Transformational Leadership And
Mentoring: Theoretical Links And Practical Implications

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Abstract

Organizations are becoming increasingly aware of the advantages of generating a stream of transformational leaders who will be able to successfully move their companies into the future. Yet, theory providing guidance for developing such leaders is at a premium. In particular, prior research has not explored in detail the complexity of the relationship between mentoring and the development of transformational leaders. To address this important topic, we develop logical links between traditional mentoring activities and the behaviors associated with the "Four I's" of transformational leadership (individualized consideration, idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation). Based upon our review and synthesis of the literature, we conclude that existing models of mentoring may be insufficient for developing transformational leaders. Building on these two literatures, we propose a process of "transformational mentoring" and describe eleven propositions depicting the relationship between transformational mentoring activities and protégé outcomes associated with transformational leadership. We also identify and discuss mentor- and protégé-based barriers that may mediate that relationship. We conclude with directions for future research that capitalize on the overlap between mentoring and the activities identified with transformational leadership.
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Introduction

In today’s highly competitive business environment, long term organizational success depends on the development of a stream of transformational leaders (Bass, 1985, 1998) who can guide organizational adaptation to continually changing environments (Cohen, St. Clair, & Tichy, 1996; Fulmer, 1997; Kuhnert, 1994). Leaders are needed to motivate and inspire employees who have seen traditional expectations about job security and advancement shattered (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Consequently, developing transformational leaders with the ability to create, communicate, and gather follower support for a compelling vision is an ongoing concern in organizations (Maccoby, 2000). Here, the key to leader performance is the acquisition, development, and application of organizational problem-solving skills (Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs, & Fleishman, 2000a). Different types of leaders evolve in different ways and at different times to various kinds of experiences (Mumford, Zaccaro, Johnson, Diana, Gilbert, & Threlfall, 2000b). Yet, just how transformational leadership develops has received minimal empirical attention and remains little understood (Zacharatos, Barling, & Kelloway, 2000). Thus, the question becomes, how is transformational leadership cultivated?

In this respect, mentoring has long been seen as valuable for leadership development (e.g., Bass, 1985; Kotter, 1988; Kram, 1985; Yukl, 1998) and for individual career success (Collins & Scott, 1978; Roche, 1979; Wilbur, 1987). However, recommendations have tended to be vague and the literature supporting the link between mentoring and leadership in general

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1 Bass (1985) views transformational leadership as distinct from charismatic leadership such that the former is a wider concept within which charisma or idealized influence is a key descriptive attribute. Transformational leaders empower followers and promote commitment to ideals. In contrast, charismatic leaders can foster follower dependency and personal loyalty (Yukl, 1998). The focus in this paper is on mentoring transformational leaders.
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(Yukl, 1998), and transformational leadership in particular, is limited. For example, Conger (1999) observed that there has been little discussion regarding the effectiveness of transformational leaders in developing successors. Beyer (1999) also discussed the problems associated with succeeding highly charismatic leaders. If, as has been suggested, transformational leaders are necessary for sustained organizational success, then establishing a more explicit link between mentoring and the development of transformational leaders is both a theoretically valuable and practically worthwhile pursuit (Wofford, Goodwin, & Whittington, 1998). Earlier research has examined the mentoring activities of transformational leaders (e.g., Godshalk & Sosik, 2000; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000), but has not addressed mentoring the actual development of transformational leaders. Therefore, given that transformational leadership can be learned (Bass, 1998), how mentoring nurtures transformational leadership becomes a meaningful research focus.

Accordingly, our goal is to integrate the leadership and mentoring literatures and provide a more detailed understanding of how mentoring processes can develop future transformational leaders. We begin with a review of earlier mentoring and transformational leadership research. Then, we develop logical ties between traditional mentoring activities and the “Four I’s” (individualized consideration, idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation) comprising one model of transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1994).2 Next, we introduce a reformulated approach to mentoring specifically intended to develop transformational leaders, a process we call “transformational mentoring.” Here, we define

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2 Although other models of transformational leadership have been formulated (e.g., Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Burns, 1978; Kouzes & Posner, 1987; Tichy & Devanna, 1986), this paper focuses only on the Bass and Avolio (1994) model for the sake of brevity. Future theoretical work could profitably expand the linkages presented here to include alternative models of transformational leadership.
transformational mentoring as leader mentoring behaviors that foster the development of transformational leaders. We also propose eleven testable propositions and note some barriers that may obstruct this process. We conclude with ideas for future research.

**Existing Models of Mentoring And Transformational Leadership**

Although intuition suggests that mentoring and leadership are close cousins, existing research has done little to substantiate their relationship. As discussed below, the mentoring literature devotes itself to understanding how employees are developed, but does not specifically emphasize the development of transformational leadership. Similarly, the leadership literature has focused on what transformational leaders do to lead their organizations and how these leaders mentor others (e.g., Godshalk & Sosik, 2000; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). However, prior work has paid less attention to the development of transformational leaders (Avolio & Bass, 1995).

**Mentoring**

The importance of mentoring processes is reflected in the increasing levels of empirical attention and theoretical development the area has received in recent years (e.g., Aryee, Lo, & Kang, 1999; Feldman, Folks, & Turnley, 1999; Ragins, 1997; Ragins & Scandura, 1997; Scandura, 1998; Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994). Mentors are typically defined as experienced individuals with advanced knowledge who are committed to providing assistance and progress to their protégé's career (Hunt & Michael, 1983; Kram, 1985; Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994). The mentoring relationship is a mutual mentor-protégé investment characterized by the sharing of values, knowledge, and experience. In addition, mentoring ranges from the informal based on mentor-protégé mutual identification and the fulfillment of career needs to the formal where the mentor is assigned to work with the protégé (Ragins & Cotton, 1999).
The extant literature on the benefits protégés receive from being mentored focuses on two primary aspects of the mentoring process. [Although mentor relationships can benefit the mentor (e.g., Ragins & Scandura, 1999), this paper focuses only on the protégé]. First, mentors provide guidance and resources related to career development. Second, mentors contribute psychosocial support to help the protégé cope with the stresses of organizational life. While these activities are not always completely distinct, they present a useful way of thinking about the assistance that the mentor provides for the protégé.

**Career Development**

A critical aspect of the mentoring relationship is guiding protégé career advancement. Indeed, research has demonstrated that career mentoring is positively related to promotion rates and total compensation (Whitely, Dougherty, & Dreher, 1991). In focusing on the career enhancing aspects of mentoring, Kram (1985) identified five activities that promote career development. First, *sponsorship* activities by the mentor are direct interventions intended to provide the protégé with opportunities to advance within the organization. In contrast to directly advocating for a protégé, mentors frequently are in a position to arrange opportunities for *challenging assignments* as well as *exposure and visibility*. Orchestrating challenging assignments and encouraging calculated risks supply the protégé with critical learning experiences. High profile assignments facilitate the development of relationships with other senior managers within the organization. In many, but not all cases, providing challenging assignments and providing exposure and visibility may overlap. Fourth, on a day-to-day basis, *coaching* is a vital part of every mentor’s activities. By offering specific suggestions, advice, and feedback, the mentor assists the protégé in building both technical and political skills needed to succeed in the corporation. Finally, mentors may engage in *protecting* the protégé when, for
example, a project is unsuccessful or behind schedule. The protection function is a critical one for maintaining trust between the mentor and the protégé. Mentors who protect their protégés are also likely to serve as sources for other types of more personal support, as described below.

**Psychosocial Support**

In addition to directly supporting career advancement, mentors are also valuable sources of psychosocial support – helping protégés mature as competent, effective, members of the organization. Psychosocial support can be provided through role modeling, giving acceptance and confirmation, offering counseling, and contributing friendship (Kram, 1985). Although a senior person may consciously attempt to serve as a role model, it is just as likely that this process is unconscious. Likewise, the protégé may not even realize how closely he or she is identifying with the mentor and how much his or her behavior is influenced by the model portrayed by the mentor (Kram, 1985). In contrast to role modeling, the other psychosocial support functions are much more conscious. Providing acceptance and confirmation, supplying counseling, and offering friendship all imply conscious intent on the part of the mentor.

The activities identified as psychosocial support cultivate protégé self-perceptions of competence in their professional roles. They also help alleviate some of the pressure that results from an intense focus on career development activities. Effective psychosocial support depends upon the quality of the interpersonal relationship between the mentor and the protégé. As compared to career development activities, mentors need not be in powerful positions or have access to many resources to provide psychosocial support. Conventional wisdom suggests, however, that having a prominent organizational leader as a mentor can be very beneficial.

Finally, mentoring is not an all-or-nothing phenomenon. The degree to which career development and psychosocial support are provided may vary from one relationship to another.
and over time in a given relationship. Furthermore, mentoring may not be publicly recognized or observable and may not even be recognized by the participants until brought to their attention (Ragins, 1997).

In the next section, we discuss transformational leadership. We then make links between the Bass and Avolio (1994) model of transformational leadership and the activities identified by Kram (1985) as central to the mentoring process to develop our concept of transformational mentoring.

Transformational Leadership

Grounded in moral foundations (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999), transformational leadership augments the idea of an exchange or transactional relationship (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; House & Podsakoff, 1994; Tichy & Devanna, 1986). As defined by Burns (1978: 4), transformational leadership results in "mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents." Transformational leaders align follower self-interest in development with the larger interest of the group, organization, or society. Similarly, transformational leaders engage in self-sacrificial behaviors for transcendental shifts in followers needs (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Choi & Mai-Dalton, 1999). These leaders create a clear and compelling vision, thereby channeling the collective energies of followers toward a common goal (Bass, 1985, 1998).

Transformational leadership appears in varying degree at all organizational levels and has been observed in diverse organizational settings (Bass, 1985, 1990). Moreover, transformational leadership can be learned (Bass, 1998). Still, the job of the transformational leader is inherently risky, because any transformation threatens the status quo of the organization. Our emphasis on transformational leadership stems from our belief that the changing nature of work demands
leaders who are willing to take risks and are able to obtain the support of their followers without explicit extrinsic rewards (House, 1995).

Although not always advantageous (e.g., Bass, 1998), the effectiveness of transformational leaders has been linked to their ability to clearly articulate goals for their followers and convey images of how those goals can be reached. Transformational leaders demonstrate confidence in the followers’ ability to achieve goals and motivate followers to work so the goals become reality (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987). As described next, transformational leaders accomplish impressive results by means of the “Four I’s” including individual consideration, idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and intellectual stimulation (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

**Linking Mentoring and Transformational Leadership**

Leadership research supports the idea that many leaders had mentors who significantly influenced their development (e.g., Bennis & Nanus, 1985, Rosenbach, 1989). Similarly, the nature of transformational leadership is consistent with the behaviors needed for effective mentoring (Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994). However, there is little detailed description of exactly how the process of developing transformational leadership works (Zacharatos et al., 2000). In particular, not much is known about how effective transformational leaders are in developing succeeding transformational leaders (Conger, 1999). Moreover, there is little evidence to suggest that traditional forms of mentoring (career development and psychosocial support) are sufficient, as currently specified, for developing transformational leaders. To help bridge this gap, we develop logical connections between the aforementioned “Four I’s” of transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1994) with traditional mentoring activities. These links are summarized in Figure 1 and discussed next.
Individualized Consideration. Individualized consideration refers to the transformational leader’s emphasis on and attention to individual follower’s needs for achievement, growth, and career development. The process includes providing new learning opportunities in a supportive climate that takes into account individual differences. The leader monitors the work of the followers, not in a controlling way, but to furnish useful feedback and guidance. Two-way communication is a hallmark of individualized consideration. For example, Bass (1998) observed that transformational leaders typically enjoy a history of positive interpersonal relationships with supervisors and subordinates. Similarly, a major motivating force for transformational leaders is to help others (Bass, 1998). Thus, it is not surprising that the transformational leadership concept of individualized consideration can be directly linked to mentoring activities (e.g., Godshalk & Sosik, 2000; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). In fact, Bass (1998) identified mentoring as a key aspect of individualized consideration. Deluga (1992) likewise noted that individual consideration was descriptive of the transformational leader’s mentoring orientation. Many of the activities classified as individualized consideration in the transformational leadership literature are consistent with psychosocial support behaviors identified in the mentoring literature. In addition, individual consideration may overlap with such career development behaviors as the aforementioned coaching (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). Thus, in Figure 1 we show direct links between individualized consideration and both career development and psychosocial support.

Idealized Influence. Idealized influence or personal charisma emerges when transformational leaders behave in desirable ways that propel them to be role models for their followers (Bass, 1998; Bass & Avolio, 1994). In a cascading process, followers at multiple organizational echelons greatly admire and closely identify with the leader (Waldman &
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Yammarino, 1999), as well as reciprocate the leader’s self-sacrifices (Choi & Mai-Dalton, 1999). Moreover, the leader’s actions reflect concern for followers, high ethical standards, and willingness to share risks. The transformational leader’s behavior is consistent, giving followers a clear sense of what constitutes appropriate behavior. Consequently, the concept of “idealized influence” in the transformational leadership literature is analogous to the concept of role modeling in the mentoring literature (Figure 1; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). To be effective as a role model, leaders must be respected and trusted. For example, leaders giving precedence to the needs of others, rather than completely yielding to their own personal needs, generate follower trust, esteem, and confidence. Protégés observing these transformational leadership dynamics then are likely to adopt similar behaviors (Godshalk & Sosik, 2000).

**Inspirational Motivation.** The ability to motivate and inspire followers is critical to the success of the transformational leader. Here, the leader must focus follower attention on the future, rather than on the past. As part of this process, the leader’s articulation of a shared vision must generate enthusiasm and optimism to convince followers that they can meet the challenge that has been set forth for them. This type of inspirational motivation enhances the meaningfulness of the work for followers. Likewise, as seen in the Figure 1 links, models of mentoring specifically emphasize the importance of providing challenging assignments. Although the mentoring literature discusses these primarily as a developmental aid, it is probable that challenging assignments as inspired by transformational leadership also make the work more meaningful for the protégé (e.g., Godshalk & Sosik, 2000; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000).

**Intellectual Stimulation.** Transformation requires innovation. By providing intellectual stimulation, transformational leaders help followers hone their innovative and creative skills. Intellectual stimulation includes activities such as questioning assumptions and reframing
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problems. Followers are encouraged to develop new ideas and are not publicly criticized for their mistakes or for disagreeing with the leader’s ideas. The transformational leader’s emphasis on intellectual stimulation is consistent with the career development activities of coaching, providing challenging assignments, and encouraging critical thinking (e.g., Godshalk & Sosik, 2000; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). In this regard, the relevance of prior developmental assignments to current responsibilities was predictive of both leadership performance (Mumford et al., 2000a, 2000b) and transformational leadership (Bass, 1998). Furthermore, avoiding public criticism of an individual’s mistakes is consistent with the mentoring activity of protecting the protégé. Therefore, the intellectual stimulation component of transformational leadership overlaps with at least three aspects of traditional mentoring models. These relationships can be seen in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Theoretical links between transformational leadership and mentoring activities
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As noted, transformational leadership can be taught and learned (Bass, 1998). The logical connections identified above and depicted in Figure 1 indicate that, through career development and psychosocial support, transformational leaders may be effective mentors for developing transformational leadership in protégés. Yet, these behaviors do not guarantee this outcome. Two possible problems require consideration. First, it is not certain that traditional mentoring activities, at least as they are currently conceived, are sufficient for the development of transformational leaders. Reformulated mentoring activities may be needed to nurture transformational leadership. Second, there may be some unique barriers to mentoring emanating from the individual characteristics of transformational leaders and their protégés. We consider both of these issues in our discussion of the transformational mentoring process.

Transformational Mentoring

We define transformational mentoring as leader mentoring behaviors that promote the development of transformational leaders. Existing theories of mentoring provide a starting point, yet, can be expanded to more adequately address the requirements for developing transformational leaders. For example, traditional models of mentoring emphasize career success in terms of moving up through the organizational ranks. However, we argue that mentoring targeting the development of transformational leaders involves establishing in the protégé the willingness to take risks and make self-sacrifices. These activities may negatively impact protégé career development, especially in the short run. Nevertheless, rather than focusing on personal progression up the organizational ladder, current transformational leaders must be able to identify and convincingly communicate to protégés key overarching values and visions for the
organization. We believe protégés must learn to look beyond self-interests to the greater community of the organization, if they are to become truly transformational leaders.

Although Kram (1985, p. 35) suggests that one mentor function, “acceptance-and-confirmation...enables a junior person to experiment with new behaviors,” it is not evident that traditional notions of acceptance-and-confirmation extend to cover situations where the protégé is proposing radical change for the organization. In fact, it seems much more likely that most traditional mentors would strongly counsel against “rocking the organizational boat.” This tension between following one’s own values and conforming to the norms of the organization must constantly be faced by transformational leaders. Mentors seeking to develop this talent must encourage, rather than discourage boat-rocking behavior. Boat-rocking activity, however, runs contrary to most conventional mentor wisdom advising how to succeed in many organizations. Thus, a reformulated approach to mentoring is necessary that encourages risk taking over supporting the status quo.³ Our ideas about transformational mentoring build directly on existing models of mentoring, but redirect mentors’ behavior toward the development of transformational leaders.

As shown in Figure 2, we see the transformational mentoring process as including the traditional categories of mentoring activities identified by Kram (1985). We believe, however, that some of the specific actions of transformational mentors will differ somewhat, as described below. Because of these activities, we identify several outcomes for the protégé that are consistent with the development of transformational leadership attributes. We also suggest that the relationship between transformational mentoring activities and protégé outcomes will be
mediated by both mentor-based and protégé-based barriers. Eleven testable propositions are articulated.

**Figure 2. Conceptual model illustrating Transformational Mentoring process and propositions (P1-P11)**

*see text for explanation of reformulated activities in the Transformational Mentoring process*

**Reformulated Career Development Behaviors**

Two of the five career development behaviors identified by Kram (1985) in the mentoring literature are directly consistent with our transformational mentoring model.

Providing sponsorship and visibility are just as important for developing transformational leaders

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3 Of course, context must be taken into account. In organizations that have a culture of innovation and risk-taking, failure to rock the boat may be more detrimental to success than taking risks.
as they are for more traditional career success. Budding transformational leaders need to gain access and visibility before they can begin to practice their skills of transformation. The remaining three career development behaviors (i.e., coaching, providing challenging assignments, and protecting the protégé), however, require some expansion.

**Coaching and Challenging Assignments.** Heifetz (1994) argues persuasively that effective leaders, rather than telling people what to do, help them discover their own way through problems without easily apparent solutions (“adaptive challenges”). Similarly, becoming a transformational leader requires a perspective that goes beyond understanding how to master existing tasks facing the organization. Consequently, coaching and challenging assignments must be refocused, going beyond the development of specific skills and techniques (e.g., Mumford et al., 2000a, 2000b). Here, a greater emphasis on more long range and holistic ways of thinking about different situations is needed. Accordingly,

**Proposition 1 (P1).** Transformational mentoring will include activities designed to promote long-term, holistic thinking in protégés.

**Protecting.** As noted earlier, transformational leadership is about taking risks. Thus, traditional ideas about encouraging calculated risks (Kram, 1985) and protecting subordinates from their mistakes produces a new and magnified meaning. Some form of protection is still necessary, but rather than serving as a “blame-taker,” the mentor must concentrate on reconstructing the situation from one of blame to one of praise. The mentor must convince other top-level managers that the actions of the protégé are praise-worthy rather than blame-worthy. This task seems especially well suited for existing transformational leaders because of their talent for conveying compelling visions and garnering support. Accordingly,
**Proposition 2 (P2).** Transformational mentoring will enhance protégés’ reputations by emphasizing the praise-worthy aspects of the protégés’ behaviors, particularly risky actions.

In this reformulated approach, career development for the protégé no longer means self-protection in the sense of ensuring a steady climb up the organizational ladder. Rather, for the transformational leader-in-training, career development means at a minimum shaking the ladder and, in all likelihood, trying to change ladders in mid-ascent. Given the increased uncertainty associated with this new paradigm of career development for the future transformational leader, the importance of having a mentor who can provide psychosocial support is amplified.

**Reformulated Psychosocial Support Behaviors**

The psychosocial support behavior of counseling identified by Kram (1985) is directly applicable to the transformational mentoring model. However, as discussed below, the role modeling, accepting and confirming, and friendship (Kram, 1985) psychosocial support behaviors are expected to differ in transformational mentoring, especially if the mentor is a transformational leader.

**Role Modeling.** The concept of role modeling almost demands that the mentor be a transformational leader for transformational mentoring to occur. This suggests some important differences in the types of behaviors that the mentor will display for the protégé to observe and emulate. As role models, transformational leaders would tend to exhibit behaviors that are likely to be detrimental to traditional measures of career success in many (but certainly not all) instances. These kinds of leaders, however, should be just the type to encourage risk-taking and self-sacrifices in their protégés (Godshalk & Sosik, 2000; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). Accordingly,
Proposition 3 (P3). Transformational mentoring will encourage risk-taking and self-sacrifices by protégés.

Accepting and Confirming. In the traditional mentoring model, acceptance and confirmation often were tacitly associated with maintaining the status quo, or at most making small incremental improvements. Typically, radical change is viewed as threatening because it implicitly challenges the wisdom and skill of the existing generation of organizational leaders. In contrast, transformational mentors must demonstrate their acceptance of protégés’ efforts to change organizational practices, rather than efforts to perpetuate existing practices. Therefore, the basic activity of accepting and confirming has not changed, but the types of behaviors that are encouraged by the mentor have changed in this revised approach to transformational mentoring. Accordingly,

Proposition 4 (P4). Transformational mentoring will encourage protégé efforts to alter existing organizational practices.

Friendship. Although the basic elements of social interaction and mutual liking should be similar in any type of mentoring relationship, it could be more difficult to generate such a relationship if the mentor is already a transformational leader. These leaders tend to be viewed as if on a pedestal, making it more difficult to develop close personal relationships with them (Yagil, 1998). Charisma may require social distance between the leader and follower as day-to-day intimacy may destroy the charismatic aura (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Yet, recent research suggests that social distance between a leader and follower is not essential for the maintenance of the charismatic relationship (e.g., Bass, 1990; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Shamir, 1995; Shamir & Howell, 1999). In fact, whereas the leader is critical for inspiring follower excitement concerning an appealing goal, the attractiveness of the goal can be as
influential as the leader (Conger, 1999). Nevertheless, a particularly close relationship as seen in mentoring involves exposure to a wider range of behaviors than those revealed in less intimate relationships. Mentor flaws may become apparent and subsequently reduce the idealized influence that characterizes a transformational leader. Accordingly,

**Proposition 5 (P5).** Transformational mentoring will reduce the level of idealized influence attributed by the protégé to the leader.

The foregoing propositions notwithstanding, we do not believe that attempts at transformational mentoring automatically results in the creation of a new transformational leader. In the next section, we discuss specific barriers that may impede the transformational mentoring process.

**Barriers To Successful Transformational Mentoring**

As with any type of mentoring process, there are likely to be many barriers obstructing successful transformational mentoring. The major obstacles to mentoring described by Scandura (1998; e.g., negative relations, sabotage, submissiveness, and harassment, etc.) and Kram (1985; e.g., reward systems focused on the bottom line, organizational culture, individual assumptions and attitudes, etc.) are still expected to be problematic in the case of transformational mentoring. Exactly how these obstacles play out, however, may differ somewhat. Here, the fundamental obstacles remain and may activate additional barriers due to the nature of transformational mentoring. We now focus on mentor and protégé barriers, which have not previously been addressed in the literature.

**Mentor-based Barriers**

Deluga (1992, p. 245) suggests that a transformational leader “serves as a mentor and provides personal attention when necessary.” Similarly, Yukl (1998) argues that functioning as a
role model is one way to serve as a transformational leader. These arguments support the idea that transformational leaders may be good mentors (and may, by some definitions, be required to be good mentors). Although the theoretical relationship between the activities engaged in by transformational leaders and mentors helps clarify the relationship between these two constructs, it does not necessarily imply that all transformational leaders will be excellent mentors. In fact, not all experienced leaders become effective mentors (Ragins & Cotton, 1993) and there may be several barriers, which are particularly characteristic of transformational leaders. These include narcissism, stereotypes, and tacit knowledge.

**Narcissism.** The transformational mentoring approach proposed here has one very serious limitation. It presupposes that current leaders will be willing to jeopardize their own authority and prominent status to develop other transformational leaders. This is a serious obstacle for many leaders. Although some leaders have been willing to groom their successors, others have shown a marked insecurity and disinclination to provide the necessary mentoring to prepare future leaders who might one day succeed them (e.g., Maccoby, 2000). The problem stems in part, we are confident, from the reluctance of leaders to share the power and limelight that help provide self-identity. As Conger (1999) has argued, charismatic leaders have a difficult time preparing successors. These sometimes narcissistic leaders can be reluctant to share center stage. Cultivating a protégé as a replacement may be far too threatening. Mentors can become jealous of their protégés as they begin to advance and, in some cases, out-distance the mentor (Hunt & Michael, 1983; Phillips-Jones, 1993) as well as “outshine the master” (Greene & Elffers, 1998). Thus, by failing to develop other transformational leaders to succeed them, current leaders can assure their star status. Unfortunately, these narcissism dynamics can come at the expense of the organization’s future advancement. Accordingly,
Proposition 6 (P6). Leader narcissism may constrain the mentoring of transformational leadership in protégés.

Stereotypes. Another barrier to developing transformational leaders may be current leaders’ individual attitudes, which may greatly impact who receives transformational mentoring. For example, compounding the barriers that women already face when seeking traditional forms of mentoring (Noe, 1988; Ragins & Cotton, 1991, 1993, 1999), some leaders may hold stereotypes that do not include women in transformational leadership positions. These attitudes exist despite growing evidence favoring women as transformational leaders (Bass, 1998). Therefore, leaders with these types of attitudes may be even less likely to provide transformational mentoring to highly capable women. Accordingly,

Proposition 7 (P7). Leaders’ stereotypical attitudes such as gender bias may constrain the mentoring of transformational leadership in protégés.

Tacit Knowledge. Tacit knowledge is often difficult to communicate. Transformational leaders may discover that they cannot explain what they do so well. Tichy and Cohen (1997) suggest that leaders must first construct a clear understanding of their own ideas about what it takes to succeed in business before they can successfully develop others. Research suggests that leaders can be taught to articulate their visions, thereby increasing follower attributions of charisma and effectiveness (e.g., Awamleh & Gardner, 1999). Few leaders, however, may have the necessary time and attention to make explicit what is tacit in their own behavior. Accordingly,

Proposition 8 (P8). The tacit nature of transformational leadership may constrain the mentoring of transformational leadership in protégés.
Protégé-based Barriers

As described above, transformational mentoring may be inhibited by several mentor-based barriers. At the same time, the target of these efforts, the protégés, are also likely to be hindered by their own personal barriers to becoming transformational leaders. These protégé-based barriers include lack of commitment, vision, and charisma.

Lack of Commitment. Many employees may not want to make the self-sacrifices required for transformational leadership (e.g., Choi & Mai-Dalton, 1999). The commitment required to truly transform an organization is enormous. Depending on the direction of the transformation, the costs to family and other outside interests may be very high. In other cases, the risky nature of the transformation also may impose high career costs. Not all attempts at transformation succeed; for many individuals, the risks may outweigh the potential rewards. Accordingly,

Proposition 9 (P9). The potential for unacceptably high personal and professional costs may constrain protégés’ receptivity to transformational mentoring.

Lack of Vision. Transformation requires a vision. The transformational leader sees a future that others do not and communicates that vision with such passion that it becomes a reality. The ability to see a future completely different from the past and present is valued precisely because it is rare. However, we believe the transformational mentoring process can help people improve their skill for envisioning a new future. For instance, envisioning processes can be developed by means of learning programs in creative thinking (Bass, 1998). Such programs teach participants how to unlearn factors inhibiting creativity while at the same time learn how to visualize profound change. As noted earlier, research also suggests that leaders can be taught to articulate their visions, thereby increasing follower attributions of charisma and
effectiveness (e.g., Awamleh & Gardner, 1999). Nevertheless, we recognize that envisioning and creative talents are likely to vary widely across individuals. Accordingly, 

**Proposition 10 (P10).** Differences in protégés’ visioning abilities may reduce the likelihood of successful transformational mentoring.

**Lack of Charisma.** Theoretical debates about the exact nature, identification, and development of personal charisma or idealized influence are unresolved. It does appear that, like many attributes, individual levels of charisma fall on a continuum. Consequently, it seems likely that those selected for transformational mentoring will possess some visible degree of charisma. Then, as with vision, transformational mentoring may help protégés reach their maximum charisma potential. In this regard, recent results involving the teaching of charismatic skills and behaviors have yielded encouraging results (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996; Bass & Avolio, 1990, 1994). However, we believe the protégé’s level of charisma will impact the effectiveness of transformational mentoring. Accordingly, 

**Proposition 11 (P11).** Differences in protégés’ charisma may reduce the likelihood of successful transformational mentoring.

**Directions For Future Research**

Effective transformational leaders lucidly articulate goals for their followers, convey images of how those goals can be reached, demonstrate confidence in their ability to achieve those goals, and motivate followers to work to make those goals a reality (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987). These skills seem self-evident when reviewing the histories of successful transformational leaders. The acquisition of these skills, however, has been subject to less scrutiny because it is difficult to identify, a priori, who will become a transformational leader. Simply put, we do not know whom we should be watching. Consequently, future research is
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needed to systematically track and evaluate the development of transformational leaders. Specifically, longitudinal qualitative investigations examining formalized as well as informal mentor-protégé relationships (e.g., Ragins & Cotton, 1999) designed to yield transformational leaders seem worthwhile. In addition, historiometric studies assessing the role of influential mentors identified in the biographies of transformational leaders would similarly clarify these mentor-protégé relationships. Because supervisor-subordinate demographic dissimilarity influences the nature of their relationship (e.g., Tsui & O’Reilly, 1989), issues such as age, race, and gender differences between the transformational leader and protégé require attention. The effects of protégé career stage seem worthy of investigation as well.

Finally, given the criticality of role modeling in the mentoring process, follow-up work is needed to address an important question: can individuals who are not transformational leaders foster transformational leadership in protégés? Prior literature does not imply that only transformational leaders can be effective mentors. Indeed, it seems apparent that effective leaders can and do engage in career development activities and provide psychosocial support to protégés, whether or not those leaders are transformational leaders. The extent to which leaders can develop leaders more transformational than themselves, however, is open to question.

**Conclusion**

The ideas proposed here suggest that traditional mentoring models may not be adequate for developing transformational leaders. The limited discussion targeting transformational leaders as developers of other transformational leaders (Conger, 1999) as well as the restricted literature linking leadership and mentoring are ripe areas for additional research. Leadership has historically attracted much attention (Yukl, 1998). Work illuminating mentoring is beginning to expand as well. Now it seems appropriate to combine these two fruitful streams of research to
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advance our understanding of two very critical issues for organizations as they move into the future.

In this respect, prior work has considered the mentoring activities of transformational leaders (e.g., Godshalk & Sosik, 2000; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). However, we have identified an important gap in the research literature. That is, existing models of mentoring may be insufficient for the actual development of transformational leaders. We introduced a process of “transformational mentoring” that merges existing theories of mentoring and transformational leadership. Building on these two literatures, our model suggests a relationship between transformational mentoring activities and protégé outcomes that is mediated by mentor- and protégé-based barriers. Moreover, we reformulated several mentoring activities and argued that these are uniquely required to nurture transformational leadership. Eleven testable propositions were presented. The overlap between mentoring and the activities identified with transformational leadership provides fertile ground for future research on an issue of critical practical concern to organizations: how to generate a stream of transformational leaders who will be able to move their companies successfully into the future.
References


