ORIGINAL RESEARCH

Humility and Charismatic Leadership: A Boost or Bust for Leadership Outcomes in the Russian Context

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Abstract *This study unpacks how leader humility and charisma are related to leader effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader and examines how the need for leadership may moderate these relationships. We used data from 252 respondents from Russian companies in a 2 (high vs. low leader charisma) × 2 (high vs. low leader humility) vignette design in which levels of charisma and humility were manipulated. While leader humility was found to have a positive effect on satisfaction with a leader, no significant link between leader humility and leader effectiveness was observed in this study. Leader charisma was positively related to leader effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader. The interaction between leader charisma and leader humility in relation to leadership outcomes was found to be positive and significant. The need for leadership did not affect the relations between leader charisma and leader humility on the one hand and outcome variables on the other hand. However, the need for leadership did show strong positive relations with both leader effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader. The study's findings suggest that leader humility increases prosocial orientation and cooperation between the leaders and followers leading to higher satisfaction with the leaders. Leader charisma may motivate the subordinate more, resulting in greater (perceived) effectiveness of the leader and increasing satisfaction with the leader. Leader charisma and humility can interact, reinforcing higher leadership outcomes. Though results are based on a single cultural context, investigating the interaction between leader charisma and leader humility with leadership outcomes offers implications for theory and practice.*

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Introduction

The world has seen the emergence of leaders who possess high charisma but low humility, leading to authoritarian tendencies. As a response to this overemphasizing of 'hard' leaders, many theories and models of 'soft,' more humane, and people-oriented leadership have been developed by academics and practitioners (Birasnav et al., 2015; De la Gala-Velásquez et al., 2023; Prabhu & Shrivastava, 2022). Research on transformational, participative, servant, and ethical leadership has flourished with many concepts and constructs. One of the central constructs in this rich web of 'soft' leadership seems to be humility, which Nielsen et al. (2010) define as 'a desirable personal quality reflecting the willingness to understand the self (identities, strengths, and limitations) combined with perspective in the self's relationship with others' (p. 34). With the potential to integrate, combine, and explain research in this field, humility has already attracted the significant attention of scholars and has been at the center of many conceptual, empirical, and even meta-analytical papers and reviews (Chandler et al., 2023; Luo et al., 2022; Morris et al., 2005; Nielsen & Marrone, 2018).

Leader humility refers to (a) willingness to view oneself accurately, (b) a displayed appreciation of others' strengths and contributions, and (c) teachability, or openness to new ideas and feedback (Owens et al., 2013a, 2013b, p. 1518). One consequence of this is that subordinates react positively to humble leaders by working harder, leading to various positive work outcomes. Humility allows individuals to develop a holistic self-concept and encourages them to be more sentient or aware of themselves with others, i.e., appreciating that one alone does not run the whole show (Gecas, 1982). Nielsen and Marrone (2018) reviewed the current understanding of the humility construct and identified ten components, including (number of papers theorized the component in brackets)—accurate self-awareness (11), openness/ teachability (6), appreciation of others/ things (5), transcendence (5), low self-focus (3), self-transcendent pursuit (1), no desire for control (1), recognition of luck and good fortune (1), relational/ collective orientation (1), and lack of concern of superiority (1). Though closely connected with similar constructs in the core of modern transformational, servant, and ethical modes of leadership, humility cannot be considered conceptually redundant (Luo et al., 2022). Humility was proved by Chandler et al. (2023) to be an independent concept differentiated from similar characteristics such as modesty, agreeableness, honesty-humility, core self-evaluation, and learning.

The nature of a humble leader is not to believe in the sole achievement of oneself but to work toward organizational achievement (Almeida et al., 2022; Caldwell et al., 2017; Hutt & Gopalakrishnan, 2020; Sushil, 2012). Humble leaders encourage subordinates to work collectively toward organizational well-being and develop a unified purpose of working together (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Hutt & Gopalakrishnan, 2020; Morris et al., 2005). Humility produces leaders that foster a learning environment, employee retention, and job satisfaction (Eragula, 2015). Leader humility enhances creativity (Chen et al., 2021; Hu et al., 2018), decreases turnover (Ou et al., 2018), stimulates the personal development of followers (Owens & Hekman, 2012), and improves team (Ou et al., 2014), project (Ali et al., 2021) and organizational outcomes (Zhang et al., 2017). Humility is a positive leadership style strongly associated with subordinates' performance and job satisfaction (Dhar et al., 2022; Ou et al., 2014, 2018; Rego et al., 2019). A review by Luo et al. (2022) summarized that humble leadership is positively related to affective commitment and trust, engagement, leader-member exchange, job satisfaction, organizational identification, psychological empowerment, employees' self-efficacy, task performance, and voice.

Past literature has also highlighted humility as a leader's critical competency for successful organizational leadership (Collins, 2001; Kochanski, 1997). The bibliographic review of Cuenca et al. (2022) selected 36 research articles directly investigating leader humility and identified it as a major area consequence of humility for CEOs' and leaders' outcomes. In particular, Morris et al. (2005) conceptualized that humility positively influences leader supportiveness toward others, socialized power motivation, and participative leadership. Nielsen et al. (2010) hinted at the possible interaction between these two constructs by theorizing that leader humility moderates the positive relations between socialized charisma and leader outcomes. Later, Chiu and Owens (2013) showed positive relations between humility and perceived leader charisma moderated by gender. Finally, Chandler et al. (2023) performed a meta-analysis of humble leadership and found its positive impact on participative decision-making and followers' satisfaction with the leader.

According to recent studies (Kiker et al., 2019; Li et al., 2021; Luo et al., 2022) identified country as the moderator influencing relationships between humility and organizational, team, or individual outcomes. Furthermore, they found the moderating effect of the country on the linkage between humble leadership and leader-member exchange. However, the correlation is smaller in Eastern than in Western countries. This agrees with Kelemen et al. (2022), who found in their review that humility may have a weaker influence in Eastern countries.

In the context of cross-national differences between Eastern and Western paradigms, it is interesting to

investigate humility in the cultural environment of intermediate countries. Russia is a good case with its tied cultural closeness to the West and power tradition close to the East (Bassin, 1991; Korosteleva & Paikin, 2021). The case of Russia is also interesting because, after the fall of the Berlin Wall, the country was exposed to international leadership trends (Shekshnia et al., 2017), which may have led to a softening of the traditional 'bigmanism' of powerful, charismatic leadership (Gill & Negrov, 2021) to the more 'soft' servant, people-oriented leadership (Karatepe et al., 2019). However, with the widening gap between Russia and the international community after the Russian invasion of Ukraine, this trend may have reversed (Das et al., 2023). In the context of traditional authoritarian leadership versus modern participative mode, the investigation of Russia may bring about many valuable findings.

Russia has been characterized by high power distance in Hofstede's model (Russia, 2017) and organizational leaders who prize hierarchy, inequality, and top-down decision-making' (Akhtar, 2018, p. 11). Humility in Russia was traditionally accepted as humility before God, which stimulated patience in grief, submissiveness to fate, and loyalty to authorities (Ilyin & Leonova, 2020). Although prior research suggests that subordinates respond well to humble leaders, other forms of leadership have also been shown to produce positive employee outcomes. Two approaches are often discussed in leadership literature: transformational leadership and charismatic leadership. Transformational leadership aims to reduce the distance between leaders and followers, while charismatic leadership is based on leaders with exceptional qualities that make them stand out. Little research has been conducted on combining these approaches into a single leadership philosophy. As Russia's dominant leadership style is in the 'twilight zone' between traditional authoritarian and more people-oriented leadership, the problem to investigate in this research is which role humility plays in leadership development in the country. Does it stimulate better leadership outcomes? Does charisma support or contradict humility in its influence on leadership outcomes? Furthermore, research has found that the need for leadership can moderate the relationship between leadership styles with leader outcomes (De Vries et al., 2002) because the need for leadership 'seems to be of immediate relevance for what happens in the interaction between the leader and the subordinate' (De Vries et al., 2002, p. 123). Consequently, we will also investigate whether people's need for leadership moderates the relationship between charisma and humility with leadership outcomes.

According to Kelemen et al. (2022), humility in Russia (or other East European countries) has not been inspected, and based on Kelemen et al. (2022) and Nielsen and Marrone (2018), the need for leadership has not been

considered as a moderator in leader humility research. Besides, the case of Russia, as a country oscillating between traditional leadership models and softer, people-oriented ones, is not unique. The findings can reveal the interesting interaction between leader humility, leader charisma, and leadership outcome under the moderating effect of the need for leadership relevant to many developing countries.

Leader Humility, Charisma, and Leadership Outcomes

Considering the oscillation of leadership in Russia from transactional to transformational and servant modes, it is interesting to analyze the interplay between leader humility and charisma (Chiu & Owens, 2013). Humility and charisma, especially socialized charisma, play a significant role in transformational and servant leadership (Smith et al., 2004) and may influence leadership outcomes. According to the review by Kelemen et al. (2022), leader humility has been researched in the contexts of its behavior, such as deviance, ethics, helping, feedback-seeking, proactive and prosocial behavior, knowledge collection, or hiding. There has also been extensive research on the attitudinal outcomes of leader humility—including followers' engagement, commitment, and work well-being—and performance outcomes, such as creativity, innovative behavior, performance, and project success. In addition, Kelemen et al. (2022) noted that while most researchers on leader humility analyze outcomes at the level of followers or a team or firm, there is a shortage of research at the level of leaders. They, therefore, highlighted the research on the consequences of humility for the leader as one of four key areas for future research.

Indeed, only five out of the 89 articles reviewed by Kelemen et al. (2022) on different outcomes of leader humility were about leader-related outcomes. Two out of five studies on leadership outcomes were related to rather specific outcomes such as turnover intentions, work-to-family conflict (Yang et al., 2019), and unethical behavior (Darren et al., 2022). Only three studies were devoted to perceived leader effectiveness and satisfaction with a leader, which can be considered outcomes in current leadership research (Bedi et al., 2016; De Vries et al., 2010). In our study, we define perceived leader effectiveness as the perceived success of the leader in fulfilling their role. We define satisfaction with the leader as the extent to which a subordinate has a positive attitude toward and enjoys working with a supervisor. D'Errico (2019) identified a negative relationship between leader humility and effectiveness in her experimental study. However, the study was about political leaders. Zapata and Hayes-Jones (2019),

using an experimental design with the help of vignettes, found that humility positively affects perceived leader effectiveness through agentic and communal characteristics as mediators. Krumrei-Mancuso and Rowatt (2021) investigated the relationships between leader humility and followers' satisfaction with a leader in the context of servant leadership. They found a moderately positive correlation between the two variables. The research on the effect of humility on perceived leader effectiveness and satisfaction seems unconvincing and therefore needs further research. That is, from the existing studies, it can be hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 1: Leader humility is positively related to leadership outcomes, such as satisfaction with the leader and perceived leader effectiveness.

Leader charisma is a part of transformational leadership and is widely used within different transformational leadership measurement models, first of the MLQ (Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire) and its modifications (Bass & Avolio, 2000; Birasnav et al., 2019), which proved their validity in different national contexts (as examples, Moreno-Casado et al., 2021 and Erkutlu, 2008) and organizational contexts (Rohmann & Rowold, 2009). In addition, two meta-analyses (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Lowe et al., 1996) have shown strong positive relations between transformational/charismatic leadership and leader outcome variables, such as leader or team effectiveness and subordinate satisfaction.

Empirical research offers support for the relationship between socialized charisma and behavioral outcomes. For example, leaders who scored high on socialized charisma and who were 'other-centered rather than self-centered' were found to exhibit lower levels of interpersonal and organizational deviance than leaders who were low on socialized charisma and who can thus be characterized as exhibiting personalized charisma (Brown & Treviño, 2006, p. 955). Based on these prior findings, it can be proposed that:

Hypothesis 2: Leader charisma is positively related to leadership outcomes, such as satisfaction with the leader and perceived leader effectiveness.

Owens and Hekman (2012) called leader humility a 'quiet charisma'; therefore, one can expect interaction between these aspects, especially in the context of transformational and servant leadership, which is particularly relevant to the current leadership shift in Russia. Transformational leadership includes charisma and individualized considerations related to appreciating others' strengths and contributions, typical of humility. Servant leadership accepts the socialized version of charisma as being based on selfless service to subordinates, which is in tune with

humility. Hence, the intersection between charisma and leader humility is becoming an interesting research area yet to be fully explored. In contrast to the number of studies on leader humility, there have been a great number of studies on transformational leadership or charismatic leadership. Chiu and Owens (2013) found that leader humility is significantly and positively related to charisma. Zhang et al. (2017) examined the moderation effect of charisma on the relationship between humility and innovation and found that charisma increases the positive effect of humility on innovative performance. As mentioned earlier, leader humility is related to socialized charisma, but less so with charisma measured neutrally concerning the socialized-personalized dimension, which leads to the next hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: Leader charisma and leader humility will interact in predicting the outcome variables, such that the strongest relationship with the criteria variables will occur for high levels of leader charisma and leader humility when compared to lower levels on one or both of the two leader variables.

Kelemen et al. (2022) specified the dynamic nature of humble leadership as another promising direction in humility research and conjured 'that humble leadership can fluctuate over time, between domains, and across situations' (p. 217). Oc (2018) identified the need for leadership as a dynamic situational factor; therefore, one may presume its important moderation effect on the relationship between humility and leadership outcomes.

The need for leadership has been defined as 'the extent to which an employee wishes the leader to facilitate the paths toward individual, group, and/or organizational goals' (De Vries et al., 2002, p. 122). In previous studies, the need for leadership moderated the relationship between leadership and leader outcomes (De Vries, 2000; De Vries et al., 1998, 2002), with stronger relations between leader styles and outcomes when the need for leadership was high. In particular, De Vries et al. (2002) also found a significant moderation effect of the need for leadership on the relations between charisma and leadership outcomes. Based on the findings of Oc (2018) and De Vries et al. (2002), in this study, the proposed effects of the need for leadership are further examined using the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4: Need for leadership will moderate the relations described in H1–H3, such that the strongest relations with the criteria will occur for those highest in need of leadership.

The conceptual model in Fig. 1 summarizes the hypotheses formulated above.
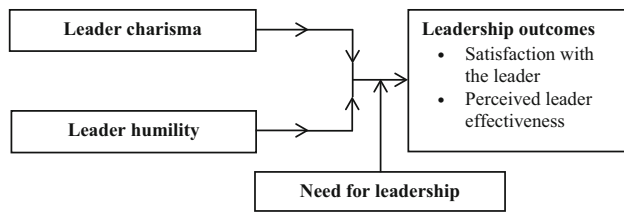
Fig. 1 Conceptual model of humility, charisma, need for leadership and leadership outcomes

Methodology

The data were collected through a Russian language-based online survey of professionals working for Russian companies. With the help of colleagues from six Russian universities and two independent business schools, a list of 800 former and current (with working experience) students was developed. Out of this list, 48 respondents willing to participate in the survey were randomly selected. With these respondents, the questionnaires were administered in the presence of the researchers during online classes or videoconferencing. Once the questionnaires had been completed, each of 48 respondents was advised to randomly select another 8 respondents in their organization or an organization known to them. They explained to their contacts the procedure of the questionnaire completion and provided the links to the online forms. The data from 252 respondents were collected. Five responses were disregarded as empty for more than 30 percent of questions. The average number of respondents in the meta-analysis of Lue et al. (2022) was 312. Of the 53 covered papers, 15 had a sample of less than 200, and 30 had less than 240 respondents. All studies from the review of Lue et al. (2022) were performed nationally. Twenty-three studies used a sample of less than 240 for countries with a population less than Russia. In terms of population size, the sample size seems to be acceptable.

The research is based on the covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM). According to (Boomsma & Hoogland, 2001), in most situations, at least 200 observations are needed to correctly apply CB-SEM. CB-SEM requires 5–10 observations per indicator (Hair et al., 2014). The study design is based on 26 items (see Fig. 1), so the appropriate number of observations is 130–260. Hence, regarding the analytical methods, the sample size of 247 appears appropriate.

All respondents ranged from 18 to 45, with a mean age of 21.95 (SD = 3.87) years. Their weekly workload varied from 0 to 70, with a mean workload per week of 30 (SD = 16.42) hours. Their work experience with the last employer ranged from 0 to 19 years, with a mean work experience of 2.08 (SD = 2.34). They worked in 22 industries (e.g., information and communication technologies ($n = 46$), various services ($n = 41$), and education and training ($n = 27$)).

The study was based on a 2 (high vs low leader charisma) × 2 (high vs. low leader humility) design where leader charisma and humility were manipulated based on a vignette. Using vignettes based on fictionalized accounts is well-established in contemporary social science (Sampson & Johannessen, 2020). The vignette consisted of a situation where a fictitious Russian paper manufacturing company was developing a new trainee selection procedure. The respondents were asked to imagine that they were participants in this project and to read the speech of the company's CEO (chief executive officer) as if they were present in a meeting with them. In the speech, the CEO described the current state, recent progress, and future strategy of the company, explained the importance of the project, and appealed to the participants to get involved with the project seriously. However, the content and style of the CEO's speech differed regarding leader humility and charisma in content-related and rhetorical aspects.

Each questionnaire included four parts. The first part comprised 100 HEXACO items to measure the respondent's personality. The second one started with the vignette followed by 14 statements measuring need for leadership (5 items), satisfaction with the leader (4 items), and perceived leader effectiveness (5 items). The third part included 12 items for leader charisma and humility manipulation checks. Finally, in the fourth part, the participants provided background information by answering 6 questions about their gender, age, level of education, working hours per week, work experience with a recent employer, and industry of the recent employer. All answers were provided on a 5-point (disagree–agree) scale except for respondent background information.

For each of the four vignettes within the 2 × 2 design described above, two questionnaire versions presented the same content but with different gender wordings. During the data collection, vignettes were randomly distributed among participants. As a result, the respondents to each questionnaire's version were relatively equal: high leader humility and high charisma = 62, low humility and high charisma = 56, high humility and low charisma = 62, low humility and high charisma = 67.

As the research is based on the personal impressions of respondents of leaders presented in vignettes, the respondents' personality may have influenced their responses and thus the relation between the concepts in the research model. To check the possible influence of respondent personality on the model's variables, background variables included not only demographic data such as age, gender, working hours per week, the industry of the last employer, and work experience with the last employer but also the scores of personality dimension based on the self-reported

HEXACO-PI-R (Honesty-Humility, Emotionality, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Openness to experience Personal Inventory-Revised). Russian version of the HEXACO was available from the official HEXACO site (https://hexaco.org/hexaco-inventory). This version was tested by Parshikova and Egorova (2016) on Russian respondents. One hundred items allowed to measure 25 facets grouped in six dimensions—Honesty-Humility, Emotionality, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Openness to experience. The average values for dimensions were 3.01–3.67, which is comparable with similar studies in different national contexts (Ashton et al., 2007; Lee & Ashton, 2005; Romero et al., 2015).

Need for leadership was measured with five items (e.g., 'In this company, the role of this CEO is absolutely indispensable.'). Four items were taken from De Vries et al. (1998), and one was modified. The items were measured with a five-point Likert scale. Cronbach's alpha was 0.73. The Satisfaction with the leader (e.g., 'I think I would be dissatisfied with this CEO.' (R—reversed coded)) and perceived leader effectiveness (e.g., 'Compared to others, he does not seem to be very efficient.') scales were measured using five and four items adapted from Bakker-Pieper and De Vries (2013) and Hooijberg (1996) and answered on five-point Likert response scales. Cronbach's alphas for satisfaction with the leader and perceived leader effectiveness were 0.86 and 0.78, respectively. Items in each scale were averaged to form variables.

Like Nübold et al. (2013) and De Vries (2000), the manipulations with leader charisma and humility were checked by the items related to the participants' impressions of the CEO's traits. The participants were asked to rate the CEO's properties related to humility and charisma using 6 questions each based on the format 'He/She gives the impression of being (personal trait related to humility or charisma).' The humility scale included such traits as humble, conceited (R—reverse coded), unpretentious, boasting (R), modest, and narcissistic (R). The leader charisma scale was formed with such items as visionary, boring (R), enthusiastic, uninspiring (R), passionate, and dull (R).

The humility and charisma questions answers were submitted to 2×2 ANOVA of averaged values within each scale to check that the manipulations produced the intended effects. The respondents who read the vignette describing a high-charisma leader gave a higher score on the leader charisma manipulation check ($M = 3.82$, SD = 0.65) than those who read about a leader with low charisma ($M = 3.36$, SD = 0.79), with a significant difference ($F (1, 243) = 25.21$, p-value < 0.00). No significant difference in leader charisma check was found when leader humility was manipulated. Means of leader charisma with

low and high leader humility were $M = 3.54$ (SD = 0.78) and $M = 3.61$ (SD = 0.75), respectively, with $F = 0.45$, p-value = 0.50. The participants who read the high humility vignette gave a higher score on the leader humility manipulation check ($M = 2.77$, SD = 0.72) than those who read the low humility vignette ($M = 1.99$, SD = 0.61). The difference was found to be significant ($F(1, 243) = 87.00$, p-value < 0.00). No significant difference was found in leader humility between low- and high-charisma vignettes. Means of leader humility with low and high leader charisma were $M = 2.42$ (SD = 0.84) and $M = 2.35$ (SD = 0.7), respectively, with $F = 0.48$, p-value = 0.49. Hence, the results confirmed that the manipulations produced the intended effects.

To evaluate the convergent and discriminant validity of constructs, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed, followed by the optimization of variables structure. Though CFA identified in HEXACO seven items with factor loadings below 0.32, the structure was kept intact. This structure was found as an extremely robust measurement model across many countries (Thielmann et al., 2020). The minimum Cronbach's alpha in the optimized scale was 0.79. The minimum average variance extracted was 0.21, while the maximum correlation between HEXACO factors was 0.18.

The initial CFA of the hypotheses' variables did not show factor loadings lower than 0.32. However, as these variables were significant for the theoretical model, the cutoff value of 0.63 considered by Tabachnick and Fidell (2014) as very good, was applied. As the results out of 26 initial items, 13 were left with at least two in each variable. The factor loadings and model fit test results are presented in Appendices A and B, respectively. The minimum Cronbach's alpha was 0.63 for the need for leadership, with all others above 0.79. The lowest average variance extracted was 0.48 for the need for leadership, which was below two correlations between this variable and leadership effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader, which suggest some issues with discriminant validity for the need for leadership. Other variables did not show these issues.

As the Fornel–Larcker criterion (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) of discriminant validity based on average variance extracted and used above has been found limited in comparison with HTMT (heterotrait-monotrait) ratio of correlations (Henseler et al., 2015), the latter criterion was also applied. The ratios were calculated with the 'semTools' package for R. The results, shown in Table 1, indicate no values above 0.90 (except the ratio between the same variables); thus, discriminant validity is considered to be established.

Structural equation modeling (SEM) was applied to the optimized variable model to convert the conceptual model into the structural model shown in Fig. 2 to test the

Table 1 HTMT ratios for the conceptual model variables

	Perceived leader effectiveness	Satisfaction with the leader	Leader charisma	Leader humility	Need for leadership
Perceived leader effectiveness	1				
Satisfaction with the leader	0.73	1			
Leader charisma	0.67	0.36	1		
Leader humility	0.36	0.54	0.40	1	
Need for leadership	0.74	0.73	0.49	0.43	1
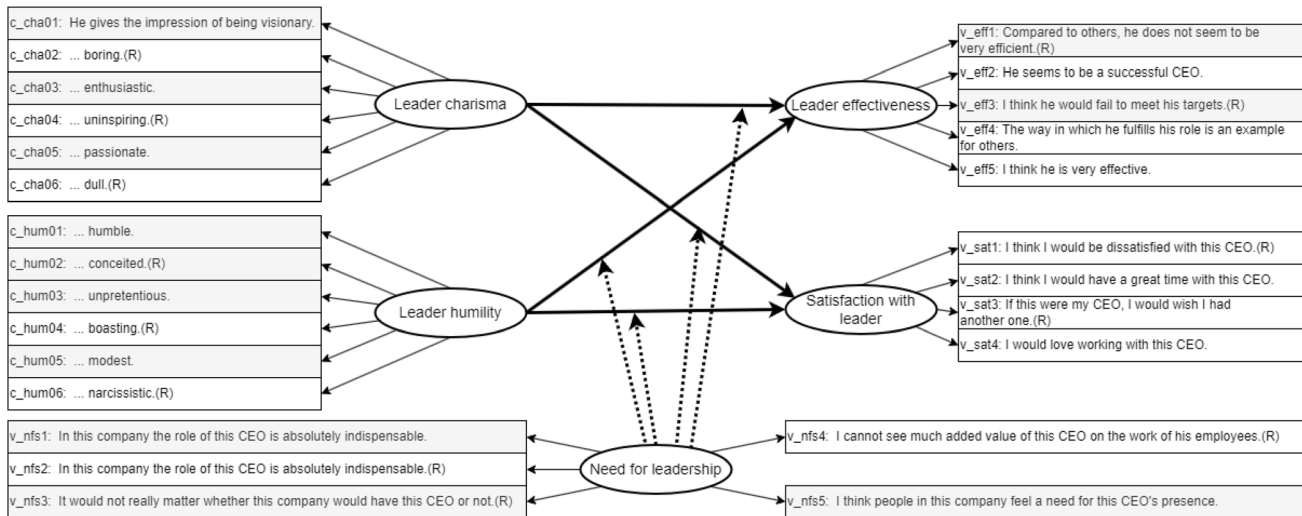
Fig. 2 Structural model of Leader charisma and humility relations with leader criteria moderated by need for leadership

hypotheses. The expected moderation effects are depicted with dotted lines. The excluded indicators are shown with gray color filling.

SEM is suitable for the discovery or testing of relationships between several latent constructs examinable with multiple measurable items and has been widely applied in multiple research areas, including psychology (Wang et al., 2022), leadership (Breevaart & de Vries, 2017), marketing (Singh et al., 2022), strategy (Dixit et al., 2021), etc. CB-SEM is usually applied within confirmatory, theory testing context whereas variance-based SEM (VC-SEM) is recommended for exploratory, theory building contexts (Mohamad et al., 2019). VC-SEM is a better option for research designs with small samples, many indicators, and nonparametric data. However, according to Awang et al. (2015), 'normality requirements should not be the reason for employing non-parametric SEM' (p. 1). Reinartz et al. (2009) also showed that 'parameter accuracy is virtually unaffected by non-normality of the data' (p. 28) so that 'CB-SEM proves extremely robust with respect to violations of its underlying distributional assumptions' (p.

35). They concluded that covariance-based SEM 'clearly outperforms variance-based SEM in terms of parameter consistency and is preferable in terms of parameter accuracy as long as the sample size exceeds a certain threshold' of 250 observations (p. 2). Therefore, though the data for this study does not satisfy the normality requirements, based on the considerations of Reinartz et al. (2009) and Awang et al. (2015) for this study the better or at least not worse option is CB-SEM, which was performed with 'lavaan' package for R.

Findings

Pearson's correlation coefficients and associated *p*-values were calculated based on the averaged values (Please see Table 2) to check whether there were any differences between the variables from the model as a function of numerical background variables (age, working hours per week, work experience in the current company) and HEXACO dimensions' scores, Some correlations were

Table 2 Results from ANOVA and correlation analysis

		Background variables			HEXACO scores						Investigated variables				
		Age	WH	WY	H	E	X	A	C	O	Leader charisma	Leader humility	Need for leadership	Satisfacti with leader	Perceived leader effectiveness
Background variables	Gender (F(23, 220) from ANOVA)										0.05	0.04	1.42	3.67	2.30
	Education (F)										1.07	1.08	1.98	0.89	0.71
	Industry (F)										1.38	1.22	1.20	1.39	2.13**
	Working hours per week (WH)	0.39**													
	Working year with the last employer (WY)	0.55**	0.24**												
HEXACO scores	Honesty-Humility (H)	0.19	0.09	0.03											
	Emotionality (E)	− 0.07	− 0.06	0.00	0.11										
	Extraversion (X)	0.08	0.09	0.09	− 0.11	− 0.16									
	Agreeableness (A)	0.20**	0.24**	0.12	0.37**	− 0.16	0.21**								
	Conscientiousness (C)	− 0.02	0.14	− 0.07	0.17	0.07	0.19**	0.06							
	Openness to Experience (O)	0.06	0.25**	− 0.04	0.18**	− 0.02	0.25**	0.15	0.29**						
Model variables	Leader charisma	0.09	0.04	0.02	− 0.01	− 0.04	0.04	0.05	0.13	− 0.02					
	Leader humility	− 0.03	− 0.05	0.10	− 0.02	− 0.02	0.10	0.19**	− 0.01	0.00	0.05				
	Need for leadership	0.01	− 0.02	0.06	0.00	0.06	0.01	0.00	0.10	0.07	0.01	− 0.02			
	Satisfaction with the leader	− 0.05	− 0.10	0.06	− 0.05	0.07	0.11	0.01	0.07	0.09	0.07	0.23**	0.51**		
	Perceived leader effectiveness	− 0.04	− 0.14	0.02	0.05	0.10	0.09	0.05	0.09	0.11	0.01	0.05	0.55**	0.75**	

** p < 0.01

Table 3 Fit indices for structural equation model

Index	Value
χ^2 / df	614.662/ 247 = 5.2
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.98
T-size CFI	0.97
Tucker–Lewis Index (TLI)	0.97
Bentler–Bonett Non-normed Fit Index (NNFI)	0.97
Bentler–Bonett Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.97
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	0.80
Bollen's Relative Fit Index (RFI)	0.96
Bollen's Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	0.98
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	0.08
Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)	0.06

observed within background variables, including HEX-ACO scores. But the important relations between background and model variables were not found. The only noteworthy correlation between the model and background variables was in the pair of leader humility (Hum) and agreeableness (A), but its level was 0.19, which can be considered weak. ANOVAs were performed to check model variables' differences across nominal background variables. The results showed no significant differences in model variables between Gender, Industry, and Education except between industry and perceived leader effectiveness ($F(23, 220) = 2.13$, $p = 0.003$). But this level was due to the difference in perceived leader effectiveness between advertising and four other industries. The correlation cannot be considered important because there were only three respondents from advertising. As a result, it can be concluded that background variables do not influence the

model variables, and personality traits of respondence do not impact their perceptions of leader humility and charisma described in the vignettes.

SEM fit metrics were found to be satisfactory. The fit indices are shown in Table 3. The results of SEM analysis provided in Table 4 show positive significant relations of leader humility with satisfaction with the leader ($\beta = 0.20$), but not with perceived leader effectiveness so Hypothesis 1 was supported partially. Leader charisma positively and significantly related to perceived leadership effectiveness ($\beta = 0.35$) and satisfaction with the leader ($\beta = 0.20$), so Hypothesis 2 was fully supported. Leader charisma and humility interacted in their relation to satisfaction with the leader ($\beta = 0.07$), but not in their relation to perceived leader effectiveness. Hence, Hypothesis 3 was supported partially. The moderation effect of the need for leadership was not statistically significant, indicating the lack of support for Hypothesis 4. However, direct—and strong positive—relations between need for leadership and both leadership outcomes were found, although this was not a central focus of this research.

Discussion

The findings only partially supported Hypothesis 1 as a significant association was found between leader humility and satisfaction with the leader ($\beta = 0.20$), but not between leader humility and leader effectiveness. The finding of 'no significant relation of leader humility to leader effectiveness' can be viewed from the romance of leadership perspective. According to this theory, the perception of a leader is conditioned by implicit leadership theories, the heart of which comprise prototypical categories of

Table 4 Regression coefficients for structural equation model

Predictor		Outcome	Estimate	Std. Error	z-value
Leader charisma	→	Perceived leader effectiveness	0.35**	0.07	40.86
Leader humility	→	Perceived leader effectiveness	− 0.01	0.06	− 0.02
Need for leadership	→	Perceived leader effectiveness	0.53**	0.10	5.31
Leader charisma* Leader humility	→	Perceived leader effectiveness	0.03	0.03	1.13
Leader humility* Need for leadership	→	Perceived leader effectiveness	− 0.07	0.06	− 0.94
Leader charisma* Need for leadership	→	Perceived leader effectiveness	0.02	0.06	0.24
Leader charisma	→	Satisfaction with the leader	0.20**	0.08	2.67
Leader humility	→	Satisfaction with the leader	0.20**	0.06	3.65
Need for leadership	→	Satisfaction with the leader	0.70**	0.11	6.14
Leader charisma* Leader humility	→	Satisfaction with the leader	0.07**	0.03	2.56
Leader humility* Need for leadership	→	Satisfaction with the leader	− 0.06	0.06	− 1.00
Leader charisma* Need for leadership	→	Satisfaction with the leader	0.04	0.06	0.71

** $p < 0.01$

leadership. These include traits such as 'dedicated,' 'goal oriented,' and 'decisive,' whereas the attributes associated with humility ('humanitarian,' 'likable,' 'healthy,' etc.) are considered less prototypical (Lord & Maher, 1993). As prototypical leadership can strengthen the expectation of success (Lord et al., 1984), non-prototypical leader traits may attenuate the associations between the leader and high performance.

There is partial support for Hypothesis 1; i.e., the significant association of leader humility with satisfaction with the leader agrees with previous research. Self-awareness, typical for humble leaders, can foster higher-quality and transparent interactions between leaders and followers leading to higher satisfaction with a leader (Owens et al., 2013a, 2013b). Appreciation of others, collective orientation, and lack of superiority of humble leaders reveal their supportive behavior, increasing satisfaction with a leader and improving leader–follower relationships (Reave, 2005). Leaders' humility promotes cooperation, and prosocial orientation increases followers' satisfaction with them (Krumrei-Mancuso & Rowatt, 2021). With regard to Russia and other developing countries, it may be concluded that servant leadership and other humane modes of leadership—in which humility seems to be an important component—are perceived positively by employees.

Hypothesis 2 was fully supported. Leader charisma is positively and significantly related to perceived leadership effectiveness ($\beta = 0.35$) and satisfaction with the leader ($\beta = 0.20$). These findings agree with the current body of knowledge. Meta-analyses of Judge and Piccolo (2004) and Lowe et al. (1996) reported a strong positive relation between charismatic leadership and leader outcomes, including subordinate satisfaction and leader effectiveness. The findings also converge with findings from other studies (DeGroot et al., 2009; Dumdum et al., 2002; Fuller et al., 1996), where positive effects of charisma on satisfaction with the leader were found. That is, there is a strong alignment between the popularity of charismatic leadership in Western business culture and its popularity in Russian companies that have been exposed to Western business culture in the last 30–35 years (McCarthy et al., 2010).

Hypothesis 3 was partially supported with regard to the interaction effect of leader humility and charisma on satisfaction with the leader ($\beta = 0.07$). The interaction effect on the perceived leader's effectiveness was not significant. Apart from the positive individual relations between leader humility and charisma to satisfaction with the leader, the increase in leader charisma leads to a stronger correlation between leader humility and satisfaction with the leader. Apart from gender, age, knowledge sharing, power distance, and other moderators of the link between humility and leadership outcomes systematized in Kelemen et al.

(2022), this study adds charisma to the moderators' list. As charismatic leadership in Russia has become a fully accepted leadership style, it may thus stimulate the effectiveness of 'soft' and people-oriented leadership patterns.

This study did not find support for Hypothesis 4. In contrast to De Vries (2000) and De Vries et al., (1998, 2002), the connections between leader charisma and humility, on the one hand, and leadership outcomes, on the other hand, were not found to be sensitive to the need for leadership. Therefore, the identified positive impacts of leader charisma on perceived leadership effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader, as well as of leader humility on satisfaction with the leader can be expected regardless of the specific Russian cultural amalgam of humility and high power distance (Ilyin & Leonova, 2020) or different job-related contexts (De Vries et al., 2002). This lack of need for leadership's moderation effect should be viewed based on the by-product findings that the need for leadership had direct significant positive relations with both perceived leader effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader. What is more, the coefficients for these relations were very high ($\beta = 0.53$ for perceived leader effectiveness, $\beta = 0.70$ for satisfaction with the leader). A consequence of this strong direct relation may be that the moderating effects are 'swamped' (i.e., stronger relations in part of the sample due to an interaction effect are hardly possible)—and thus less likely to be observed—in the presence of such a strong direct effect.

Implications for Further Research

Guided by prior research, this study conceptualized that leader humility can improve perceived leader effectiveness and satisfaction with leader under the positive moderation effect from need for leadership and that humility and charisma can be complements in their positive influence on both leadership outcomes. However, in our sample of educated Russians imagining themselves as potential followers, the role of leader humility seems to be less strong. It correlates only with satisfaction with leader. Leadership in Russian context is still oriented primarily to a traditional charismatic, powerful style. Leader charisma plays a much more visible role in influencing both perceived leader effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader. At the same time, humility and charisma do not contradict but complement each other at least in their positive influence on satisfaction with leader. This puts Russia in the transitive position between traditional and modern, more people-oriented leadership.

Contrary to the assumption, the moderation impact of need for leadership was not found in this study. However, the need for leadership directly and positively correlated
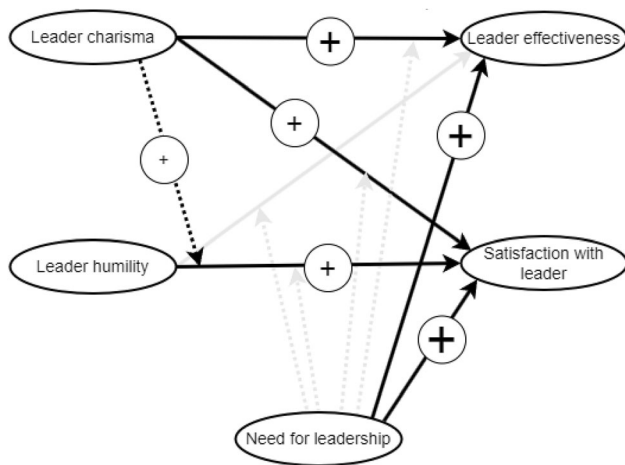
Fig. 3 A proposed model of leader humility, charisma, need for leadership, and leadership outcomes

with both leadership outcomes. In terms of leader-member exchange theory, in the context of high power distance, need for leadership is not a soft moderator as it was conceptualized primarily for Western cultures. In the Russian context, it seems that the need for leadership stimulates such high expectations of leaders that members' hopes for leadership come true regardless of leader charisma or humility. It is the followers and their need for leadership which make perceived leadership outcomes higher.

A proposed model of leader humility, charisma, need for leadership, and leadership outcomes which could be explored further in future research is shown in Fig. 3.

Figure 3 integrates the findings of this research and shows them in black color. Gray color signifies the assumptions not supported by the findings. Solid arrows illustrate direct relations, whereas dotted lines are for moderation effects. Based on the findings, it can be suggested to further investigate the interaction between leader charisma and humility in their relations to leadership outcome in other cultural contexts. According to previous studies (Nielsen & Marrone, 2018), one might expect that leader humility plays a stronger role in cultures oriented to collective well-being. Need for leadership is also worth of further investigation not only as a moderating factor—which was found relevant in Western countries (De Vries et al., 2002)—but also as a variable that has a direct effect on leadership outcomes.

Prior research has conceptualized humility in the context of leadership as a 'perspective that one is not the center of the universe' (Nielsen et al., 2010, p. 34), even though the leader is one within the center. Our study highlights that the perspective that one is not the center of the universe is true in the context of followership. The limitation of the current research is that it is focused only on a single cultural sample but opens the opportunity for both within-the-

culture and cross-cultural studies in the future. In addition, this study based on scenarios (vignettes) should be followed up by field studies in future research. Having said this, a valuable direction for future research will be to examine the cultural dimensions of the followership model of humility. In the GLOBE program, humility (modesty) is a sub-scale of leadership under humane leadership (House et al., 2004). GLOBE data suggest that leader humility is associated with perceived leader effectiveness in the Southern Asia cluster but not in Nordic cultures (House et al., 2004, Table 21.8, p. 684).

Gupta (2021) contrasts the two approaches as the Eastern doctrine of Immanence and the Western doctrine of Emanation. When following the Eastern doctrine, the leaders as a subject are humble because they know the potential for everything they wish to do for universal well-being lies within them and they need to take a path of action to realize that potential. On the other hand, when leading according to the Western doctrine, the leaders are charismatic, using power to coordinate the followers, transcending the limits of their potential for their well-being as a principal who believes that the potential for what they wish emanates without them from a superior power. Consequently, according to Gupta (2021) in the East, servicing as a humble servant of the collectivity is the deciding quality in perceived leader effectiveness, whereas, in the West, stereotypically, the dominating quality emphasizes the charismatic benefits of individuality. However, Western doctrine also shows that charisma can be potentially enhanced by more humble treatment of followers so that well-being emanates not only by power, but also by the collective spirit nurtured by a humble leader.

The findings that humility positively relates to some leadership outcomes make it practically important to encourage the development of leader humility. As humility does not contradict to, but even may correlate with charisma, training and development programs for charisma can also include topics devoted to humility. Besides, organizations have become more agile and less centralized, and people-oriented leadership styles have become more the norm, and thus, programs of corporate transformation might like to include the development of humility in leaders.

Conclusion

This study's main contribution is directly investigating the interaction between leader charisma and leader humility with leadership outcomes in the Russian cultural context. Overall, the findings of this study show that leader charisma affects perceived leader effectiveness, whereas

leadership, leader charisma, leader humility, and the interaction between charisma and humility affects satisfaction with the leader. Although need for leadership was not found to affect the relationship between leadership styles and outcomes, need for leadership was found to have a strong relation by itself with these leadership, suggesting that individuals with a high need for leadership tend to have a more favorable view of the effects of leadership, regardless of the actual leadership style used. This suggests that the need for leadership is strongly related to one's perception of leadership. The implications of Russian culture for leadership theory and practice in other cultures are discussed.

Appendix A: Factor Loadings for Model Variables

Factor	Indicator	Estimate	Std. Error
Perceived leader effectiveness	v_eff2	0.70	0.02
	v_eff4	0.84	0.02
	v_eff5	0.81	0.02
Need for leader	v_nfs2	0.70	0.03
	v_nfs4	0.76	0.03
Satisfaction with leader	v_sat1	0.84	0.02
	v_sat2	0.82	0.02
	v_sat3	0.86	0.02
	v_sat4	0.91	0.02
Leader humility	c_hum04	0.86	0.03
	c_hum06	0.88	0.04
Leader charisma	c_cha02	0.83	0.03
	c_cha06	0.85	0.03

Appendix B: Model Fit Chi-Square Test

Model	χ^2	df	p-value
Baseline model	11,534.92	78	
Factor model	96.694	55	< 0.001

Declarations

Conflict of interest A co-author, Zafar Husain is on Editorial Board of the Journal.

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Key Questions Reflecting Applicability in RealLife

1. Which role humility plays in leadership?
2. Does humility stimulate better leadership outcomes?
3. Does charisma support or contradict humility in its influence on leadership outcomes?
4. Does need for leadership moderate the relationship between charisma and humility with leadership outcomes?

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