Leadership in Temporary Organizations: A Review of Leadership Theories and a Research Agenda

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ABSTRACT ■

Projects and other temporary forms of organizing are different from standard organizational processes. As most leadership theories are based on the assumption of stable organizational environments, the increase in temporary forms of organizing poses specific challenges to leadership theories. We evaluate existing leadership theories in terms of their applicability on temporary environments and identify theories, which are adaptable to temporary settings and therefore may be the basis for empirical investigations in this field. On this basis we derive a research agenda by proposing individual leadership theories and combinations of different leadership approaches to be further assessed in research.

KEYWORDS: leadership; leadership theory; project; team; temporary organization

The Challenge of Leadership in Temporary Settings

The competitive landscape of the 21st century requires corporations to swiftly adapt to changes in dynamic environments and to constantly develop and implement innovations. One prevalent means for establishing organizational flexibility is temporary forms of organizing, as are projects and programs. Although temporary organizations were originally the domains of project-based industries, such as construction, management consulting, filmmaking, and software engineering, an increasing projectification can be observed in almost any industry today (Sydow et al., 2004; Bakker, 2010). Projects are prevalent means for establishing organizational flexibility, inducing organizational change, generating innovation, and strategy implementation (Whittington et al., 1999). Today, temporary forms of organizing are not solely used for handling extraordinary undertakings, but also represent an increasingly larger share of organizations' ordinary operations (Engwall, 2003).

Temporary forms of organizing are different from standard organizational processes because they are unique in terms of tasks and have a limited duration and a short-term orientation. Owing to this, temporary organizations are characterized by discontinuous personal constellations and work contents, a lack of organizational routines, and a cross-disciplinary integration of internal and external experts. In many cases, projects are also carried out beyond hierarchical lines of authority and cut across organizational boundaries (Engwall, 2003; Hanisch & Wald, 2011).

The characteristics of temporary organizations pose specific challenges to leadership (Chen et al., 2004), because long-established leadership styles and approaches might not work in temporary settings (Cleland, 1967; Thamhain, 2004). Many theoretical approaches that build on the assumption of fairly stable and continuous organizational environments partly neglect important characteristics of temporary organizations. This is also true for leadership research in general (Shamir, 2011) and especially for contemporary leadership theories that conceptualize leadership as a process of complex interactions between leader and followers, focusing on relationships, interaction, and subjective perception (Yukl, 2012; Bluedorn & Jaussi, 2008). The same applies to the recent body of research dealing with the cognitive and social construction of leadership, such as shared leadership approaches, which generally focus on the process of leadership emergence (Avolio et al., 2009). Research on leadership in organizations integrates a variety of approaches, ranging from successful leadership skills and character traits, situational leadership behaviors, the analysis of leadership emergence between leaders and followers, to the social construction of leadership. Still, most of this research assumes at least fairly stable organizational settings; however, temporary

organizations may require approaches that differ from those used in permanent organizations (Chen et al., 2004; Packendorff, 1995). The importance of leadership in temporary organizations is also substantiated by practitioners. Project managers and project leaders consider leadership as the dominant determinant of project success (Zimmerer & Yasin, 1998).

This paper follows the general call for a sounder theoretical foundation of project management research (Hanisch & Wald, 2011). In particular, we seek to analyze the implications of temporary organizations for leadership and provide a systematic review, which relates the specificities of temporary organizations to different leadership theories. We start by elaborating on the specific characteristics of temporary organizations, in contrast to permanent organizational settings. Based on these characteristics, we evaluate existing leadership theories and theories on leadership in teams in terms of their applicability to each characteristic. We further discuss the possible factors that influence the emergence of leadership in the context of each characteristic. As a result, we identify leadership theories applicable to temporary settings, which may serve as a basis for future empirical studies. On this basis we suggest a research agenda that builds on individual leadership theories and on combinations of different approaches.

What Is a Temporary Organization?

Temporary organizations can be seen as aggregates of individuals temporarily collaborating for a shared cause (Packendorff, 1995). These temporary organizations take the forms of projects, programs, temporary teams, or task forces. We focus our considerations on the challenges people face when working in temporary organizations existing within one permanent organization, although cross-company, international projects exacerbate the challenges on leadership discussed in the

Characteristic	Potential Consequences/Challenges
Temporariness	Hampers development of positive relations (i.e., trust) and shared values/norms
Missing/ambiguous hierarchies	Participants mainly obliged to line function, potential "authority gap" of project leader
	Inter-divisional and hierarchical collaboration hampers teambuilding processes
Changing work teams	Frequent changes allow for less time for beneficial group processes
	Difficulties in developing group cohesiveness and commitment
Heterogeneity of members	Coordination and communication across disciplinary boundaries may be difficult
	Individual knowledge not sufficient, limited recourse on experiences and routines
Unique project-outcome	Higher uncertainty and risk involved, creativity and autonomous decision making required

Table 1: Characteristics and observed effects of temporary organizations.

paper at hand. Within temporary organizations, individuals usually team up for a predefined time to work on the tasks set. As shown in Table 1, teams in temporary organizations differ substantially from those in permanent organizational settings; however, they display certain peculiar similarities. Teams in temporary organizations can also be described as a unit consisting of two or more people who are accountable and having the same purpose, mission, goals, and expectations (Lussier & Achua, 2009). What distinguishes temporary teams from non-temporary teams is that they carry out time-limited undertakings and disperse upon completion (Chen et al., 2004). The team's limited duration is mostly defined from the outset, thus paving the way for a joint course of action with the goal of completing a non-routine task. This is often accompanied by non-routine processes and uncertain working conditions (Pich et al., 2002), whereas complexity in terms of roles and participant backgrounds is often caused by a variety of different experts working together (Chiocchio & Essiembre, 2009; Hanisch & Wald, 2011, 2013) and differing (hierarchical) roles outside the temporary organization

(Baccarini, 1996; Packendorff, 1995). This setup denotes higher uncertainty and risk in terms of tasks and processes. The team working on the unique product outcome is neither a routine nor a well-rehearsed one (Brockhoff, 2006). Most temporary organizations are based on and set up by a permanent organization (Ekstedt et al., 1999).

Although temporary organizations typically denote projects, the use of the term indicates a different underlying concept. The traditional view on project management highlights the technical challenges, such as the "planning" or "structuring" of temporary undertakings (Zwikael & Unger-Aviram, 2009). In turn, the general trend toward organizing business processes by temporary systems draws attention to the social interactions taking place in these undertakings and requiring further study (Ekstedt et al., 1999). This conceptual shift highlights the recognition that these characteristics impact the people working in project environments (Hanisch & Wald, 2011). In this paper, we use the terms "temporary organization" and "project" interchangeably, although the concept of temporary organizations is broader than that of a

project as it includes programs, temporary teams, and other forms of temporary collaboration.

Effects of Temporary Organizations' Characteristics on Leadership

Five main characteristics of temporary organizations lead to several challenges uncommon in permanent organizations (Table 1). A central question raised in this context is how leadership takes place in these settings.

Temporariness

Time and its effects on organizational undertakings have received very little attention in organizational research (Ancona et al., 2001; Jones & Lichtenstein, 2008) and in leadership research (Bluedorn & Jaussi, 2008; Shamir, 2011), whereas temporary settings have received almost no attention in this regard (Bakker & Janowicz-Panjaitan, 2009). Taking their cue from permanent teams in organizations, Hoegl et al. (2004) have identified three phases in the development of project teams. The initial "conception phase" sees the project manager and his or her team focusing on the setting of project goals, course of action to fulfill these goals, and resource planning. In the subsequent "organizing phase," the manager and his or her team members establish rules and boundaries, defining relationships, designing the team's tasks, and securing resources. Shared norms and values are also established. The final "accomplishment phase" incorporates activities that seek to enable team members to effectively work together to successfully complete the project. Research has shown that leadership influences team performance throughout these phases (Thamhain & Gemmill, 1974; Zwikael & Unger-Aviram, 2009). In contrast to the acknowledgment of different phases in a project, Gersick (1988) found evidence that the accomplishment of project work is less tied to temporal sequences but to externally imposed deadlines.

This effects team members' time-horizon: a short-term orientation with a focus on immediate deliverables prevails. As a consequence, decisions and actions that require a longer time-horizon, such as investments in knowledge management systems or management control systems, are hindered (Love et al., 2005; Lindner & Wald, 2011).

Unique Outcome

As the outcome of a temporary undertaking is unique, the path to realizing such an outcome is often marked by uncertainty (Atkinson et al., 2006). Regarding the processes in temporary organizations, project management methods and standards partly compensate for a lack of permanent processes (Hodgson, 2004). However, the newness and complexity of the tasks often require novel approaches. As individual knowledge is not sufficient, a variety of experts with vastly different backgrounds collaborate (Chiocchio & Essiembre, 2009). Even though the degree of novelty of projects varies and cannot generally be specified in character or extent (Brockhoff, 2006), it often imposes the need for distinct and novel practices to effectively pursue the project's final aims. In order to display such behavior, project team members must be able to display creativity. This implies that leading—as merely giving instructions to be followed—is insufficient (Goodman & Goodman, 1976). The impossibility of reverting to routine processes and know-how requires a leader who inspires by providing a vision (Christenson & Walker, 2004) while allowing for learning (Pich et al., 2002) and autonomous decision making (Heinz et al., 2006).

Missing/Ambiguous Hierarchies

A temporary undertaking is to some extent autonomous from its host organization's (line) structures (Sundstrom & DeMeuse, 1990). In addition to a potential conflict of roles of project participants (Jones & Deckro, 1993), this might also lead to a semi-autonomous culture due to the collaboration of people from diverse educational backgrounds and

different organizational units (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002). Most people working in permanent organizations rely on their functional supervisor, because this person is responsible for promotion, training, and so forth. The leader of a temporary organization, therefore, has little de facto authority and might not be able to display the full range of (hierarchical) power available in a permanent organization toward his or her subordinates. This leads to different mechanisms and different effective practices in the personnel management and team development of temporary organizations (Zwikael & Unger-Aviram, 2009).

Heterogeneity of Team Members/ Changing Work Teams

Temporary teams often consist of individuals with complementary skills and originating from different departments (Zwikael & Unger-Aviram, 2009). Due to non-routine tasks or lack of availability, several experts might participate in the overall process once, thus implying frequent changes of group composition and a lack of time for beneficial group processes (e.g., cohesiveness or commitment) to take place (Parker & Skitmore, 2005). In contrast to permanent teams, project team members may also be involved in several projects at the same time. This heightens the challenge to develop the team, since members spend only part of their time on the project in question (Kavadias et al., 2004; Kerzner, 2009; Zwikael & Unger-Aviram, 2009).

Leadership Theories and Their Suitability for Temporary Settings

As Yukl (2012) has pointed out, numerous definitions of leadership exist. Although these definitions differ in several aspects, many of them comprise a few common elements, which are reflected in a definition put forward by House et al. (1999, p. 184). They describe leadership as "the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organization . . ." At

the core of this definition are the relationship between a leader and the follower(s) and a process of influence. Existing leadership theories differ in their assumptions on who exerts influence and on how the influence is exerted. As a consequence, research on leadership has developed a range of approaches that differ significantly from each other in explaining the emergence and effectiveness of leadership. Therefore, several researchers have undertaken the effort to classify and categorize this body of research. This has either been done according to roughly the time these approaches emerged (e.g., Jago, 1982; House & Aditya, 1997) or according to the focus, conditions, and contexts these approaches consider (e.g., Burke et al., 2006; Avolio et al., 2009). As we seek to systematically analyze leadership theory with regard to its suitability in explaining leadership in temporary organizations, we chose the former categorization. We segment leadership theory into three broader categories, namely person-oriented approaches, situation-oriented leadership, and interaction-oriented leadership theories. As cross-functional teams display several of the characteristics of temporary organizations, leadership research dealing with team settings is also taken into account (Oakley, 1999; Grant et al., 2001; Lussier & Achua, 2009).

We analyzed the applicability of the different leadership theories to the characteristics of temporary organizations by considering each characteristic separately. For every characteristic we asked the sequence of questions shown in Figure 1. First, we analyzed if the respective characteristic of temporary organizations is explicitly considered by the leadership theory. If this is not the case, we asked if in principle the leadership theory could be adapted to the characteristic (a) or not (na). If the respective characteristic is considered by the leadership theory, we looked for existing empirical research applying the leadership theory to the context of
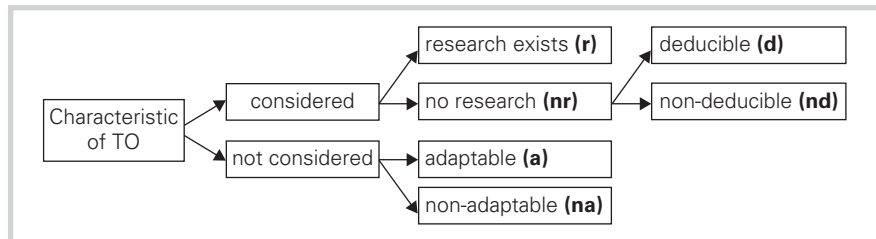

Figure 1: Procedure for classifying leadership theories.

temporary organizations (r). Where we found no existing research (nr), the possibilities end with the impact of the characteristic on leadership being deducible (d) or non-deducible (nd) on a theoretical basis. Although the classification is the result of the individual assessment of the three authors, we sought to enhance validity by separately classifying the theories in a first step. In a second step, we compared and cross-checked our classifications and eliminated potential inconsistencies. The results of the classifications are shown in the Tables 2 through 5 and serve as a basis for the following discussion.

Person-Oriented Leadership

Many leadership theories focus on the individual and his or her role in the leadership process. As these approaches share an individual perspective of the emergence of leadership, they can be termed person-oriented approaches (Weibler, 2012). These can further be categorized into leader-oriented and follower-oriented approaches. In general, these theories do not consider project-inherent characteristics such as limited duration (as the focus is on individual abilities and traits), ambiguous hierarchies (as the focus is on leaders' abilities, irrespective of their formal position), and changing work teams with heterogeneous backgrounds (as the focus is on dyadic relations, not group phenomena). Still, these approaches are dominant in the literature on leadership in projects, as project managers' traits and leadership styles are considered (Gehring, 2007; Pettersen, 1991; Pinto & Slevin, 1991;

Zimmerer & Yasin, 1998). The majority of work on projects focuses on the search for factors that define successful project leaders (Zimmerer & Yasin, 1998), sometimes distinguished between project types (Müller & Turner, 2007).

Table 2 outlines the most prevalent person-oriented theories (in rows) and temporary organizations' main characteristics (in columns). The entry in a row's cell intersecting a column contains the tag of the theories' applicability to the specific characteristics of temporary organizations resulting from the procedure described above (see Figure 1). Tables 3 through 5 are structured accordingly.

Following trait theory as a common leader-oriented approach, specific traits such as assertiveness, decisiveness, persistence, self-confidence, and skills such as cleverness, persuasiveness, and eloquence have been found to contribute to a leader's personality (Bass, 1990). Research in this direction is still ongoing (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991). Several authors have applied this approach to temporary settings (cf. Table 2). Results indicate that several traits are suitable for project leadership, although these traits are not contrasted to those desirable in permanent settings. Zimmerer and Yasin (1998), for example, asked 76 senior-level project managers to rank the most important leadership skills of effective project managers; answers included being a team builder, a good communicator, and a motivator. This could be an indicator for the relative importance of skills that enable the temporary group

A Review of Leadership Theories and a Research Agenda

Characteristic of Temporary Organization					
Category/Research Stream/Theory	**Temporariness**	**Missing/ Ambiguous Hierarchies**	**Changing Work Teams**	**Heterogeneity of Members**	**Uniqueness**	**Adapted on Context of Temporary Systems**
Leader-oriented						
Great Man Theory	a	a	a	a	a	yes
Trait Theory	a	a	a/r	a/r	a/r	yes
Emotional Intelligence	a	a	a	a	a	yes
Charismatic Leadership	a	a	a	r	r	yes
Follower-oriented						
Attribution Theory	a	na	na	a	na	no
Learning Theories	a	a	a	a	a	no
Note. Adaptable (a), non-adaptable (na), researched (r), not researched (nr), deducible (d), non-deducible (nd).						

Table 2: Person-oriented leadership approaches in the context of temporary environments.

Characteristic of Temporary Organization					
Category/Research Stream/Theory	**Temporariness**	**Missing/ Ambiguous Hierarchies**	**Changing Work Teams**	**Heterogeneity of Members**	**Uniqueness**	**Adapted on Context of Temporary Systems**
Contingency Theories	r	r	a	a	r	yes
Path-Goal Theory	r	na	na	na	a	yes
Normative Leadership Theory	a	a	a	a	a	no
Note. Adaptable (a), non-adaptable (na), researched (r), not researched (nr), deducible (d), non-deducible (nd).						

Table 3: Situation-oriented approaches to leadership in temporary settings.

to become a team. As time is limited and individuals might not share common ground, these skills could be of greater importance than in permanent settings. Pettersen (1991), conducting a literature research on studies that considered leadership skills in project settings, found that the literature contained great conceptual and statistical weaknesses; therefore, he recommended a focus on external validity (generalizability of the results) and called for more statistical rigor.

Several other leadership approaches in this line of research, as well as the concept of emotional intelligence, have been considered in the context of projects (Clarke & Howell, 2010; Côté et al., 2010; Müller & Turner, 2010). Because the ability of a leader to detect, use, understand, and manage emotions

(Côté et al., 2010) is crucial for leading in environments with prevailing authority gaps (Hodgetts, 1968), the applicability of emotional intelligence concepts to temporary settings suggests itself. Although these concepts do not explicitly investigate project-inherent characteristics, they seek out intrinsic motivational aspects (Lussier & Achua, 2009). For example, a project leader with emotional intelligence may describe a task in an emotionally appealing way. This can result in a high degree of intrinsic motivation of the followers, which may compensate for a potential authority gap. However, findings on research using emotional intelligence concepts indicate that some emotional intelligence sub-dimensions (influence, motivation, and conscientiousness) are important across all projects, whereas other

aspects vary across project types and characteristics (Müller & Turner, 2010). Research by Clarke indicates a link between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership, which we will discuss later (Clarke, 2010).

Attribution theory forms a link between leader-oriented and follower-oriented approaches by addressing the creation of individual opinions in leader-follower relationships (Winkler, 2009). This theory basically describes the emergence of leadership as a four-step process, in which—in the case of potential followers—the actions of a potential leader and its effects are scrutinized. This process can also be assumed for regarding charismatic leadership theories (Weibler, 2012). Here, the notion of time is implicitly acknowledged but not explicitly accounted for, aggravating the

estimation of how long this four-step process will take or whether it might even be accelerated in temporary settings (Kelley, 1973). Another aspect of attribution approaches that is of importance for temporary settings is the discovery of the "fundamental attribution error" (Iles & Hayers, 1997, p. 108), which describes the tendency to overemphasize one's character and those of others while underemphasizing the situational influences as reasons for specific behavior. The heterogeneity of team members, the temporariness of the undertaking, and the accompanying weak relationship emergence in a project are important situational influences that may either reinforce or reduce the attribution error in the follower's perception of a project leader.

Learning theory is another follower-oriented approach, which should be scrutinized in terms of its applicability for temporary organizations. Several learning approaches exist: functional approaches, often based on stimulus-response models, prevailed for a long time as so-called classical or behavioral theories. A more recent approach takes on social learning theory, which, in contrast to older approaches, does not focus on the leader and his or her role as reinforcer but on the role of social and mental aspects in learning as well as contextual influences, such as environmental and behavioral factors (Sims & Lorenzi, 1992; Winkler, 2009). Thus, learning processes are based on observations of the environment, including the behavior and the experience of others. Thereby, the individual learning process can be accelerated and bypassed through participating and imitating others (Manz & Sims, 1981). Although to our knowledge this line of reasoning is not followed in research on temporary organizations, some indications exist: a person new to a project might be able to successfully anticipate the characteristics of temporary settings by imitating the project leader and his or her behavior. This underlines the importance of experienced project managers, because only

lived-in behaviors will enable followers to successfully learn from a leader.

Situation-Oriented Leadership

Several leadership approaches disagree with the idea of universally successful behaviors and styles in leader-follower settings. This stream of thought focuses on specific *situations* in which leaders are more likely to succeed if their characteristics correspond to the situation at hand (Northouse, 2009). Based on trait and behavioral approaches, these contingency theories hold that a leader is most effective if a situation matches his or her leadership style (Lussier & Achua, 2009).

Fiedler (1967) designed a questionnaire for his contingency leadership model with which a leader should find the appropriate leadership style in a given situation. This three-step model first addresses the leader-follower relationship, which can be good or poor. Second, it addresses the nature of the task at hand, which is repetitive or non-repetitive. Third, the leader's power is ranked as strong or weak. Given the nature of most temporary organizations, the first question (concerning the leader-follower relationship) depends on the undertaking's duration and can involve poor relationships with followers in short activities, but also good relationships in longer-term projects. Second, in most temporary organizations, the tasks at hand are generally non-repetitive, since temporary organizations generally seek to accomplish novel tasks (Packendorff, 1995). Evidently, several examples can be cited in which task non-repetitiveness is less distinct, given the nature of similar processes in projects of certain industries (Müller et al., 2012). Third, the leader's power is likely to be weak, at least weaker than in comparable host organization settings (Jones & Deckro, 1993). Again, there may be differences, for example, in strategic projects, where a project leader might be granted extensive power by senior management. According to Fiedler (1967), these possibilities lead to either

relationship (in the case of good or poor relations, non-repetitive tasks and strong power in the case of weak relations, weak power in the case of strong relations) or task-oriented (in the case of good or poor relations, non-repetitive tasks and strong power in the case of good relations, and weak power in the other case) leadership styles. With this, Fiedler's contingency theory can be used in temporary settings. As result, either a task or relation-oriented leadership style could be the recommended outcome for the respective setting.

One situation-oriented approach in which temporariness plays a key role is Tannenbaum and Schmidt's (1973) contingency model. Available time is considered one factor that affects the choice for one of seven leadership styles, ranging from autocratic to participative. The rationale is the simple fact that participative decisions take more time, which means that the shorter an undertaking's duration, the more appropriate an autocratic leadership style.

Path-goal theory, another situational approach, strongly relates to follower-oriented approaches because it focuses on follower behaviors and preferences (Winkler, 2009). It distinguishes between subordinate factors (i.e., the degree of authority sought by an employee), the control of goal achievement, one's own abilities, and environmental factors. Environmental factors encompass task structure, formal authority (both corresponding to Fiedler's contingency model), and work group environment. Taken together, these factors influence the choice of the appropriate leadership style (e.g., directive-oriented vs. achievement-oriented). Relating the six factors to temporary organizations, complex task structures and low formal authority could be assumed, as discussed in Fiedler's model. Since the individual's ability to largely influence a project's outcome seems to decrease by project size and complexity, a follower's locus of control might correspondingly be

A Review of Leadership Theories and a Research Agenda

perceived as increasingly external. The combination of the six factors determines the appropriate leadership style among four alternatives. For temporary organizations, all of the four leadership styles are potentially feasible.

Although directive-oriented and achievement-oriented leadership styles seem appropriate in few settings, factors leading to supportive and participative leadership styles often prevail in temporary environments. Supportive leadership is recommended in situations where followers refuse an autocratic leadership style, have high abilities and an internal locus of control, whereas environmental tasks are simple and formal authority is weak. This is a prevalent setting in temporary organizations (Jones & Deckro, 1993). In turn, participative leadership is considered in complex environmental settings with high follower ability and weak authority, whereas followers want to be involved and the locus of control is internal. This seems to be the case in many new product development projects (Akgün et al., 2007; Müller et al., 2012). Directive leadership is probably less appropriate, because the combination of strong desire for leader authority and low follower ability with a complex environmental task, strong formal authority, and high group member job satisfaction seems rare. The same holds true for an achievement-oriented leadership style, which fits settings with high autocratic leadership and high follower ability, external locus of control, simple environmental tasks, and strong (formal) leader authority. This constellation can often be found in organizational change projects and consulting projects. In general, a project categorization framework, as proposed by Dvir et al. (1998) is recommended. The authors structure projects according to their level of complexity (management tasks) and novelty (technological uncertainty), which could serve as the underlying basis for the choice of factors from Fiedler's model.

Normative leadership theory and its models take a specific decision as initial point. Since one component of the decision tree is time (in contrast to the development-driven model), this approach seems to be a good fit for temporary settings. The corresponding models basically address the question of when leaders should take the lead and when they should let the group decide. The possible choice of leadership styles reflects the traditional range between autocratic and democratic (Lussier & Achua, 2009). The constituting factors of this approach are the significance of the decision at hand; the importance of follower commitment; leader expertise; the likelihood of follower commitment; group support for objectives; group expertise; and, overall team competence. The relevance of the individual components varies according to the decisions at hand. Considering the three characteristics of the time-driven model—which comprises focus (effective decisions in minimum time), value (time is money), and orientation (short-term)—the decision situations in temporary settings seem well reflected. Similar to Fiedler's contingency model, seven questions require answering, indicating the appropriate leadership style to be chosen.

For example, *group consultation* is recommended in settings with high decision significance, high importance of commitment, high leader expertise, but low likelihood of commitment and group support. This setting might be the case in projects where an experienced project manager has to deal with role conflicts among team members, which are caused by their different line functions in the permanent parent organization. A counter-example is a setting with high decision significance, high importance of follower commitment, low leader expertise (assuming that several experts are working together with the project leader, who is an expert only in his or her field), high commitment likelihood, and high group support and competence. In such a setting, *facilitation* is recommended; this involves participation and concurrence by team members in the decision process.

This scenario might occur in highly innovative development projects. Generally, normative leadership models seem suitable for temporary settings, because they incorporate time limitation as well as group characteristics.

In project management research, the situation-dependent suitability of leadership behavior has been acknowledged by several authors, who hold that leadership styles also depend on project settings. Hodgetts (1968) found that several strategies can help overcome the lack of formal (line) authority, depending on the project's industry. More recently, Müller and Turner (2010) indicate that certain leadership behaviors might be suitable for certain projects, while being less effective in others. They underline the argument of Pinto and Slevin (1991), who called for an adaptation of the project manager's leadership style to the individual situations throughout a project.

Interaction-Oriented Leadership
For a considerable time, leadership research was focused on the leader, thereby neglecting the impact of followers in the leadership process (Lussier & Achua, 2009). Dyadic approaches focus on the reciprocal influencing process between leader and follower. The implicit time frame needed for interaction is of crucial importance for the applicability of these approaches to temporary organizations.

One of the early interaction-oriented approaches is the idiosyncrasy credit theory (Hollander, 1958), which explains how individual group members may become leaders over time and how they are acknowledged as such by their peers. Time is a crucial variable in this context, because the emergence of leadership is constituted by the outstanding pursuit of a group's norms by one person. This person's willingness to strengthen the group's cohesion is hence acknowledged by the group members. In turn, this acknowledgment enables the potential leader to deviate from group behavior in order to achieve set goals. If this behavior

is successful, the other group members will give credit, enabling the person to further display such behavior. Although these assumed coherences underline the importance of time, it is difficult to predetermine a clear time frame. It seems understandable that collaboration's limited duration will not allow the assumed exchange processes to take place. Likewise, no project-related research on the temporal component of these approaches was found (cf. Table 4).

Similarly, general dyadic approaches—as antecedents of Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX)—deal with the development of leadership over time (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). In contrast to idiosyncrasy credit theory, dyadic approaches ask how (leader-follower) relationships emerge in organizations, how these relationships stabilize, and which qualities and consequences can be distinguished (Lussier & Achua, 2009). LMX investigates the quality of the exchange relationship between a leader and an individual member in a work unit. The starting point is the assumption that two kinds of relationships may exist between a leader and an individual member. While the low-quality leader-member relationship is based on the formal association as contained in the official job description and employment contract, the high-quality leader-member relationship is based on adjusted and mutually agreed

upon role responsibilities, including trust, respect, and reciprocal influence (Winkler, 2009).

Research on LMX indicates that some level of quality of the relationships forms rather swiftly (i.e., within a few weeks) (van Breukelen et al., 2006). This finding indicates the applicability of this approach to projects. Attention must be drawn to the fact that certain studies highlight the importance of the first encounter of a leader and an individual member, which is a determinant of the quality of the subsequent relationship. Authors researching teams argue that leaders generally lack the time to establish high-quality relationships with all team members (Boies & Howell, 2006). Adapting this to the other characteristics of temporary organizations, it seems crucial for leaders in temporary settings to tend to new team members in order to enable high-quality relationships. Nevertheless, relatively few empirical studies have dealt with the emergence of such high-quality relationships (van Breukelen et al., 2006).

Several authors hold that charismatic leadership is successful in situations of change or even crisis (Bass 1990). Because its success not only depends on the leader's abilities and the situation, but also on the follower's perception of crisis (Conger & Kanungo, 1987), we considered charismatic leadership under the aspect of interaction. In addition, we understand

charismatic leadership to be an element of transformational leadership, which focuses on the mechanisms and interaction processes by which leaders exert their influence on follower's motivation (Avolio et al., 2009). This understanding of charismatic leadership has found broad support (Lussier & Achua, 2009). Since temporary organizations are established in order to accomplish change (the extreme case being an organizational restructuring project), charismatic leadership is likely to play an important role in temporary settings. Charisma is used to describe a form of influence not based on legal authority but on the awareness of followers to the effect that a leader has (Weber, 1920). Charismatic leaders are perceived as bringing higher meaning to the goals to be achieved, thus committing their followers to these goals (Lussier & Achua, 2009). Owing to this, the problem of potential authority gaps and role conflicts caused by missing or ambiguous hierarchies (Cleland, 1967) could be mastered. Wang et al. (2005) investigated the impact of charismatic leadership on team cohesion during enterprise resource planning projects. They found evidence that team cohesion was positively affected by charismatic leadership, underlining the potential importance of charismatic leadership to temporary teams with unfamiliar and changing team members working outside of their usual authority structures.

Characteristic of a Temporary Organization						
Category/Research Stream/Theory	Temporariness	Missing/ Ambiguous Hierarchies	Changing Work Teams	Heterogeneity of Members	Uniqueness	Adapted on Context of Temporary Systems
Leader-Member Exchange Theory	d/r	a	a	a	na	no
Idiosyncrasy-Credit Theory	na	a	na	na	a	no
Transactional Leadership	d	na	d/r	d/r	d/r	yes
Transformational Leadership	r	r	a	r	r	yes
Note. Adaptable (a), non-adaptable (na), researched (r), not researched (nr), deducible (d), non-deducible (nd).						
Table 4: Interaction-oriented approaches to leadership in temporary settings.						

A Review of Leadership Theories and a Research Agenda

Several approaches investigate the impact of neocharismatic leadership on various organizational settings. Here, "neo" basically indicates that this research has moved on from Weber's notion of charisma (Winkler, 2009). Studies investigating charismatic leadership clearly indicate the positive effect on motivation, commitment, and overall performance of followers, especially in times of crisis and uncertainty (House & Aditya, 1997).

Charismatic leadership is also the central element of transformational leadership, which focuses on the leader's ability to transform follower needs and behaviors (Bass et al., 2003) and the ability to articulate an attractive vision of a probable future (Keegan & Den Hartog, 2004). While transformational leadership focuses on people and their motivations, beliefs, and behaviors, transactional leadership focuses on tasks and highlights the maintenance of stability, rather than change. The transactional leader exchanges benefits that satisfy follower needs and desires for follower-accomplished objectives or duties (Lussier & Achua, 2009). Because temporary organizations contain a broad range of complexity regarding tasks and people, the consideration of transactional and transformational leadership as a more complex approach reflecting task and people orientation seems apt. Owing to this, we follow Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) in arguing that transformational leadership can be seen as actions that affect where instrumental effects of transactional leadership do not work.

Several researchers have considered transformational leadership in projects (cf. Table 4). Barber and Warn (2005)

conceptually link transactional and transformational leadership, highlighting the need for project managers to use transformational leadership so as to proactively guide project team members. Yang et al. (2011) found that transactional and transformational leadership has a positive effect on project performance, although they do not differentiate between potential partial effects of both leadership behaviors. Keller (2006) uses a longitudinal approach and reports a positive influence of transformational leadership on project team outcomes. The findings of Keegan and Den Hartog (2004) indicate that the effect of transformational leadership tends to be weaker for employees reporting to project managers than for those reporting to line managers. Another study reported a negative effect of passive or absent leadership on stakeholder satisfaction in contrast to transformational leadership (Strang, 2005). Tyssen et al. (2013) develop a research model on the effects of transactional and transformational leadership in projects. They formulate propositions on the effectiveness of these leadership behaviors, depending on the characteristics of the project. They hypothesize that transactional leadership is particularly effective in projects with strong goal clarity, short duration, clearly defined responsibilities and rather low degrees of task novelty. In contrast, transformational leadership is supposed to be more effective in projects with a long duration, a high degree of task novelty, and ambiguous hierarchies. Kissi et al. (2013) provided evidence for the effectiveness of transformational leadership in more long-term oriented and more stable project environments. They found transformational

leadership of portfolio managers to have a positive impact on project success. Overall, empirical investigations have focused on individual projects or industries, thus receiving mixed results.

Another research stream highlights the importance of inspiring and visionary project leadership (Christenson & Walker, 2004). In this context, several authors have combined different leadership research streams regarding people-oriented dimensions, in contrast to more task-oriented leadership behaviors. Recently, elements of transformational leadership have been combined with emotional competences. Results indicate the importance of people-oriented behaviors and find evidence for the positive influence of different aspects of person-oriented behavior on team and task characteristics (Ayoko & Callan, 2010; Clarke, 2010; Müller & Turner, 2010).

Team Approaches to Leadership

Research covering leadership in teams generally addresses the effectiveness of team work using a team perspective (Morgeson et al., 2010; cf. Table 5). Legare (2001) identifies three types of teams to be covered by team-related leadership literature, of which cross-functional teams best reflect the characteristics of temporary organizations: cross-functional teams mostly consist of members from different functional areas in an organization and seek to perform "unique, uncertain tasks to create new and non-routine products or services" (Legare, 2001), which overlaps with the definition of project teams. Team members are most likely belonging to a functional, product, or service department, thus potentially leading to role conflict

Characteristic of Temporary Organization						
Category/Research Stream/Theory	Temporariness	Missing/ Ambiguous Hierarchies	Changing Work Teams	Heterogeneity of Members	Uniqueness	Adapted on Context of Temporary Systems
Research on Teams	a	r	r	r	r	yes
Note. Adaptable (a), researched (r).						
Table 5: Team approaches to leadership and its applicability to temporary organizations.						

(Lovelace et al., 2001; Smith et al., 2001), which is a common problem in temporary organizations (Baccarini, 1996; Packendorff, 1995). The self-managed team as another team type has recently found consideration with regard to temporary organization characteristics (Lindgren et al., 2007; Muethel & Hoegl, 2008). Here, the existence of a shared or revolving leadership enables the team to work on tasks without being limited by the formal authority of one person. Project-related research has also considered the phenomenon of distributed leadership and has called for further research in this area (Lindgren & Packendorff, 2009). However, most forms of temporary organizations involve one formal leader who is ultimately responsible for the outcome (Lussier & Achua 2009); therefore, we have omitted research in this regard.

Overall, team approaches to leadership stress the importance of leadership supporting the advantages of accomplishing organizational tasks in team settings, thus taking a functional approach of leadership (Morgeson et al., 2010). Research indicates that aspects of coworker heterogeneity positively influence creativity (Shin & Zhou, 2007) and problem-solving quality in groups (Earley & Mosakowski, 2000). On the other hand, homogeneity in groups promotes higher trust and better communication than in heterogeneous environments (Iles & Hayers, 1997). Here, a leader's task is to maximize the positive influence of team member heterogeneity and minimize possible negative effects. In this respect, team literature serves as a valuable source regarding effective leadership in temporary organizations. In general, research on teams highlights the importance of leaders' knowledge of team processes and of the requirements for the effective functioning of a team (Burke et al., 2006). Cross-functional team leaders inherit a crucial role as they can influence team cohesion and trust as well as minimize potential conflict (Lussier & Achua, 2009). In some respect, the leader's role

can also incorporate being a coach or facilitator (Morgeson et al., 2010), thereby empowering team members and seeking outside help if necessary, rather than displaying traditional leadership styles (Williams, 2001).

As projects are widely seen as one kind of team (Devine et al., 1999; Sundstrom, 1999), research on teams has frequently sought to discuss time, although only a few researchers involve time in their studies of social influence in teams (Marks et al., 2001). Instead, several researchers address phenomena such as group cohesiveness (Beal et al., 2003), social ties (Balkundi & Harrison, 2006), and innovativeness (Heinz et al., 2006) in project teams, but none addresses the emergence of leadership. Taggar et al. (1999) assume that working within a time constraint, appropriate team leader role behavior would primarily seek to organize work, work relationships, and goals, rather than developing trust between and regard for other team members. Generally, the four team forming stages of form, storm, norm, and perform are acknowledged, even though some doubt exists as to whether these model stages adequately capture the contingencies of team development (Rickards et al., 2001). These stages seem largely congruent with the noted development phases of temporary teams, as identified by Hoegl et al. (2004). Comparing the two variants of team formation, the dilemma of normative goal-setting and struggle for shared norms, which eventually results in a generally accepted set of rules and norms, is evident.

Lussier and Achua (2009) hold that a participative approach is most suitable for leading cross-functional teams as it best fits the inherent requirements. They further highlight the leader's role as advisor or consultant (rather that a commander or manager), which indicates the choice of person-oriented leadership styles. These considerations also seem valid for temporary teams, which have similar characteristics (e.g., heterogeneity and task novelty). On the

other hand, this general recommendation may not be sufficient if coordinative tasks with complex interaction and reciprocal adjustment are required (Iles & Hayers, 1997).

Research Agenda

As temporary organizing increases, leadership research must pay attention to projects, programs, and temporary teams. Specific characteristics may lead to behaviors that differ significantly from permanent settings. The leadership theories discussed in this article cover a long history of research and take on various perspectives. We identified several approaches and factors for further assessment regarding their contribution to understanding leadership in temporary settings.

In the following section, we integrate these approaches in a schematic depiction of temporary organizational characteristics (cf. Figure 1). The characteristics are grouped into four important elements that constitute a temporary organization, as identified by Lundin and Söderholm (1995): time, team, task, and transition (Figure 2). The characteristics of team heterogeneity and team constellation change are contained in the team element, whereas the task element includes the project outcome uniqueness as well as the non-routine work content. Transition is reflected by the three phases of conception, organization, and accomplishment, which were introduced earlier in this paper (Hoegl et al., 2004). Limited duration (time) as the unifying element (Bakker & Janowicz-Panjaitan, 2009) is placed in the middle of the diagram.

Combining this schematic diagram with the described leadership approaches, several suggestions can be derived for future research on the individual leadership theories. Along with these, we identify three main research fields that combine findings from the different leadership theories. They could help to advance the research on leadership in temporary organizations. We will address both potential areas for

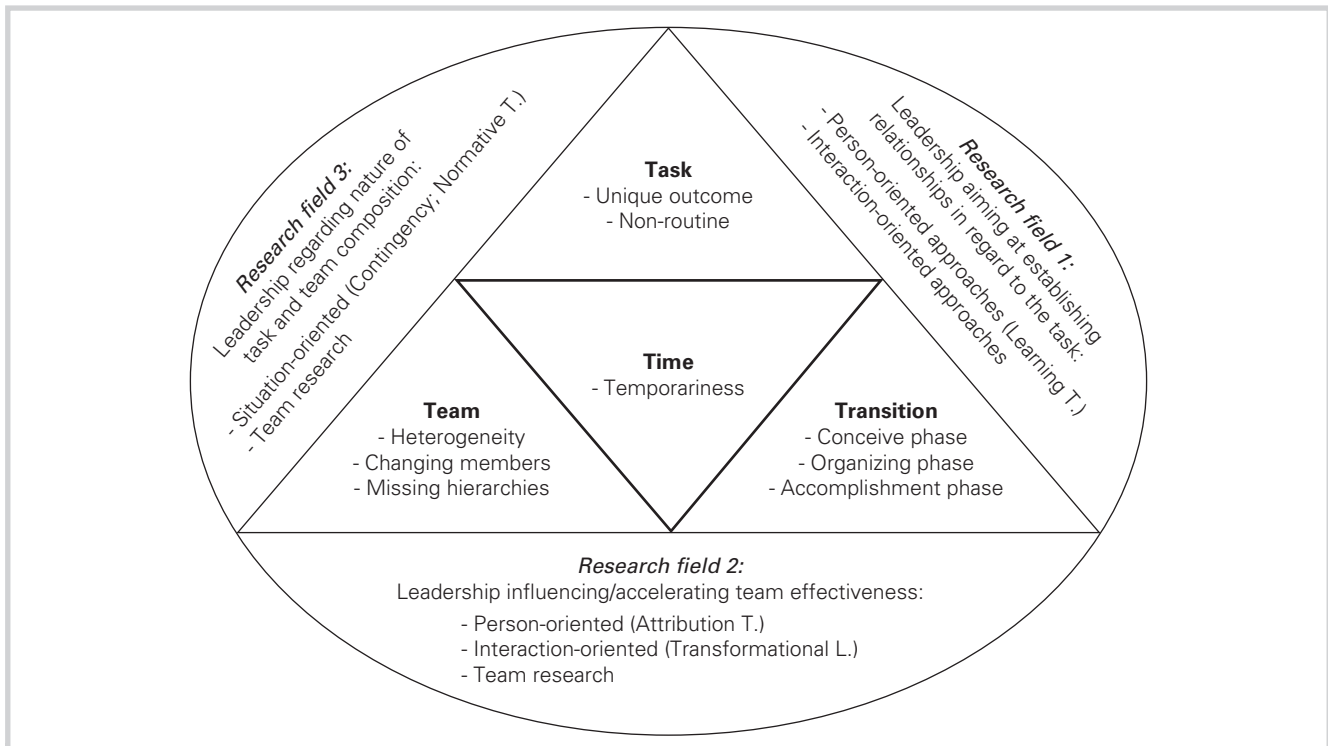# A Review of Leadership Theories and a Research Agenda

Figure 2: Schematic diagram of identified research clusters.

research—approaches using single leadership theories (and advancing chronologically in the course of this paper) and combined leadership theories (named research fields).

In the literature focusing on leaders and followers, we found several approaches that have already been applied to temporary settings. A number of leadership character traits and styles were identified. They may have a positive impact on leader effectiveness in temporary settings. Examples of such traits include team-building, communication, and motivation skills, indicating an emphasis on relationship-oriented qualities. Also, task-oriented skills were found to be important in terms of role and task clarification. In turn, the attribution error described by attribution theory highlights how important it is for project leaders to consider which situational factors cause what behavior in

order to avoid reluctant follower responses. The potential benefit of having experienced coworkers has been highlighted by considering learning theories. Here, project workers can benefit from such experience by adopting effective skills and behaviors.

Research Field 1: Leadership Aiming at Establishing Relationships in Regard to the Task

We suggest research on transactional and transformational leadership as interaction-oriented approaches to be considered jointly in order to test the effectiveness of these leadership concepts with respect to a project's nature and tasks. Interaction-oriented approaches draw attention to high-quality relationships between leaders and followers, which could be established swiftly. This finding is considered very valuable to temporary settings and highlights the

importance of the first encounter between leaders and project members. Furthermore, we consider transformational leadership approaches to be very promising, which is indicated by the growing body of research into transformational leadership in single project types.

In turn, contingency models as situation-oriented approaches account for the project context (i.e., the provision of specific leadership styles, depending on specific project characteristics). This seems particularly beneficial when considering projects with a high degree of complexity, novelty, and authority, among others. It also strengthens the view that effective leadership strongly depends on individual project characteristics.

Of particular interest for future research is the combination of findings from leader-oriented and follower-oriented leadership approaches (especially

learning theories) and interaction-oriented approaches to temporary organizations. Such research might yield new insights on how the different project phases could be influenced as well as which behaviors might play crucial roles at what stages. Findings from learning approaches could be especially valuable, because they may help in the understanding of how the three phases of conceive, organizing, and accomplishment could be designed in order to increase team work efficiency. The impact of supporting behavior from an experienced leader might also vary according to the nature of project tasks at hand. It is therefore proposed that findings from interaction-oriented approaches be incorporated when searching for suitable and generalizable leadership behaviors in temporary organizations.

Research Field 2: Leadership Influencing/Accelerating Team Effectiveness

Team-oriented approaches are generally valuable in broadening knowledge on the effect of team composition in temporary settings. Research on teams and the impact of team heterogeneity on task's accomplishment should focus on the type of task at hand and the type of team heterogeneity. In addition, research should draw upon insights on effective team composition and how a leader can address less-than-ideal team compositions. Here, further research is needed into leadership effectiveness and its correlations with project team heterogeneity, project characteristics, and environmental factors.

Combining interaction-oriented approaches with team research findings might further the understanding of leadership processes in temporary settings. We expect deeper insights into the underlying coherences of team characteristics as well as progress through various team phases with regard to effective leadership. In particular, the question as to how temporary team characteristics (e.g., heterogeneity, change, and missing hierarchies) can be addressed by which leadership behaviors should receive attention. This will shed light on how to establish high-quality relationships in projects. Furthermore, attribution theory—as a person-oriented approach—could foster a deeper understanding of leadership effectiveness throughout different team phases. Here, leadership effectiveness in different phases could be scrutinized considering potential attribution errors caused by project complexity, which might be caused by the heterogeneity of project members.

Research Field 3: Leadership Regarding Nature of Task and Team Composition

Insights on leadership effectiveness regarding the nature of tasks under a given team could be refined by insights from team research regarding team composition. In particular, insights stemming from different team types (e.g., R&D teams) could bear insights for leadership in temporary organizations with respect to the tasks to be accomplished. On the other hand, findings from contingency research could deepen our understanding of the interaction between leadership, teams, and tasks as well as their characteristics over time.

We suggest further combining findings from team research with insights from contingency and normative leadership research. This will result in knowledge on effective leadership behaviors in terms of specific project tasks and team compositions. For example, normative leadership theories provide concrete suggestions on which leadership behavior is suitable in regard to specific task and team characteristics.

Conclusion

Leadership in temporary settings is confronted with characteristics that are only partially addressed by established leadership theories. Although research has started investigating the characteristics of temporary organizations and their implications for leadership, the findings often remain limited to single and specific project settings.

We provided an overview of the existing research on leadership and on teams in project environments and identified several avenues for further research. Aspects requiring further attention in terms of their applicability in temporary settings have been found in all mainstreams of leadership research and team research, including the need to combine these streams. Findings from follower-oriented research regarding attribution process aspects might lead to valuable suggestions for project settings (i.e., in terms of how leaders could swiftly establish efficient leader–follower relationships). In turn, the application of normative leadership theory to temporary organizations could help guide project leaders. In addition, further research on contingency approaches might help identify leadership behaviors that are generally appropriate to projects. We have found that LMX approaches might contribute to effective leadership, since research indicates that high-quality leader–member relationships develop swiftly. Transformational leadership has recently received increased attention in the context of temporary settings, although with inconsistent findings. Lately, several researchers have thus combined transformational behavior characteristics with emotional leadership approaches, underlining the shift from merely task-oriented leadership to the complex sphere of social interaction. What has to be further studied is the combination of these approaches in order to broaden and deepen the knowledge on leadership in temporary settings.

As most research on leadership in temporary organizations has looked for character traits and behavior styles that would benefit project leaders, the applicability of other leadership approaches on projects remains largely unexplored. Our proposition of a research agenda

includes several approaches, which we identified as suited for studying leadership in temporary settings and which we would like to see better explored by empirical research. Transformational leadership approaches seem to be of particular interest because they highlight the importance of personal orientations that take place under the conditions of temporary settings. At the same time, transformational leadership is also strongly and positively affecting followers in permanent organizations. In conclusion, we propose to build on the encouraging results of existing work on leadership in temporary settings and to further incorporate and combine the various streams research. ∎

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