Research Article

Fatal Attraction
The Effects of Mortality Salience on Evaluations of Charismatic, Task-Oriented, and Relationship-Oriented Leaders

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ABSTRACT
A study was conducted to assess the effects of mortality salience on evaluations of political candidates as a function of leadership style. On the basis of terror management theory and previous research, we hypothesized that people would show increased preference for a charismatic political candidate and decreased preference for a relationship-oriented political candidate in response to subtle reminders of death. Following a mortality-salience or control induction, 190 participants read campaign statements by charismatic, task-oriented, and relationship-oriented gubernatorial candidates; evaluated their preferences for each candidate; and voted for one of them. Results were in accord with predictions. The theoretical and practical implications of these findings are considered.

Helpless and fearful people are drawn to magical figures, mythic figures, epic men who intimidate and darkly loom.


In his classic analysis of authoritarian leadership in Escape From Freedom, Fromm (1941) proposed that people in a state of psychological distress are especially prone to the allure of charismatic political leaders. Similarly, Becker (1973) proposed that the uniquely human awareness of mortality leads people to identify with leaders who provide the possibility of being a valued part of something great. Accordingly, the present study was undertaken to investigate how mortality salience (MS) alters political preferences and voting behavior as a function of the leadership characteristics of the candidates. We hypothesized that following a reminder of mortality, participants would be more attracted to, and likely to vote for, a charismatic leader because the qualities of such individuals tend to bolster self-esteem. In contrast, we expected that a relationship-oriented leader who emphasized shared governance would be particularly unappealing under such conditions.

TERROR MANAGEMENT THEORY

Terror management theory (TMT; Greenberg, Pyszczynski, & Solomon, 1986; Solomon, Greenberg, & Pyszczynski, 1991) is based primarily on cultural anthropologist Ernest Becker’s (1971, 1973, 1975) efforts to forge a comprehensive account of the motivational underpinnings of human behavior. According to TMT, human beings share with all other forms of life a basic
biological predisposition toward survival, but are uniquely able, by virtue of their sophisticated
cognitive capacity for abstract symbolic thinking and self-reflection, to recognize the ultimate
futility of this basic biological imperative. Only human beings are explicitly aware of the
inevitability of death and the fact that it can occur at any time for reasons that can never be
anticipated or controlled. The awareness of death thus creates the potential for overwhelming
terror, which is managed by a dual-component anxiety buffer consisting of a cultural worldview
and self-esteem. Cultural worldviews are shared, humanly constructed beliefs about reality that
convey a sense that the world is meaningful, stable, and orderly—a place where one has some
hope of attaining either symbolic immortality (e.g., by amassing a great fortune, writing a great
book, or having children) or literal immortality (e.g., by the promise of an afterlife common in
most of the world’s religions) by meeting the cultural standards of value. Self-esteem is the
belief that one is a valuable participant in this meaningful universe and thereby qualified for the
cultural forms of death transcendence.

Empirical support for TMT has been obtained in more than 175 published experiments.
These studies have demonstrated the anxiety-reducing properties of self-esteem and the role of
mortality concerns in conformity to and defense of cultural worldviews. The most heavily
studied general hypothesis has been that, to the extent that psychological structures—cultural
worldviews and self-esteem—provide protection from the potential for death-related anxiety,
reminders of death should intensify efforts to uphold these psychological structures. Thoughts of
one’s own death have been shown to affect a wide range of human activities, including prosocial
behavior, aggression, nationalism, prejudice, striving for self-esteem, sexual attitudes, risk
taking, and close relationships (for reviews, see Greenberg, Solomon, & Pyszczynski, 1997;
Pyszczynski, Solomon, & Greenberg, 2003; Solomon, Greenberg, & Pyszczynski, 2004). In
addition, research has shown that MS does not influence conscious affect or physiological
arousal, and that its effects are greatest following a delay, when death-related thought is highly
accessible but outside of focal attention (Greenberg et al., 1997). Recent work has demonstrated
that it is the potential for anxiety signaled by heightened accessibility of death-related thought
that motivates worldview defense and self-esteem bolstering, which in turn reduce the
accessibility of death-related thought to baseline levels (Greenberg et al., 2003; Pyszczynski,
Greenberg, & Solomon, 1999).

CHARISMATIC LEADERS

Charismatic leaders have a “special magnetic quality that fills followers with awe and
adoration” (Lipman-Blumen, 1996, p. 30) and can become dangerous and unstoppable forces in
certain conditions. In the early part of the 20th century, millions of people supported Hitler’s
grand plan to purify the human race. The atrocities performed by his followers are often
attributed to the Führer’s ability to entrance the public; it was as though they were under his
spell. Why do people become so slavishly devoted to such leaders?

There is currently burgeoning interest in understanding the dynamics of charismatic
leadership. In a recent review, Ehrhart and Klein (2001), following Yukl (1998), made a
distinction between three leadership styles: charismatic (visionary), task oriented (instrumentally
effective), and relationship oriented (emphasizing the need for leaders and followers to work
together and accept mutual responsibility). Ehrhart and Klein then proposed that although there
is general agreement that leadership is a dynamic interaction between leaders and followers,
researchers currently know more about the characteristics of leaders than the dispositional or
situational factors that account for leadership preferences of followers; they concluded that “more research is needed to gain further insights into the active role of followers in the formation of charismatic relationships” (p. 153).

In this regard, Weber (1925/1968) proposed that followers’ attachment to, and enthusiasm for, charismatic leaders is amplified by psychological distress; similarly, Fromm (1941) avowed that loyalty to charismatic leaders results from a defensive need to feel one is a part of a larger whole, and surrendering one’s freedom to a larger-than-life leader can serve as a source of self-worth and meaning in life. Additionally, Avolio and Bass (1988) and Conger and Kanungo (1987) argued that because the radical visions of charismatic leaders are generally widely discrepant from existing conditions, such leaders foster dissatisfaction among followers, thereby generating some of the distress that is ultimately responsible for their own empowerment. However, radical visions are unlikely to be attractive to secure and satisfied people. As Lipman-Blumen (1996) observed, “charismatic leaders have a way of appearing in times of great distress. They usually espouse a decidedly radical vision that promises to resolve the crisis . . . a period of great threat and uncertainty” (p. 30). And Becker (1973), following Redl (1942), argued that when mainstream worldviews are not serving people’s needs for psychological security, concerns about mortality impel people to devote their psychological resources to following charismatic leaders who bolster their self-worth by making them feel like they are valued parts of something great.

Based on these ideas, the present study was conducted to determine if affection for charismatic leadership increases when terror management needs are activated by a reminder of mortality. After an MS or control induction, participants were exposed to short campaign statements by political candidates with either charismatic, task-oriented, or relationship-oriented leadership styles. Our primary prediction was that reminders of death would increase preference for the charismatic candidate. We also expected that MS would decrease preference for the relationship-oriented leader, because, as Becker argued, for terror management purposes people need a supremely confident leader who has a grand vision and can provide self-worth through identification with the leader and the leader’s vision. By emphasizing his or her own humanity and an egalitarian approach in which everyone participates, a relationship-oriented leader demystifies government; yet, for terror management purposes, mystification is precisely what people want (Becker, 1973, 1975). Because a task-oriented leader is focused on practical matters of getting the job done, we did not have a clear sense of whether attraction to such a leader would be affected by MS.

**METHOD**

**Participants and Design**

One hundred ninety students at Brooklyn College (122 females and 68 males ranging in age from 17 to 56, $M = 21.76$, $SD = 5.87$; 53% Caucasian, 13% African American, 12% Latino-Hispanic, 6% West Indian, 4% Asian, and 12% other) were randomly assigned to the MS condition or a control condition in which an upcoming exam was salient. Participants completed the experimental materials individually.

**Procedure**
The experimenter approached individuals in the college cafeteria and asked them to participate in a short study of the relationship between personality attributes and how people form impressions of political candidates. After reading and signing an informed-consent statement, each participant was given a questionnaire packet and asked to complete each question in the booklet in the order in which it appeared. The packet began with two filler questionnaires, the Neuroticism subscale of the Eysenck Personality Inventory (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1967) and an adult attachment scale (from Shaver, Hazan, & Bradshaw, 1988); these questionnaires were included to sustain the cover story and obscure the true purpose of the study. The manipulation of mortality salience came next. In the MS condition, participants responded to two open-ended questions (used in previous TMT studies, e.g., Greenberg et al., 1990; Rosenblatt, Greenberg, Solomon, Pyszczynski, & Lyon, 1989): “Please briefly describe the emotions that the thought of your own death arouses in you” and “Jot down, as specifically as you can, what you think will happen to you as you physically die and once you are physically dead.” Participants in the exam-salient condition responded to parallel questions regarding their next important exam. All participants then completed a self-report mood scale (the Positive and Negative Affect Scale--Expanded Form, or PANAS-X; Watson & Clark, 1992) that assessed possible affective consequences of the MS induction and read a short literary passage that served as a delay and distraction because previous research (Greenberg, Pyszczynski, Solomon, Simon, & Breus, 1994) has shown that MS effects emerge more clearly over time.

Next, participants read campaign statements purportedly written by three political candidates in a hypothetical upcoming gubernatorial election. The candidates varied in leadership style—charismatic, task oriented, or relationship oriented—and their campaign statements were modified from statements Ehrhart and Klein (2001) used in their study of leadership preferences of managers in business settings. Based on Ehrhart and Klein’s analysis of the characteristics of different leadership styles, the charismatic leader was portrayed as having high expectations of followers, having confidence in followers’ abilities, engaging in risky but calculated behavior, and emphasizing the importance of the overarching vision and identity of the group as a whole:

I will be the perfect governor for this great state because I am committed to this state and this nation's future. I work hard to communicate my vision for this state to my constituents. I set high standards for my cabinet members and myself and expect them to work as hard as they can to reach those standards. However all this hard work is done not just for the sake of productivity; I want everyone, state employees and private citizens alike, to reach their potential and do the best job that they can. I want all citizens to realize how good they can be and how much they have to offer to our great state and great nation. My goal is to do things differently than my predecessors have done and I'm willing to take some chances to show my voters how things can be improved. I rely on each and every citizen to be creative and help build our state and our nation. You are not just an ordinary citizen, you are part of a special state and a special nation and if we work together we can make a difference.

The task-oriented leader was characterized as setting high, yet achievable goals and effectively achieving those goals by efficiently allocating resources and delegating responsibilities:

I will be the perfect governor for this state because I can accomplish all the goals that I set out to do. I begin by working with my staff and cabinet to set work goals. I do not promise to change
the world; the goals set out before us are realistic yet challenging. I am very careful in laying out a detailed blueprint of what needs to be done so that there is no ambiguity. Once my cabinet and I have all the goals and objectives laid out I will implement statewide plans to provide the resources to get the job done. Finally everyone on my staff has their own specific role so that their task is performed with the utmost efficiency.

The relationship-oriented leader was portrayed as treating followers compassionately and respectfully, emphasizing communication by listening to followers, showing trust and confidence in followers, and acknowledging followers with recognition and appreciation:

I will be the perfect governor for this state because I worry about the citizens' well being. I treat everyone that I come into contact with, with consideration and respect. I am committed to being friendly and respectful no matter how high the political tension may rise. I emphasize communication among my staff and all citizens. I inform every one of all new programs or policies and am open for suggestions. I encourage all citizens to take an active role in improving their state. I know that each individual can make a difference. Everyone's contributions are recognized and appreciated.

Order of presentation of the candidates’ statements was counterbalanced. After reading each political candidate’s statements, participants responded to five questions evaluating the candidate: "How much do you believe this candidate can contribute to society?" "How much would you enjoy living in this state if this candidate were elected?" "How much do you admire this candidate?" "How much do you find this candidate's beliefs in agreement with your own?" and "To what extent would this candidate be an ideal governor?" Responses were made on 5-point Likert scales (1 = not at all, 3 = somewhat, 5 = a great deal). After evaluating the third candidate, participants were asked which of the three they would vote for in an election. Finally, participants responded to demographic questions (e.g., age, gender, and ethnicity) before being debriefed and thanked for their participation.

RESULTS

Evaluations of the Candidates

Cronbach’s alpha was used to assess the internal consistency of the five questions evaluating the merits of each leader and yielded alphas of .90, .91, and .93 for the charismatic, task-oriented, and relationship-oriented candidates, respectively. Consequently, participants’ responses to the five questions evaluating each candidate were summed and averaged to form a composite general evaluation of that candidate. These composite scores were then subjected to a 2 (mortality salient, exam salient) X 3 (charismatic leader, task-oriented leader, relationship-oriented leader) mixed analysis of variance (ANOVA), which yielded a significant main effect for the leadership style of the candidates, $F(2, 376) = 6.62, p = .001, R^2 = .034$, qualified by the predicted MS X Leadership Style interaction, $F(2, 376) = 5.78, p = .003, R^2 = .03$.

The main effect was due to participants reporting significantly more positive evaluations of the task-oriented candidate ($M = 3.38$) than of both the relationship-oriented candidate ($M = 3.16$), $T(1, 376) = 2.38, p < .05$, and the charismatic candidate ($M = 3.05$), $T(1, 376) = 3.59, p < .01$; the ratings of the relationship and task-oriented candidates did not differ. More important,
however, participants’ evaluations of the candidates varied as a function of MS; the means for this interaction are presented in Figure 1. We examined the interaction between MS and leadership style by conducting one-way ANOVAs comparing MS and control participants’ ratings of each candidate. The evaluations of the task-oriented leader did not differ between MS and exam-salient participants. However, as predicted, MS participants had significantly higher evaluations of the charismatic leader than exam-salient participants did, $F(1, 188) = 7.24, p = .008, R^2 = .037$. Additionally, as expected, evaluations of the relationship-oriented leader were lower in the MS group than in the exam-salient control group, $F(1, 188) = 3.83, p = .052, R^2 = .02$. Thus, the high evaluation of the task-oriented leader was unaffected by MS; however, MS increased participants’ enthusiasm for the charismatic leader, while simultaneously diminishing their regard for the relationship-oriented leader.

We also examined the MS X Leadership Style interaction by comparing preferences for the candidates within the MS and exam-salient conditions separately. One-way within-group ANOVAs produced significant effects for leadership style for both the exam-salient condition, $F(2, 188) = 8.052, p < .001, R^2 = .079$, and the MS condition, $F(2, 188) = 4.13, p = .02, R^2 = .042$. Pair-wise comparisons (least significant difference) in the exam-salient condition subsequently revealed that the charismatic leader was significantly less well liked than both the task-oriented leader ($p < .001$) and the relationship-oriented leader ($p < .001$), who were equally regarded. However, in the MS condition, the charismatic leader was as highly evaluated as the task-oriented leader, but the relationship-oriented leader was evaluated significantly lower than the task-oriented leader ($p = .004$); the ratings of the charismatic and relationship-oriented leaders did not differ. In sum, the charismatic leadership style was held in substantially lower regard than the task-oriented and relationship-oriented styles in the control condition, but, in accord with our predictions, evaluations of the charismatic leader increased in response to MS. Additionally, MS decreased participants’ evaluations of the relationship-oriented leader (relative to the task-oriented leader).

**Votes**

Besides evaluating each of the candidates, participants were asked to choose which one they would vote for in an election. Results of the “election” are presented in Table 1. A two-way chi-square test confirmed a significant interaction between experimental condition and leadership style, $\chi^2(4, N = 180) = 28.66, p < .01$. Pearson chi-square tests were then conducted to detect differences in participants’ voting as a function of MS. MS did not have a statistically significant effect on the number of votes for the task-oriented leader, $\chi^2(1, N = 180) = 0.28, p = .60$. However, as predicted, MS participants were significantly more likely than exam-salient participants to vote for the charismatic leader, $\chi^2(1, N = 180) = 20.83, p < .01$. Conversely, participants were less likely to vote for the relationship-oriented leader when primed with thoughts of death versus thoughts of an upcoming exam, $\chi^2(1, N = 180) = 7.56, p < .01$. Thus, participants’ votes for specific candidates were completely parallel (as one would hope they would be) with their evaluations of the candidates reported in the previous section.

**DISCUSSION**

This study was conducted to determine if preferences for political candidates of varying leadership styles would be affected by subtle reminders of death. Considering both TMT and
analyses of the psychological allure of charismatic leaders, we predicted and found that an MS induction increased favorable evaluations of, and votes for, a charismatic political candidate; additionally, the MS induction produced more negative evaluations of, and fewer votes for, a political candidate with a more egalitarian relationship-oriented leadership style. The results of the mock election were especially striking: Although the task-focused candidate fared well in both conditions (approximately 50% of the votes), the charismatic candidate received a paltry 4% of the votes in the control condition but benefited from an MS-induced boost to receive almost 33% of the votes in the MS condition; moreover, these votes for the charismatic leader in the MS condition came at the expense of the relationship-focused candidate, whose very solid share of the votes in the control condition (45%) diminished substantially in response to MS (22%).

At the theoretical level, this study adds to the large body of empirical evidence attesting to the pervasive influence of reminders of death on a wide range of human activities. These findings fit particularly well with prior studies showing how MS leads people toward individuals, groups, and actions that can help enhance their self-esteem (for a review of this work, see Solomon et al., 2004). For example, Arndt, Greenberg, Schimel, Pyszczynski, and Solomon (2002) and Dechesne, Greenberg, Arndt, and Schimel (2000) found that MS increased optimism about and identification with winning home sports teams and fellow in-group members, while reducing identification with losing home sports teams and in-groups with undesirable attributes. Thus, in response to MS, people want to identify with special, great things, and charismatic leaders typically offer the promise of just that.

From a practical perspective, the implications of these findings are considerable. We have argued elsewhere (Pyszczynski et al., 2003) that the events of September 11, 2001, have left a pervasive sense of MS throughout America (also see Cohen-Silver, Holman, McIntosh, Poulin, & Gil-Rivas, 2002), and the results of this study suggest this may have consequential effects on electoral outcomes. The fact that intimations of mortality enhanced preferences for a charismatic leader and diminished regard for a relationship-oriented leader who encouraged constituents to assume responsibility for political outcomes is certainly antithetical to the ideal that voting behavior should be the result of rational choice based on an informed understanding of the relevant issues. National elections are no guarantee against totalitarian outcomes. Hitler and Mussolini were duly elected; perhaps terror management concerns have contributed to some of the historical examples of bad choices by the electorate (see especially Becker, 1973, 1975).

The best antidote to this problem may be to take great pains to encourage people to vote with their “heads” rather than their “hearts”–as past research (Simon et al., 1997) has demonstrated that MS effects are attenuated by instructions to think rationally. Asking participants to think rationally about which candidate to vote for should eliminate the preference for charismatic leaders induced by MS. Of course, in scary times, when MS is often high, or when national self-worth is particularly shaky, rationally driven decisions may be unlikely. But perhaps raising awareness of how concerns about death affect human behavior can assist participants, and actual voters, to make choices based on the political issues and qualifications of the candidates rather than defensive needs to preserve psychological equanimity in the face of death.
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Although these three leadership styles are not necessarily mutually exclusive (Bass & Avolio, 1993), they are clearly distinguishable by research participants (Howell & Frost, 1989).

This analysis was originally conducted with gender and order as between-groups factors. There were no main effects or interactions involving gender. There was, however, a main effect for the order of presentation of the candidates, $F(2, 178) = 4.98, p = .008$; pair-wise comparisons subsequently revealed that participants who were exposed to the charismatic, task-oriented, and relationship-oriented candidates in that order had more positive evaluations of all three candidates ($M = 3.39$) than participants exposed to the candidates in the other two sequences: task oriented, relationship oriented, charismatic ($M = 3.13, p = .05$) and relationship oriented, charismatic, task oriented ($M = 3.08, p = .004$). The latter two orderings of candidates did not differ from each other ($p = .90$). There were no interactions between order and any other factors in the experiment. Consequently, gender and order are not reported in subsequent analyses in order to simplify the presentation of the results.

To assess whether MS affected mood, we performed ANOVAs on the subscales of the PANAS-X (Watson & Clark, 1992), including Positive Affect and Negative Affect. The results were consistent with previous TMT research demonstrating that MS does not engender affect in that there were no significant differences found for any of these analyses. And to ensure that the evaluations of the candidates reported here were not mediated by affect, we conducted a 2 (mortality salient, exam salient) X 3 (leadership style: charismatic, task oriented, relationship oriented) analysis of covariance with PANAS-X subscale scores (including Positive Affect and Negative Affect scores) as covariates; the critical MS X Leadership Style interaction remained significant, $F(2, 173) = 6.93, p = .001$. Thus, we are quite confident that, as in past research, the findings are not the result of affective differences between the MS and exam-salient conditions.

**Fig. 1.** Mean evaluations of the three candidates by condition. Error bars represent ±1 SE.

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