**Leadership Traits**

Leadership theories that attempt to identify the common traits possessed by successful leaders. These traits included:

·         Adaptable to situations

·         Alert to social environment

·         Ambitious and achievement oriented

·         Assertive

·         Cooperative

·         Decisive

·         Dependable

·         Dominant (desire to influence others)

·         Energetic (high activity level)

·         Persistent

·         Self-confident

·         Tolerant of stress

·         Willing to assume responsibility

However the list is ever growing and no definitive list is possible

**Leadership Styles and Behaviours**

A different perspective to trait theory for leadership is to consider what leaders actually do as opposed to their underlying characteristics. A number of models and theories have been put forward to explore this.

T. McGregor (1906-1964) postulated that managers tend to make two different assumptions about human nature. These views he explored in his theory X and theory Y:

**Theory X**

1. The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he or she can.

2. Because of this human characteristic, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, and threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organisational objectives.

3. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, and wants security above all.

**Theory Y**

1. The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest.

2. External control and threat of punishment are not the only means for brining about effort toward organisational objectives. People will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which they are committed.

3. Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement.

4. The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept responsibility but to seek it.

5. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination. Ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organisational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed I the population.

6. Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilised.

Other studies were carried out to identify successful leadership behaviours, including studies at Ohio State University and Michigan University, following on from this research two studies of particular note were by Gary M. Yukl and by Robert Blake and Jane Mounton.

**Ohio State University Research**

A series of studies at the University indicated that two behavioural dimensions play a significant role in successful leadership. Those dimensions are:

Consideration – (friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth)

Initiating Structure – (organises and defines relationships or roles, establishes well-defined patterns of organisation, channels of communication, and ways of getting jobs done.)

**University of Michigan Research**

Studies carried at the university revealed two similar aspects of leadership style that correlate with effectiveness:

Employee Orientation – (the human-relations aspect, in which employees are viewed as human beings with individual, personal needs)

Production Orientation – (Stress on production and the technical aspects of the job, with employees viewed as the means of getting the work done.

Gary M. Yukl felt that there was a void in existing descriptions of leader behaviour. They did not provide specific guidelines for behaviour in varying situations. He and his colleagues isolated eleven leadership behaviours which fall into four broad categories

**Building Relationships**

1. Networking

2. Supporting

3. Managing conflict

**Influencing People**

4. Motivating

5. Recognising and rewarding

**Making Decisions**

6. Planning and organising

7. Problem solving

8. Consulting and delegating

**Giving / Seeking Information**

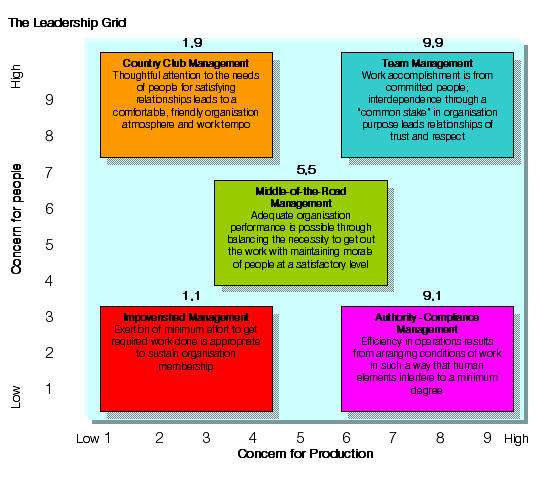
9. Monitoring operations and environment

10. Informing

11. Clarifying roles

**The Leadership Grid**

Robert Blake and Jane Mouton developed another theory called the Leadership Grid, focusing on production/relationship orientations uncovered in the Ohio State and Michigan University studies. They went a little further by creating a grid based on Leaders’ concern for people (relationships) and production (tasks). It theory suggest there is a best way to lead people the 9,9 way.



The Major Leadership Grid Styles

**1,1** Impoverished management. Often referred to as Laissez-faire leadership. Leaders in this position have little concern for people or productivity, avoid taking sides, and stay out of conflicts. They do just enough to get by.

1,9 Country Club management. Managers in this position have great concern for people and little concern for production. They try to avoid conflicts and concentrate on being well liked. To them the task is less important than good interpersonal relations. Their goal is to keep people happy. (This is a soft Theory X approach and not a sound human relations approach.)

**9,1** Authority-Compliance. Managers in this position have great concern for production and little concern for people. They desire tight control in order to get tasks done efficiently. They consider creativity and human relations to be unnecessary.

**5,5** Organisation Man Management. Often termed middle-of-the-road leadership. Leaders in this position have medium concern for people and production. They attempt to balance their concern for both people and production, but they are not committed.

**9+9** Paternalistic “father knows best” management. A style in which reward is promised for compliance and punishment threatened for non-compliance opportunistic “what’s in it for me” management. In which the style utilised depends on which style the leader feels will return him or her the greatest self-benefit.

9,9 Team Management. This style of leadership is considered to be ideal. Such managers have great concern for both people and production. They work to motivate employees to reach their highest levels of accomplishment. They are flexible and responsive to change, and they understand the need to change.

**Contingency Approaches**

Contingency theories propose that from any given situation there is a best way to manage. Contingency theories go beyond situational approaches, which observe that all factors must be considered when leadership decisions are to be made. Contingency theories attempt to isolate the key factors that must be considered and to indicate how to manage when those key factors are present.

**The Hersey–Blanchard Situational Leadership Model**

The situational leadership model of Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard explains how to match the leadership style to the readiness of the group members. The term model rather than theory is deliberately chosen because situational leadership does not attempt to explain why things happen (as a theory would). Instead, the situational leadership model offers some procedures that can be repeated. [1]

Leadership style in the situational model is classified according to the relative amount of task and relationship behavior the leader engages in. The differentiation is akin to structure initiation versus consideration. Task behavior is the extent to which the leader spells out the duties and responsibilities of an individual or group. It includes giving directions and setting goals. Relationship behavior is the extent to which the leader engages in two-way or multiway communication. It includes such activities as listening, providing encouragement, and coaching. The situational model places combinations of task and relationship behaviors into four quadrants. Each quadrant calls for a different leadership style.

Style 1—High task and low relationship. The “telling” style is very directive because the

leader produces a lot of input but a minimum amount of relationship behavior. An autocratic leader would fit here.

Style 2—High task and high relationship. The “selling” style is also very directive, but in

a more persuasive, guiding manner. The leader provides considerable input about task accomplishment but also emphasizes human relations.

Style 3—High relationship and low task. In the “participating” leadership style, there is

less direction and more collaboration between leader and group members. The consultative and consensus subtypes of participative leader generally fit into this quadrant.

Style 4—Low relationship and low task. In the “delegating” leadership style, the leader

delegates responsibility for a task to a group member and is simply kept informed of progress. If carried to an extreme, this style would be classified as free-rein.

The situational leadership model states that there is no one best way to influence group members. The most effective leadership style depends on the readiness level of group members. Readiness in situational leadership is defined as the extent to which a group member has the ability and willingness or confidence to accomplish a specific task. The concept of readiness is therefore not a characteristic, trait, or motive—it relates to a specific task.

Readiness has two components, ability and willingness. Ability is the knowledge, experience, and skill an individual or group brings to a particular task or activity. Willingness is the extent to which an individual or group has the confidence, commitment, and motivation to accomplish a specific task.

The key point of situational leadership theory is that as group member readiness increases, a leader should rely more on relationship behavior and less on task behavior. When a group member becomes very ready, a minimum of task or relationship behavior is required of the leader. Guidelines for the leader, outlined in Figure 5-3, can be summarized as follows:

Situation R1—Low readiness. When followers are unable, unwilling, or insecure, the leader should emphasize task-oriented behavior and be very directive and autocratic, using a telling style.

Situation R2—Moderate readiness. When group members are unable but willing or confident, the leader should focus on being more relationship-oriented, using a selling style.

Situation R3—Moderate-to-high readiness. Group members are able but unwilling or insecure, so the leader needs to provide a high degree of relationship-oriented behavior but a low degree of task behavior, thus engaging in a participating style.

Situation R4—High readiness. When followers are able, willing, or confident, they are self-sufficient and competent. Thus the leader can grant them considerable autonomy, using a delegating style.

The situational model represents a consensus of thinking about leadership behavior in relation to group members: competent people require less specific direction than do less competent people. The model is also useful because it builds on other explanations of leadership that emphasize the role of task and relationship behaviors. As a result, it has proved to be useful as the basis for leadership training. The situational model also corroborates common sense and is therefore intuitively appealing. You can benefit from this model by attempting to diagnose the readiness of group members before choosing the right leadership style.

Nevertheless, the model presents categories and guidelines so precisely that it gives the impression of infallibility. In reality, leadership situations are less clear-cut than the four quadrants suggest. Also, the prescriptions for leadership will work only some of the time. For example, many supervisors use a telling style with unable and unwilling or insecure team members (R1) and still achieve poor results. Research evidence for the situational model has been mixed. A major concern is that there are few leadership situations in which a high-task, high-¬relationship orientation does not produce the best results.

**Transactional and Transformational Leadership**

Several theories have and are being put forward to explain leadership effectiveness. Two of the most prominent leadership theories are Transformational and Transactional leadership theories. Since the late 1980s, theories of transformational and charismatic leadership have been ascendant. Versions of transformational leadership have been proposed by several theorists, including Bass (1985, 1996). Although most author agree that Transactional and transformational leadership are different in concept and in practice, many authors believe that transformational leadership significantly augments transactional leadership, resulting in higher levels of individual, group, and organizational performance. Others believe that Transactional leadership is a subset of transformational leadership. The objective of this paper is to use evidence in literature to give a comparative analysis of the two leadership styles. The paper will also outline and explain inherent weaknesses of the two styles and proffer areas where modifications are necessary.

**Transformational Leadership**

A transformational leader is a person who stimulates and inspires (transform) followers to achieve extraordinary outcomes.

He/she pays attention to the concern and developmental needs of individual followers; they change followers’ awareness of issues by helping them to look at old problems in a new way ; and they are able to arouse, excite and inspire followers to put out extra effort to achieve group goals. Transformational leadership theory is all about leadership that creates positive change in the followers whereby they take care of each other's interests and act in the interests of the group as a whole. The concept of transformational leadership was introduced by James Macgregor Burns in 1978 in his descriptive research on political leaders, but its usage has spread into organisational psychology and management with further modifications.

Transformational leadership enhances the motivation, morale, and performance of followers through a variety of mechanisms. These include connecting the follower's sense of identity and self to the project and the collective identity of the organization; being a role model for followers that inspires them and makes them interested; challenging followers to take greater ownership for their work, and understanding the strengths and weaknesses of followers, so the leader can align followers with tasks that enhance their performance.

Warrilow has identified four components of transformational leadership style:

1) Charisma or idealised influence: the degree to which the leader behaves in admirable ways and displays convictions and takes stands that cause followers to identify with the leader who has a clear set of values and acts as a role model for the followers.

(2) Inspirational motivation: the degree to which the leader articulates a vision that is appeals to and inspires the followers with optimism about future goals, and offers meaning for the current tasks in hand.

(3) Intellectual stimulation: the degree to which the leader challenges assumptions, stimulates and encourages creativity in the followers - by providing a framework for followers to see how they connect [to the leader, the organisation, each other, and the goal] they can creatively overcome any obstacles in the way of the mission.

(4) Personal and individual attention: the degree to which the leader attends to each individual follower's needs and acts as a mentor or coach and gives respect to and appreciation of the individual's contribution to the team. This fulfils and enhances each individual team members' need for self-fulfilment, and self-worth - and in so doing inspires followers to further achievement and growth.

**Weaknesses of Transformational Leadership**

Yukl (1999) has identified seven major weaknesses of Transformational leadership.

First is the ambiguity underlying its influences and processes. The theory fails to explain the interacting variables between transformational leadership and positive work outcomes. The theory would be stronger if the essential influence processes were identified more clearly and used to explain how each type of behaviour affects each type of mediating variable and outcome.

Secondly is the overemphasis of the theory on leadership processes at the dyadic level. The major interest is to explain a leader’s direct influence over individual followers, not leader influence on group or organisational processes.

Examples of relevant group-level processes include:

(1) How well the work is organised to utilise personnel and resources;

(2) How well inter-related group activities are coordinated;

(3)The amount of member agreement about objectives and priorities;

(4) Mutual trust and cooperation among members;

(5) The extent of member identification with the group;

(6) Member confidence in the capacity of the group to attain its objectives;

(7) The procurement and efficient use of resources; and

(8) External coordination with other parts of the organization and outsiders. How leaders influence these group processes is not explained very well by the transformational leadership theories. Organisational processes also receive insufficient attention in most theories of transformational leadership. Leadership is viewed as a key determinant of organisational effectiveness, but the causal effects of leader behaviour on the organisational processes that ultimately determine effectiveness are seldom described in any detail in most studies on transformational leadership. Transformational leadership theories would benefit from a more detailed description of leader influence on group and organisational processes.

Thirdly, the theoretical rationale for differentiating among the behaviours is not clearly explained. The partially overlapping content and the high inter-correlation found among the transformational behaviours raise doubts about their construct validity. For example, intellectual stimulation is operationally defined as causing a subordinate to question traditional beliefs, to look at problems in a different way, and to find innovative solutions for problems. The content is diverse and ambiguous. There is not a clear description of what the leader actually says or does to influence the cognitive processes or behaviour of subordinates.

Fourthly, Yuki identified omission of several transformational behaviour from the original transformational leadership theory which empirical evidence has shown to be relevant. Some of them include inspiring (infusing the work with meaning), developing (enhancing follower skills and self-confidence), and empowering (providing significant voice and discretion to followers).

Fifth is the insufficient specification of situational variables in Transformational leadership. A fundamental assumption of transformational leadership theory is that the underlying leadership processes and outcomes are essentially the same in all situations.

Sixthly, the theory does not explicitly identify any situation where transformational leadership is detrimental. Several studies have shown that transformational leadership can have detrimental effects on both followers and the organisation. Some believe that transformational leadership is biased in favour of top managements, owners and managers. Followers can be transformed to such a high level of emotional involvement in the work over time that they become stressed and burned out. Individual leaders can exploit followers (even without realising it) by creating a high level of emotional involvement when it is not necessary.

If members of an organisation are influenced by different leaders with competing visions, the result will be increased role ambiguity and role conflict.

Lastly, like most leadership theories, transformational leadership theory assumes the heroic leadership stereotype. Effective performance by an individual, group, or organization is assumed to depend on leadership by an individual with the skills to find the right path and motivate others to take it. In most versions of transformational leadership theory, it is a basic postulate that an effective leader will influence followers to make self-sacrifices and exert exceptional effort. Influence is unidirectional, and it flows from the leader to the follower.

**Transactional Leadership**

Transactional Leadership, also known as managerial leadership, focuses on the role of supervision, organisation, and group performance; transactional leadership is a style of leadership in which the leader promotes compliance of his followers through both rewards and punishments. Unlike Transformational leadership, leaders using the transactional approach are not looking to change the future, they are looking to merely keep things the same. These leaders pay attention to followers' work in order to find faults and deviations. This type of leadership is effective in crisis and emergency situations, as well as when projects need to be carried out in a specific fashion.

Within the context of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, transactional leadership works at the basic levels of need satisfaction, where transactional leaders focus on the lower levels of the hierarchy. Transactional leaders use an exchange model, with rewards being given for good work or positive outcomes.

Conversely, people with this leadership style also can punish poor work or negative outcomes, until the problem is corrected. One way that transactional leadership focuses on lower level needs is by stressing specific task performance.

Transactional leaders are effective in getting specific tasks completed by managing each portion individually. Transactional leaders are concerned with processes rather than forward-thinking ideas. These types of leaders focus on contingent reward (also known as contingent positive reinforcement) or contingent penalization (also known as contingent negative reinforcement). Contingent rewards (such as praise) are given when the set goals are accomplished on-time, ahead of time, or to keep subordinates working at a good pace at different times throughout completion. Contingent punishments (such as suspensions) are given when performance quality or quantity falls below production standards or goals and tasks are not met at all.

**Qualities of Transactional Leadership**

Transactional leaders use reward and punishments to gain compliance from their followers. They are extrinsic motivators that bring minimal compliance from followers. They accept goals, structure, and the culture of the existing organization.

Transactional leaders tend to be directive and action-oriented and are willing to work within existing systems and negotiate to attain goals of the organization. They tend to think inside the box when solving problems and transactional leadership is primarily passive. The behaviours most associated with this type of leadership are establishing the criteria for rewarding followers and maintaining the status quo.

Within transactional leadership, there are two factors, contingent reward and management-by-exception. Contingent reward provides rewards for effort and recognizes good performance. Management-by exception maintains the status quo, intervenes when subordinates do not meet acceptable performance levels, and initiates corrective action to improve performance.

**Comparison between Transformational and Transactional Leadership**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Transactional** | **Transformational** |
| 1. Leadership is responsive 2. Works within the organisational culture. 3. Employees achieve objectives through rewards and punishments set by leader. 4. Motivates followers by appealing to their own self-interest. 5. Management-by-exception: maintain the status quo; stress correct actions to improve performance. | 1. Leadership is proactive 2. Works to change the organisational culture by implementing new ideas 3. Employees achieve objectives through higher ideals and moral values. 4. Motivates followers by encouraging them to put group interests first. 5. Individualised consideration: Each behaviour is directed to each individual to express consideration and support. |