2006). Leaders seek to influence, persuade, and engage with various stakeholders to create shared understanding, change attitudes, and/or provide a sense of direction. As a result of variance in their prescriptive mental models, CIP leaders' attempts to influence others differ in technique and substance (Mumford, Strange, & Bedell, 2006; Strange & Mumford, 2002).

Charismatic leaders, given their focus on the future and use of positive experiences in the sensemaking process, provide a positively charged message of change to inspire hope (Strange & Mumford, 2005) while also emphasizing the importance of stakeholder empowerment (Conger & Kanungo, 1987, 1998). This approach has widespread appeal to multiple groups, encouraging members throughout organizations to accept the vision (Klein & House, 1998; Mumford, 2006). Ideological leaders, given their focus on values and beliefs during the sensemaking process, invoke negatively charged messages that stress the importance of adherence to values and set standards, often tied to past organizational success (Strange & Mumford, 2002; Strange & Mumford, 2005). This approach can have intuitive appeal when framed within the context of a crisis, especially to those who share the same values and beliefs. Meanwhile, pragmatic leaders, given their focus on specific problems during the sensemaking process, aim to provide a clear understanding of the situation by stressing the importance of situational analysis using rational appeals to persuade others regarding finding or following a solution to a given organizational challenge (Mumford & Van Doorn, 2001). The success of pragmatic leaders lies in their ability to identify and frame the key causes associated with a crisis and then coordinating the resources and skills of those individuals best suited to finding a solution to the situation through logical appeals (Mumford, Strange, & Bedell, 2006).

Illustrating these differing communication approaches, Strange and Mumford (2002) found that while both charismatic and ideological leaders displayed behaviors typical of vision-based leadership styles (e.g., reflection on key causes of situations and goals), the content of their vision articulation differed. Ideological leaders were more likely to focus on value autonomy and value commitment than charismatic leaders, meaning they tied their vision to key values and beliefs. Further highlighting communication differences by leader style, Mumford, Scott, and Hunter (2006) found that pragmatic leaders were more likely than charismatic and ideological leaders to exert influence through expertise (i.e., through reasoning, rationality, personal knowledge, etc.) and through resource control. Charismatic leaders were more likely than ideological and pragmatic leaders to exert their influence by aiming to enhance status perceptions and by seeking to promote an aura of future success associated with their vision. Additionally, both charismatic and ideological leaders were more likely than pragmatic leaders to utilize coalition building tactics as they aimed to develop support from groups who identified with their vision.

Another specific use of influence tactics by CIP leaders that is gaining attention in the literature is the use of varying emotional displays (i.e., Griffith et al., 2015; Mumford, Gaddis, Licuanan, Ersland, & Siekel, 2006). Empirical investigation of the use of emotional tactics and rational persuasion by CIP leaders suggests that these displays are not only crucial to differentiating between leader styles but are also tied to a variety of important outcomes that differentially facilitate the success of each CIP leader type (Griffith et al., 2015; Mumford & Van Doorn, 2001; Strange & Mumford, 2002). In their examination of college and NFL football coaches, Hunter et al. (2011) found that charismatic leaders depended more on the use of positive emotional appeals, ideological leaders were more likely to utilize negative emotional appeals, and pragmatic leaders were more likely to focus on the use of rational appeals. However, despite these differences, they did not find overall performance variations by leader style.

Further, Griffith et al. (2015) found that charismatic leaders were more likely than ideological and pragmatic leaders to utilize positive emotional appeals. Ideological leaders, on the other hand, were more likely than charismatic and pragmatic leaders to exercise negative emotional appeals. Additionally, charismatic leaders used more “soft” tactics (i.e., the use of personal power), while ideological leaders depended on the use of “hard” tactics (i.e., the use of positional power). Meanwhile, pragmatic leaders did not depend on emotional appeals and instead focused on the use of logical appeals to support their emphasis on rational persuasion. Ultimately, while pragmatic leaders were perceived to be more authentic and ideological leaders more emotionally volatile, the authors found no differences in follower satisfaction or communication effectiveness of leaders based on their leadership style.

Leader-follower relationships

Highly effective leaders elicit intense responses from followers and other organizational stakeholders through their leadership style (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Shamir et al., 1993). The three sensemaking approaches of CIP leaders result in the use of different sensegiving activities with followers (Mumford, 2006; Mumford & Van Doorn, 2001; Strange & Mumford, 2002). As such, differences in cognitive models result in fundamentally different approaches to leader-stakeholder interactions.

Charismatic leaders see people and their actions as key to the achievement of their desired end state, causing them to seek widespread support from broad groups of stakeholders (e.g., Mumford, Scott, & Hunter, 2006; Shamir et al., 1993). As such, charismatic leaders frame problems in terms of people's needs and stress the importance of the broad empowerment of members of the organizations to enact their vision, creating high levels of trust and collaboration between leaders and followers. Ideological leaders view situations as less malleable, leading them to a rigid adherence to a belief system that transcends environmental conditions (Ligon et al., 2008; Mumford, Scott, & Hunter, 2006). Therefore, they focus on appealing to those individuals that share their values, creating a tight-knit group of close relationships with high levels of trust and loyalty between leaders and followers. Pragmatic leaders believe that people and the environment interact to facilitate successful organizational performance, leading them to appeal to select individuals whose positions enable substantive influence over the organizational context (i.e., organizational elites) (Bedell-Avers et al., 2009; Mumford & Van Doorn, 2001). Thus, they tend to allow followers great autonomy in doing their work while showing significant respect for follower concerns.

Given the differences in how CIP leaders approach followers, Mumford, Scott, and Hunter (2006) found that leader-member exchange (LMX) relationships between CIP leaders and their followers differed based on leader style. Charismatic leaders had higher ratings of mutual exchange support with followers, with ideological leaders outscoring pragmatic leaders. Ideological leaders relied on close relationships with followers, often providing them with the opportunity to exert influence and exercise autonomy. These findings are in line with the

work of Griffith et al. (2015) who found that leaders' use of emotional and rational appeals lead to varied perceptions of leader authenticity and emotional volatility.

At this point, there is compelling evidence supporting the connection between different prescriptive mental models, the resulting behaviors of leaders during the sensemaking and sensegiving process, and various outcomes of interest (e.g., Griffith et al., 2015; Hunter et al., 2011; Mumford, 2006). The variation in communication approaches and emotional appeals of CIP leaders illustrates the potential for a more nuanced understanding of leader influence tactics. Further, different CIP approaches to interactions with others have a variety of implications for leader-follower relationships. Overall, the CIP literature adds a level of nuance to work on leader influence tactics and leader-follower interactions and their relationship to proximal (e.g., commitment, compliance) and distal (e.g., organizational performance) outcomes.

Key moderators of the CIP leadership process

The success of the leadership process varies based upon a host of individual, group, organizational, and environmental factors (Fiedler, 1967; House, 1971; Mumford & Hunter, 2005; Shalley, Zhou, & Oldham, 2004; Woodman, Sawyer, & Griffin, 1993; Yukl, 2010). The differences between leadership styles in the model provide unique opportunities to examine the impact of moderating variables on outcomes of interest in the leadership process. A series of multilevel influences have previously been examined to facilitate an understanding of when and where CIP leader types were differentially likely to emerge and achieve success in organizations (e.g., Lovelace & Hunter, 2013; Mumford et al., 2008; Strange & Mumford, 2002; Thoroughgood & Sawyer, 2017). To highlight variations in the CIP leadership process, we organize key moderating variables into three categories: leader orientation (e.g., House & Howell, 1992; Mumford, Strange, & Bedell, 2006), leader-follower fit (e.g., Griffith et al., 2018; Thoroughgood & Sawyer, 2017), and environmental factors (e.g., Bedell-Avers et al., 2008; Lovelace & Hunter, 2013).

Leader orientation

Beyond CIP prescriptive mental models, other personal characteristics (e.g., personality, values, cognitive style) further influence the lens through which leaders observe and process their environment (Finkelstein et al., 2009; Miller & Droge, 1986). These characteristics impact the foundation from which leaders interpret their situation, make decisions, and act to address organizational challenges (March & Simon, 1958; Starbuck & Milliken, 1988; Weick, 1995). While characteristics including intelligence, extraversion, and interpersonal skills are likely to be important to most leaders, other individual differences provide additional value when examining variations in effective leadership (Bass, 1999; Zaccaro, Foti, & Kenny, 1991).

Key to the early conceptualizations of the CIP model, a leader's orientation (i.e., personalized versus socialized) is an important characteristic that reveals additional insights on performance differences between CIP leaders (e.g., House & Howell, 1992; O'Connor, Mumford, Clifton, Gessner, & Connelly, 1995; Strange & Mumford, 2002). Socialized leaders commit to collective interests, prioritize equity, and focus on developing and empowering others (House & Howell, 1992; McClelland, 1975). In contrast, personalized leaders are authoritarian, self-aggrandizing, and exploitive of others. Strange and Mumford (2002) found that the personalized versus socialized distinction can be applied to both charismatic and ideological leaders. In addition, the behaviors associated with a personalized orientation manifested differently in ideological versus charismatic leaders. Personalized charismatics showed evidence of narcissistic behaviors and personalized ideologues treated others as disposable resources.

Additionally, Mumford, Scott, and Hunter (2006) found that a leader's orientation provided additional insight into the relationship between CIP leadership style and LMX. Personalized ideologues were less

likely to maintain positive relationships or close relationships after leaving power with followers than socialized ideologues or charismatic and pragmatic leaders of either orientation. Additionally, socialized pragmatics were less likely than any other CIP leader style-orientation combination to produce speeches considered landmark events. Also, socialized ideologues were less likely to have speeches focused on institutional change. In a related finding, Bedell et al. (2006) found Machiavellian behavioral differences among the CIP leader types. They found that pragmatic leaders were the most Machiavellian, most likely due to their willingness to be flexible in their approach to solve problems. Meanwhile, ideological leaders were the least Machiavellian, likely a result of their commitment to a specific belief system.

Followers fit

The broader leadership literature has received criticism for its overemphasis of leader-centric approaches, neglecting the active role of followers in the leadership process (Carsten, Uhl-Bien, West, Patera, & McGregor, 2010). In response, the adoption of more follower-centric theories is an emerging trend in the leadership domain (Collinson, 2006; Sy, 2010; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). Taking a more holistic perspective, the leadership process is dependent upon the confluence of leaders, followers, and the environment. As such, it is important to acknowledge that leadership does not exist without followers (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; Klein & House, 1995). To advance the study of leadership, and our understanding of the leadership process, followers need to be given more deference. While the CIP model literature has paid attention to the qualities of leader-follower relationships that emerge from varied leader sensemaking activities (Griffith et al., 2015; Mumford, Gaddis, Licuanan, et al., 2006; Mumford, Scott, & Hunter, 2006), it is only recently that more follower-centric CIP model research efforts have begun.

Hunter et al.'s (2011) investigation of the pillars of the CIP model led them to argue that future efforts need to examine the congruence between leader and follower CIP prescriptive mental models. Understanding how the respective mental models of followers and leaders resonate facilitates a deeper understanding of the outcomes of the sensemaking process (Howell & Shamir, 2005). Adopting a follower-centric lens, Thoroughgood and Sawyer (2017) investigated how follower personality profiles predicted preferences for CIP leader types. They found that more than half of their sample preferred non-charismatic leaders, undermining the prominence of charismatic/transformational leadership as the sole model of effective leadership from a follower perspective. Additionally, they found that team-oriented, emotionally stable, future focused, and less rationally minded individuals preferred charismatic leaders. People focused on rationality, autonomy, and competition preferred pragmatic leaders. Meanwhile, individuals focused on traditional values preferred ideological leaders. Further, Griffith et al. (2018) examined the impact of CIP leader style, leader distance, and leader-follower mental model congruence on follower creative performance. They found that leader-follower mental model congruence resulted in more original follower creative outcomes. Additionally, they found that leader-follower congruence on certain mental model dimensions (types of experience used, nature of outcomes sought, and emotional appeals) was predictive of higher levels of follower creativity.

Environmental factors

It is widely acknowledged that environmental conditions influence the ability of leaders to guide organizations to successful outcomes (House, 1971; Yukl, 2010). When facing an organizational challenge, leaders seek to make sense of a situation and develop a plan to address the issue while followers are primed to seek direction from their leadership (Bass, 1999; Drazin et al., 1999; Shamir & Howell, 1999). In these stressful or uncertain conditions, the behavioral differences between CIP leadership styles emerge as leaders seek to provide clarity to and manage the demands on members of their organization (Mumford,

Scott, & Hunter, 2006; Shamir et al., 1993). A variety of studies in the CIP literature highlight the importance of various environmental factors (e.g., situational complexity, time pressure, task type) in facilitating a more nuanced understanding of the leadership process in varying conditions (Bedell-Avers et al., 2008; Lovelace & Hunter, 2013; Mumford, 2006).

As highlighted earlier, the different sensemaking processes and sensegiving actions of CIP leaders predispose them to success at certain stages of the problem-solving process or on specific types of tasks (Mumford, 2006; Mumford et al., 1991). As an illustration, Bedell-Avers et al. (2008) found that charismatic leaders performed better in conditions that allowed for flexibility in their problem-solving approach, ideological leaders were more successful when they were clearly identified as the leader, and pragmatic leaders were more consistent in their performance across contextual conditions. Additionally, Hunter et al. (2009) found that specific situational conditions played to the strengths of certain leadership styles. Charismatic leaders struggled in highly complex situations that did not fit with their future oriented, multi-goal approach. Ideological leaders had difficulty in situations that were at odds with their commitment to their values and beliefs but especially excelled in complex situations that their belief systems provided clarity in chaotic situations. Meanwhile, pragmatic leaders were again more consistent across the varied scenarios.

Time pressure is another variable that can have a significant impact on the relationship between leader style and successful outcomes as it increases situational demands on leaders and members of their organizations (Bluedorn & Jaussi, 2008; Hunter et al., 2007; Shalley et al., 2004). For example, Lovelace and Hunter (2013) induced higher levels of perceived stress by manipulating follower time perceptions. Followers in a pragmatic leadership condition demonstrated consistent performance across low versus high stress conditions, while followers in a charismatic condition and an ideological leader condition showed performance declines when higher levels of stress were induced. Additionally, task complexity is known to increase situational demands on leaders resulting in performance declines (Khurana, 2002; Pasternack & O'Toole, 2002). Hunter et al. (2009) found that task complexity influenced leader success based on their CIP type. Charismatic leaders performed worse in highly complex situations, ideological leaders performed well in complex conditions as long as it fit with the leader's belief system, and pragmatic leaders were consistent across conditions regardless of the situational complexity.

Although the performance of CIP leaders in the aggregate reveals that there are multiple pathways to effective leadership, a review of the relevant empirical research indicates that CIP leader performance varies under key moderating conditions. The results demonstrate that 1) other individual characteristics influence leader's actions beyond their CIP prescriptive mental model, 2) that the fit between leader and follower mental models can predict a preference to a leader style, and 3) environmental factors have implications for outcomes of interest in specific conditions. While additional research into these three broad moderators is necessary, initial evidence shows their important consideration in the CIP model of leadership literature. As such, there are great benefits associated with adopting a CIP perspective to examine leader performance and outcomes of interest in specific conditions.

Critical evaluation of the CIP model

Adopting a CIP perspective has the potential to address many of the criticisms of the leadership literature's most prominent theories and to bolster our understanding of the complexities of leadership in research and practice. The CIP model embraces a complex approach to understanding effective leadership that is conceptually sound, clear in its causal processes, and supported by a growing body of empirical research. However, the model's broader influence remains limited (Hunter et al., 2011; Lovelace et al., 2017). As such, we turn our attention to critically analyzing the strengths and limitations of the CIP

model to identify 1) how the use of a CIP perspective addresses many of the prominent concerns in the leadership domain 2) what factors may be hampering the wider proliferation of the CIP model and 3) how the model may continue to evolve in the future. Through this discussion, we propose several theoretical refinements and identify additional research efforts that are essential to extending the scope and potential impact of the CIP model moving forward.

CIP model strengths

Multiple pathways

The current leadership research domain has been dominated by a focus on a singular charismatic/transformational leadership pathway to success (Dinh et al., 2014; Lord et al., 2017). The overemphasis on charismatic leaders limits our conceptualization of effective leadership and has led to a need to put greater emphasis on investigating other leadership approaches (Hiller et al., 2011; Khurana, 2002). While we do know a lot about leadership in general, we know much more about the perceptions of leaders now than we do about the process through which they exert their influence (Kaiser et al., 2008). This gap in knowledge is, in large part, due to the focus of research on leader qualities as opposed to the specific mechanisms they utilize to influence outcomes in organizations (Dinh et al., 2014). Thus, there are increasing calls to adopt more complex perspectives when investigating the leadership process in organizations (Cho & Dansereau, 2010; Mumford & Licuanan, 2004; Yammarino et al., 2005; Yukl, 1999).

We argue that the CIP model provides a response to these criticisms through the processes outlined above. The CIP literature enjoys strong support for the notion that effective leaders can use a variety of pathways to achieve outstanding performance outcomes, that these pathways (i.e., leadership styles) can be differentiated through the prescriptive mental model factors and sensemaking actions of leaders, and that there is value in expanding our perceptions of successful leadership approaches beyond more traditional vision-based models to understanding the nuances and variations of effective leadership (Hunter et al., 2011; Yukl, 1999). Importantly, the CIP model facilitates opportunities to identify variance in the outcomes associated with, and conclusions drawn about, different leadership approaches. This position challenges the perspective that there is some universally favored approach to leadership. Instead, we argue the CIP model takes a more realistic perspective that explains that certain leadership approaches may have positive or negative implications depending on the situation (Hiller et al., 2011).

An important advantage of considering multiple leadership pathways is the acknowledgment that there can actually be a downside to each CIP approach, creating ample opportunity for investigating the model and its effects across a variety of conditions. Often the vision-based tactics of charismatic leaders can be highly complex, due to their use of numerous goals, which can be overwhelming for followers (Daft & Weick, 1984; Mumford, 2006). As a result, understanding of the situation and prioritization of goals by importance are not always made clear to followers (Bedell-Avers et al., 2008). Also, charismatic leaders' intense focus on their vision can create a tendency to only consider information that is relevant to specified goals, limiting broader environmental scanning efforts.

An ideological approach to leadership also has its limitations. Ideological leaders' reliance on a specific belief system has the potential to limit their appeal to only a restricted group of followers who share the same values (Mumford, Strange, & Bedell, 2006). Also, ideological leaders' dependence on using past events to drive sensemaking activities for followers can severely hamper their ability to guide the organization to successful outcomes if they encounter new situations or turbulence that requires a novel approach (Hunter et al., 2009).

Last, pragmatic leadership has its own challenges. If given too many tasks at a given time the effectiveness of pragmatic leaders is diminished (Mumford, Strange, & Bedell, 2006). While pragmatic leaders

may facilitate more consistent follower support due to their focus on the use of rational persuasion (Bedell-Avers et al., 2008; Lovelace & Hunter, 2013), they may also be limited in their ability to motivate and increase the commitment of others by failing to use affect, a powerful influence tool (Mumford & Van Doorn, 2001). Additionally, pragmatic leaders, given their focus on rational appeals and on followers with relevant skills, take longer to establish strong leader-follower working relationships. As a result, they may not be able to quickly connect with, and motivate, others.

Consideration of situational factors

Related to the use of multiple pathways, a second strength of the CIP model is its deliberate consideration of the importance of various contextual factors (Hunter et al., 2009; Lovelace & Hunter, 2013; Mumford, Scott, & Hunter, 2006). The broader leadership literature often references the importance of crisis or uncertainty as contextual considerations because these contextual factors cause followers to seek out the input of leaders (Bass, 1999; Shamir et al., 1993). However, these efforts often neglect to incorporate more specific contextual factors into research efforts, limiting the potential to advance our understanding of the leadership process (Day & Antonakis, 2012).

The CIP model explicitly incorporates contextual variables, suggesting that certain types of leaders are more likely to emerge in specific situations based on their differing sensemaking approaches (Bedell-Avers et al., 2008; Hunter et al., 2009; Lovelace et al., 2017). As we identified in our review, CIP leaders' focus on specific skills or processes involved in problem-solving predispose them to success at certain stages of the problem-solving process. Pragmatic leaders excel at identifying the causes of problems focusing their organizations into relevant issues, charismatic leaders are skilled at facilitating idea generation efforts to develop multiple creative problem solutions, and ideological leaders' evaluative prowess helps them succeed at determining the potential success of ideas in implementation.

Additionally, CIP leaders view differing groups of people as critical to the achievement of identified goals, guiding leaders to adopt different approaches to their interactions with others. As such, CIP leaders craft their message to attract different stakeholder groups. Charismatic leaders aim to convey messages with mass appeal to as many people as possible; ideological leaders target those that share their belief system; and pragmatic leaders appeal to elites who have the specific skills or resources relevant to the problem at hand. As a result of the CIP model's consideration of the influence of various contextual factors, research can take a more nuanced approach to investigating where, when and why certain leader types may excel. For example, we may expect charismatic leaders to succeed in the political realm based on the need to appeal to a larger audience, ideological leaders may thrive at guiding social causes because of the importance of commitment to values and beliefs, and pragmatic leaders may gravitate towards the business realm due to the importance of problem-solving and the use of logic in this domain (Griffith et al., 2015; Hunter et al., 2011; Mumford, Scott, & Hunter, 2006).

Overcoming the limitations of dominant perspectives

Additionally, the CIP model addresses several of the fundamental issues of more popular conceptualizations of charismatic/transformational leadership. In a critical review of the charismatic/transformational literature, van Knippenberg and Sitkin (2013) identified the lack of a clear conceptual definition, the failure to outline a well-defined causal model that accounts for the unique effects of theoretical dimensions, and the confounding of the conceptualization and operationalization of theoretical models with their effects as critical limitations of the most prominent stream of research in the leadership domain. van Knippenberg and Sitkin intended the identification of these limitations to serve as a warning of the pitfalls to avoid when laying out a theory's conceptual foundation and establishing empirical support for the causal process. We use these limitations to highlight the

strong conceptual foundation of the CIP model.

First, the CIP model provides a clear conceptual definition of its leadership approaches using a leader's cognitive style as the critical differentiating point between each leadership perspective (Griffith et al., 2015; Hunter et al., 2011; Mumford, 2006). Using the sense-making literature as a grounding foundation (Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991; Weick, 1995), the conceptualization of each CIP leadership style is dependent upon the prescriptive mental model differentiating factors (see Table 2), that ultimately guide distinguishable leader sensemaking actions aimed at influencing individual and organizational outcomes (Mumford, 2006; Mumford & Van Doorn, 2001; Strange & Mumford, 2002).

Additionally, as we highlight in Fig. 1, the CIP literature identifies a leadership process that begins with critical developmental experiences that forge varied CIP leader mental models, specifies that these mental model differences determine leader sensemaking actions, provides specific insight into the relationship between these actions and various outcomes, and accounts for various moderating influences that also impact these relationships. As such, the model provides a clear causal process between leader cognitive styles, behaviors, and outcomes while avoiding confounding leadership styles with their effects (e.g., Mumford, Strange, Gaddis, et al., 2006; van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). To clarify further, as CIP leadership styles originate from leader cognition versus the effects of leaders or their interactions, the CIP model is not susceptible to many of the same criticisms regarding confounding operationalizations with effects.

Limitations of the CIP Model & the growing need for extension

Despite the growing evidence in support of the CIP model's conceptual foundation, its utilization in the research literature remains limited in comparison with other dominant leadership perspectives (e.g., Griffith et al., 2015; Hunter et al., 2011). We argue that the broader proliferation of the model has been hampered by 1) its original conceptual focus solely on upper-echelon leaders, 2) its need to embrace (or to at least investigate) more nuanced leader mental model differentiating factor combinations (or mixed leadership styles), and 3) the need to extend beyond the research stream's overdependence on historiometric methods.

Higher-level leader focus

The original focus of the CIP model of leadership was outstanding leaders at the top of organizations because of the significance of their impact and the general neglect their individual differences tend to receive through quantitative academic research (Hambrick, 2007; Hunter et al., 2011; Ligon et al., 2008; Mumford, Scott, & Hunter, 2006). Mumford and colleagues argued that focusing on the most successful upper-level leaders enables the identification and exploration of skills that are critical to various individual and organizational outcomes. We argue that the original focus on higher-level leaders was well founded, but that there is potential to extend our understanding of leadership across levels in organizations and at varying stages of individual leaders' careers. To take advantage of this opportunity it is necessary to expand the focus of the model in research efforts.

We propose conceptualizing the model as applying to leaders at all levels of the organization, not just those at the upper echelons (e.g., including low- and middle-level leaders). Expanding the conceptual foundation of the model opens a host of research questions that have not previously been the focus of CIP research. For example, it is possible to analyze the development of different CIP styles across specific early career training programs or experiential opportunities (e.g., the Leadership, Innovation, & Growth program at GE, Leader Development at Military Service Academies) (e.g., Callina et al., 2017; Kosur, 2015), the emergence of CIP leaders styles in groups (e.g., Day & Dragoni, 2015; DeRue, Nahrgang, & Ashford, 2015), the differences between successful and unsuccessful leaders (e.g., Hiller et al., 2011), or

potential leveling effects to the success of different CIP leader types (e.g., DeChurch, Hiller, Murase, Doty, & Salas, 2010; Yammarino et al., 2005). Several studies have utilized a CIP perspective outside of the study of outstanding leaders at the upper echelon and continued to find significant effects (e.g., Bedell-Avers et al., 2008; Griffith et al., 2018; Hunter et al., 2009; Lovelace & Hunter, 2013; Thoroughgood & Sawyer, 2017). However, it is important to reconcile previous conceptualizations of the CIP model with its treatment in current research efforts and formalize this theoretical change to broaden the model's application.

Lack of consideration of mixed CIP profiles

Given our proposed expansion of the application of the CIP perspective across leaders at varying organizational levels, we contend that it is more realistic to expect a greater occurrence of leaders with *mixed leader profiles*. That is to say, individuals that present combinations of CIP style characteristics that vary across typical CIP leader types. Originally, Mumford, Scott, and Hunter (2006) explained that individuals are likely to move towards a more unified sensemaking mental model as they experience crucible moments that define them as leaders. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect leaders at the pinnacle of the organizational hierarchy to be more likely to present a single CIP style than leaders earlier in their career progression. Mumford and colleagues acknowledged that it is possible for leaders to possess a mixed leader profile but maintained that this leadership approach is extremely rare in high-profile leaders (Mumford, Strange, Gaddis, et al., 2006). The identification of individual CIP profiles in younger, less experienced populations of leaders by Bedell-Avers et al. (2008) and Hunter et al. (2009) may be an indication that these profiles emerge much earlier than originally thought. However, counter to this thought-process, we submit that this singular placement of individuals into one CIP style may be a limitation due, in part, to the methodological procedures used to categorize the individuals and not necessarily a reflection of those individuals depending on one specific CIP style.

We contend that middle and lower level leaders are less likely to have experienced crucible moments in their own careers as leaders in the upper echelon, and do not have as much power to force the organization to guide individuals and groups to their preferred leadership approach. As such, mid and lower level leaders will be more likely than leaders at higher levels of organizations to present mixed leader profiles. So far, CIP research that has not focused on the top levels of leadership in organizations either classified individuals as primarily charismatic, ideological, or pragmatic leaders (e.g., Hunter et al., 2009; Mumford, 2006) or manipulates leader style while examining subordinate performance (e.g., Lovelace & Hunter, 2013; Thoroughgood & Sawyer, 2017). As such, these approaches may limit the ability of researchers to investigate mixed leader profiles or their effects on important outcomes. Research methodologies that account for and embrace the potential for mixed leader profiles create new opportunities for the study of leadership. Such methodologies would open new research avenues beyond the study of high-level leadership's influence on performance. In fact, we expect that researchers may find value in empirically testing Mumford's original hypothesis that mixed profiles are extremely rare. This is an empirical question given our previous proposal to include lower- and middle-level leaders as focal groups for CIP research.

Need for a new psychometric tool

The final criticism of van Knippenberg and Sitkin (2013) of the charismatic/transformational leadership literature is that the most prominent measurement tools do not consistently reproduce the dimensional structure outlined by theory and does not empirically differentiate these leadership perspectives from other theories (Lievens, Van Geit, & Coetsier, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004). A significant issue with the CIP model literature is the fact that no easily distributable validated measure for the model exists. Due to their rarity and the difficulty of gaining access to outstanding leaders,

the use of historiometric analysis using biographies and other relevant materials to examine the impact of outstanding leaders is quite common (Crayne & Hunter, 2018; Parry, Mumford, Bower, & Watts, 2014). In fact, research using this method has found significant support for the principles of the model (i.e., Bedell-Avers et al., 2008; Griffith et al., 2015; Hunter et al., 2009, 2011; Mumford, 2006).

Although historiometric analysis is a useful qualitative tool for many research questions it is time consuming, resource intensive, often produces small sample sizes, and is limited to retroactive reviews of leader biographies and other relevant summaries of their work history/lives. Thus, the CIP literature's current emphasis of historiometric analysis does not permit researchers to fully examine the influence, performance, or development of leaders in active work settings using a CIP perspective. Specifically, the lack of a sound psychometric scale that can more easily evaluate current leaders in laboratory and field studies, at all levels of organizations, hampers research efforts to pursue a more widespread investigation of the model (Anderson & Sun, 2017). The development of a reliable and validated instrument that can be easily distributed is absolutely essential to the CIP model's potential to contribute to leadership work in science and practice.

We have several recommendations to help guide and encourage work on the development of a major CIP instrument. We propose that efforts focused on developing a psychometric tool for the CIP model prioritize the differentiating factors and associated sensemaking actions of leaders as a starting point. We envision such an effort taking either a self-report approach to capture the cognitive style of a leader or a behavioral approach, rated by others if a researcher's intent is to capture perceptions of leader actions by followers or other stakeholders. Given our previous recommendation to embrace mixed model profiles, any psychometric tool should allow for leaders to vary across characteristics of each style. The development of a proper measurement tool for the examination of an individual's CIP style is critical to increasing the model's utility in future research efforts and to its ability to contribute to leader development in organizational settings.

Future research directions

By summarizing the relevant literature, identifying key strengths of the model, and recommending modifications to the conceptualization and investigative approaches of CIP research, it is our goal to facilitate a host of future research opportunities. First, we envision the model's original focus on higher-level leaders as remaining a relevant research avenue moving forward. In the original conceptualization of Upper Echelons Theory, Hambrick and Mason (1984) identified the importance of strategic leader's individual differences to how they perceive situations, interpret key information, and ultimately make decisions in organizations. However, in a review of the progress of UET, Hambrick (2007) explained that only a limited number of studies have begun to "open the blackbox" to explain how leader characteristics result in strategic choices for organizations. While a variety of studies have since aimed to address this point (e.g., Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2011; Herrmann & Nadkarni, 2014; Resick, Whitman, Weingarden, & Hiller, 2009), there remains tremendous potential to further the understanding of how individual characteristics impact strategic leadership. We envision researchers using a variety of methods to apply a CIP perspective to UET research. Beyond utilizing any new psychometric tools, researchers could develop keyword dictionaries for each CIP style and use literary analysis to identify executives of each CIP type. The application of a CIP perspective in UET research would also enable a bridging between micro and macro leadership perspectives that is currently lacking (Hiller et al., 2011). The integration of leadership perspectives across levels will better facilitate the investigation of leader development and emergence.

As such, the second area of research that is prime for the utilization of a CIP perspective is the investigation of leadership processes across levels. Leadership is inherently a multilevel phenomenon (DeChurch

et al., 2010; Yammarino et al., 2005). While leaders provide similar benefits at each level (i.e., providing direction, spanning boundaries, etc.), their specific actions may take different forms as a result of the context (Zaccaro & Klimoski, 2001). Mumford et al. (2008) outlined a host of theoretical proposals about different individual (e.g., gender, social skills, psychological distance, quality of vision articulation), group (e.g., trust, justice perceptions, cohesion), organizational (e.g., crisis significance, situational complexity, culture), and environmental conditions (e.g., levels of social and technological change, social disruption, societal culture) that are likely to cause variations in the emergence and performance of the three CIP leadership styles across levels. We encourage future efforts to continue to consider how a variety of multilevel factors impact the relationship between leadership styles and outcomes of interest.

Next, future efforts should continue to expand the consideration and importance of followers in the CIP leadership process and even embrace a follower perspective (e.g., Bligh, 2011; Kelley, 2008; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). We encourage a continued focus on the importance of cognitive style fit (i.e., congruence or incongruence) between leaders and followers (e.g., Griffith et al., 2018), as well as the importance of follower preference or susceptibility of certain types of followers to certain CIP leader styles (e.g., Thoroughgood & Sawyer, 2017). Future efforts should look to expand on the importance of leader-follower fit as it applies to the match or mismatch of their CIP perspectives. For example, research might consider if it is more important for leaders to utilize their natural CIP style or if they need to (or even) adapt their style to be more in line with the follower's needs.

Last, the CIP model is uniquely positioned to provide insight on the growing research areas of collective, shared, and rotating leadership (Aime, Humphrey, DeRue, & Paul, 2014; Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007; Yammarino, Salas, Serban, Shirreffs, & Shuffler, 2012). These concepts look at the interactions of leaders or teams as they share or transfer power and responsibilities (Hiller, Day, & Vance, 2006; Pearce & Conger, 2003). For example, future efforts might consider the ability of organizations to pair CIP leaders or to switch out leaders at certain stages of the problem-solving process to maximize organizational performance. Research may try to establish the pros and cons of rotating leaders into situations based on how the context plays to the strengths and weaknesses of certain leadership styles. Research may also look to expand on the efforts of Bedell-Avers et al. (2009) by further examining the interactions between different CIP leader styles and the outcomes of these interactions in a variety of contexts. For example, certain combinations may yield more positive outcomes for organizations than others.

Conclusion

With this review, we outline how the CIP Model of Leadership answers calls to adopt more complex and varied approaches to the study of leadership, facilitating a deeper understanding of the influence of leaders in organizations. To this end, we present the first comprehensive review of the research findings on the CIP model of leadership, outlining a leadership model drawn from the CIP literature. Additionally, we highlight the specific strengths of the CIP model and illustrate its unique potential to contribute to the literature moving forward. We also highlight the conceptual and methodological limitations of the CIP model that if addressed will broaden and facilitate the CIP model's potential to contribute to our future understanding of leadership in research and practice.

Acknowledgements

We thank Tamara Friedrich, Jennifer Griffith, Andrea Hetrick, Gina Scott Ligon, and Kelsey Medeiros for their helpful input on earlier drafts of this manuscript. We also thank our editor and two reviewers for their insights and support throughout this process. This research was

supported by the MacGill Quasi Endowment Fund at the McIntire School of Commerce.

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